

**A Quantitative Study on Multiple Role Balance
Expectations of Emerging Adults and Social
Development in Sri Lanka**

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Department of Science and Advanced Technology
Graduate School of Science and Engineering
Saga University

SANJEE UDARI SAMARANAYAKE

Preface

This thesis is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the Graduate School of Science and Engineering, Saga University, Japan. The research was conducted under the supervision of Associate Professor Toshihiko Takemura from March 2016 to March 2019.

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Table of Contents

Preface	i
Table of Contents	iii
List of Tables	vi
List of Figures	vii
Published Articles in this Thesis	viii
Abstract	x
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
1.1 Research Background	1
1.2 Sri Lankan Context	5
1.2.1 A Brief introduction to Sri Lanka	5
1.2.2 Social and Economic Condition	6
1.2.3 Female Labor Force Participation	9
1.2.4 Work-life Balance in Sri Lanka	9
1.2.5 Younger Generation	12
1.3 Purpose and Objectives of the Thesis	14
1.4 The Significance of the Thesis	15
1.5 Organization of the Thesis	16
1.6 Summary	20
Chapter 2 An Insight into Multiple Role Balance Related Studies: Work-Family and Parenthood	22
2.1 Introduction	22
2.2 Work and Family Research in Sri Lanka	23
2.2.1 Female Participation in Labor and Female-Workers-Related Issues	24
2.2.2 Outcomes of Work-life Balance/Imbalance	28
2.2.3 Working Mothers' Employment-Family Related Issues	31
2.3 Summary	35
Chapter 3 Opportunities and Constraints for Balancing Work and Family Roles in Institutional and Non-Institutional Contexts	38
3.1 Introduction	38
3.2 Institutional Context in Sri Lanka	40
3.2.1 State Policies and Welfare Regimes relates to Work-Life Balance	41
3.2.2 Organizational Legal and Welfare Facilities Related to Work-Life Balance	54
3.3 Non-Institutional Context in Sri Lanka	60
3.4 Summary	65
Chapter 4 Employee Readiness for Organizational Change	69
4.1 Introduction	69
4.2 The Studied Model	71
4.2.1 Employee Readiness	72
4.2.2 Organizational Commitment	73

4.2.3	Trust in Peers & Management	74
4.2.4	Demographic Factors	75
4.2.5	Hypotheses of the Study	76
4.3	Methodology	76
4.3.1	Sample and Data Collection	76
4.3.2	Instrument and Measurement Scales	79
4.4	Data Analyses and Results	80
4.4.1	Initial Analysis	80
4.4.2	Change Experience at the Organization	81
4.4.3	Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Product-Movement Correlations....	82
4.4.4	Multi analysis of variance (MANOVA) results	84
4.5	Discussion	85
4.6	Summary	87
Chapter 5	Role of Gender and Students' Majoring Academic Field on Multiple Role Balance Expectations	90
5.1	Introduction	90
5.2	The Studied Model	92
5.2.1	Anticipated Multiple Role Balance (AMRB)	92
5.2.2	Multiple Role Balance Self-Efficacy (SE) and Outcome Expectations (SE).....	92
5.2.3	Gender and Majoring Academic Field.....	94
5.3	Data Analysis and Results	95
5.3.1	Initial Analysis	95
5.3.2	Differences of Gender and Majoring Field in Study Variables	97
5.3.3	Correlation among Self-Efficacy, Outcome Expectation and Anticipated Multiple Role Balance	98
5.3.4	Regression Analyses	99
5.3.5	Test for the Moderation Effect of Gender and Students Majoring Academic Field.....	100
5.4	Discussion	103
5.5	Summary	108
Chapter 6	Role of Perceived Social Pressure in Multiple Role Balance Expectations.....	109
6.1	Introduction.....	109
6.2	The Studied Model	111
6.2.1	Anticipated Multiple Role Balance (AMRB)	112
6.2.2	Multiple Role Balance Self-Efficacy (SE) and Outcome Expectations (OE).....	113
6.2.3	Perceived Social Pressure (PSP).....	115
6.2.4	Originality of the Model	116
6.3	Data Analysis	117
6.4	Results	120

6.4.1	Measurement Model Results	120
6.4.2	Structural Model Results	123
6.4.3	Multiple Group SEM Analysis	124
6.5	Discussion.....	126
6.6	Summary.....	131
Chapter 7	Conclusion and Implications	132
7.1	Introduction.....	132
7.2	Concluding Major Findings of the Study	133
7.2.1	Preliminary Study on Employee Readiness to Change	133
7.2.2	The Gap in “Work-Family Balance” Research Realm	134
7.2.3	Institutional and Non-Institutional Opportunities and Constraints for Work-Family Balance	135
7.2.4	The Role of Gender/Majoring Academic Field on Multiple Role Balance Expectations.....	137
7.2.5	The Role of Social Pressure on Multiple Role Balance Expectations and the Gender Difference in Perceiving Social Pressure.....	138
7.3	Implications	140
7.3.1	Implications for Policymakers.....	140
7.3.2	Implications for Career Counselors	143
7.3.3	Implications for Other Authorities.....	145
7.4	Future Research Directions.....	146
	Bibliography	149
Appendix A	Theoretical Framework	173
A.1	Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT).....	173
A.2	Social Cognitive Model of Career Self-Management	175
Appendix B	The Survey and Demographic Analysis	179
B.1	Participants and Procedure of the Survey	179
B.2	Measurements	181
B.2.1	Demographic Characteristics.....	181
B.2.2	Multiple Role Balance Self-Efficacy.....	181
B.2.3	Multiple Role Balance Outcome Expectations.....	182
B.2.4	Anticipated Multiple Role Balance Intentions	182
B.2.5	Perceived Social Pressure	183
B.3	Demographic Analysis.....	183
B.3.1	Sample Characteristics.....	183
B.3.2	Marriage, Parenting, and Work Expectations	185
B.4	Sample of the Quectinnaire.....	188

List of Tables

Table 2.1: Factors that keep Sri Lankan Women away from the Labor Market..	25
Table 4.1: Demographic Characteristics of the Sample.....	78
Table 4.2: Factor Loadings and Cronbach's Alpha Aalues.....	81
Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Product-Movement Correlation Test Results	83
Table 4.4: Demographic Multi Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) Results.....	85
Table 5.1: Factor Loadings and Cronbach's Alpha Values	96
Table 5.2: Correlation Coefficients.....	99
Table 5.3: Multiple Regression Analysis Results	101
Table 5.4: Moderated Hierarchical Regression Results.....	102
Table 6.1: Goodness-of-Fit Indices (GOF) and Level of Acceptance	118
Table 6.2: Construct Validity and Reliability of the Measurement Model	121
Table 6.3: Discriminant Validity Index Summary	122
Table 6.4: Standardized Direct Effects and Indirect Effects of the Structural Model	123
Table 6.5: Chi-Square Difference Results for Nested Models.....	124
Table B.1: Demographic Information.....	184
Table B.2: Future Work and Family Role Intentions.....	185
Table B.3: Perceived Social Influence on Future Work and Family Role Planning	187

List of Figures

Figure 1.1: Human Development Index and Ranks for Selected Countries in Asia	8
Figure 1.2: Labor Force Participation Rates for Males and Females	8
Figure 4.1: Employee Perception on the Success of the Recent Changes	82
Figure 6.1: Model Tested in the Current Chapter	111
Figure 6.2: Model Tested for Males.....	125
Figure 6.3: Model Tested for Females	125
Figure A.1: Model of Career Self-Management	178
Figure B.1: Emerging Adults' Future Expectations on Career and Family Life	186

Published Articles in this Thesis

This doctoral thesis incorporates four articles that address various aspects of work-life balance in Sri Lanka. Three articles are already published in refereed journals and one is presented at an international conference. However, I have formatted these articles for the purpose of maintaining coherence in this thesis. In addition, Chapters 1, Chapter 3, Chapter 7, Appendices A and B are originally written for this thesis.

Chapter 2

- Samaranayake, S.U., Takemura, T., An Insight into Multiple Role Balance Related Studies: Work-Family and Parenthood in Sri Lanka. Journal of International Development, Vol.18, No.1, forthcoming

Chapter 4

- Samaranayake, S.U., Takemura, T., Employee Readiness for Organizational Change: A Case Study in an Export Oriented Manufacturing Firm in Sri Lanka. Eurasian Journal of Business and Economics, No.10, Issue 20, 1-16, November, 2017

Chapter 5

- Samaranayake, S.U., Takemura, T., Anticipated Multiple Role Balance in the Future Workforce: A Case Study in Sri Lanka. Saga University Economic Review, Vol.51, No.4, forthcoming

- Samaranayake, S.U., Takemura, T., Anticipated Multiple Role Balance in the Future Workforce: A Case Study in Sri Lanka. Proceeding of the 16th International Conference of the Japan Economic Policy Association (JEPA2017) (Okinawa Jichikaikan Hall), November, 2017

Chapter 6

- Samaranayake, S.U., Takemura, T., Effect of Social Persuasion on Sri Lankan Emerging Adults' Future Multiple Role Balance. Proceedings of the 17th International Conference of the Japan Economic Policy Association (JEPA2018) (Keio University), October, 2018

Abstract

With the increase in dual-earner couples, conflict and balance between family and work lives have become important issues for families and organizations. Many researchers have reported that work-family imbalance could have many adverse effects, such as psychological problems and decision-making difficulties at the individual level and low productivity, less organizational commitment and higher absenteeism at the organizational level. Although many researchers have long been interested in an active workforce that combines paid work with non-work roles, limited attention has been given to the expectations of young people prior to occupying these roles. Especially, the literature has paid scant attention to the future work and family planning of South Asia's emerging adults. More importantly, in a country like Sri Lanka, where traditional Eastern cultural elements are still very powerful, the younger generation has to face increasing pressure from society. Because the youth are the most dynamic medium for social change and the main capital of the country's progress, it is important to have a clear image on their future expectations on balancing their family and social life with paid employment for a better future in Sri Lanka. This is the area in which this study seeks to contribute.

The reviewed literature reveals that work-family research in Sri Lanka has focused exclusively on females and totally overlooked males and the younger generation. Furthermore, previous studies have considered only about two or three roles (worker, spouse, parent) and ignored other essential roles, such as daughter/son,

family member, neighbor, and member of society, which Sri Lankan people generally engage due to the Eastern culture of closed family relations. Additionally, this study provides insights into Sri Lanka's institutional (state and organizational level) and non-institutional (socio-cultural) context while discussing the available opportunities and constraints for achieving balance in work and non-work roles.

This study's overarching aim, therefore, is to understand how Sri Lanka's young generation plans to balance multiple life roles and their determinants, especially the role of social pressure. For that, Lent's Social Cognitive Career Theory's (SCCT) self-management model has been employed as the framework of this study. A self-administered questionnaire survey was conducted to collect data at a leading Sri Lankan government university (student population >12,000) in March 2017. The original questionnaire was prepared in English and later translated into Sinhalese, the native language in Sri Lanka. Questionnaires were distributed among 900 unmarried students in three major faculties. After removing participants with an incomplete questionnaire, the final analysis included 725 participants. Therefore, the overall response rate was 80.5%. Data analysis included mainly Structural Equation Modeling with multi-group analysis and other inferential statistics.

The study's statistical analysis reveals that young females' feelings of self-efficacy toward balancing multiple roles in the future are higher than those of male students. Moreover, this shows that female students' expectations of positive outcomes are higher than those of males. In contrast, young males hold stronger beliefs on negative outcomes of multiple role balancing than females do. In addition, the results indicate those female students have a stronger intention to balance multiple roles in future than male students do. Besides, this reveals that students in a management faculty strongly believe in the positive consequences of balancing work and non-work

roles compared to science faculty students. Furthermore, the results of moderated regression analysis show there are not any moderating effects of gender and students' majoring field on the relationships among self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations, and multiple role balance intentions. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) test results indicate a positive and significant effect of perceived social pressure on anticipated multiple roles balance both directly and indirectly through multiple role balance, self-efficacy, and positive outcome expectations. Furthermore, the results reveal that the effect of perceived social pressure on self-efficacy and anticipated multiple balance is statistically different across genders.

As a result, one contribution of this study to the Career Self-Management (CSM) literature, by using SCCT's self-management model in the Sri Lankan context, is an analysis of anticipated multiple role balance intentions. This thesis also fills the gap on sources of self-efficacy and outcome expectation by studying the role of perceived social pressure in emerging adults. The third contribution of this study is the inclusion of both positive and negative outcome expectations individually as predictors of adaptive behavior, which is rarely found in the CSM literature. Finally, the study expands existing local knowledge on opportunities and barriers in an institutional and non-institutional context for combining employment with family responsibilities and contributory factors for achieving multiple role balance. Most importantly, this study provides possible implications for policymakers, career-family counselors, and relevant authorities in Sri Lanka to facilitate a better environment for handling multiple works and non-work roles with minimum role conflict.

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Research Background

This thesis discourses a universal phenomenon that has grown significantly in recent years: the life roles balance intention and its influential factors. Here, it especially focuses on the Sri Lankan context.

Even though the discussion and the attention on the multiple role balance concept have been broadened in these days, its history can be traced back to late 20th century. However, the main reason for this dialogue is the changing process that is happening in work-life spheres over the years.

In the pre-industrialization period, slight segregation of work and family realms occurred with the widening of trade and business even though in the early years, the whole family worked together for survival. The industrial revolution made a clear demarcation of labor in the family and work domains with the shifting of factories and machinery for mass production. Thereafter, society has changed with men being exclusively responsible for earning money for the family and women solely dedicating their lives for childrearing and household works (Peake and Harris, 2002).

However, this male breadwinner model has been transformed towards the dual-earner model during past decades, with the low demand for physical strength because of technological advancement and computerization. This facilitated the opportunity for the entering of women into the paid labor market. Thereafter, gender-

differentiated roles in the work and family domains became more diverse and no longer persists as fixed (Peake and Harris, 2002; Schmidt, 2018). Under this situation, both males and females have had to be involved in multiple roles such as employee, supervisor, spouse, and parent based on their relationships and their positions.

The uplifted female labor force automatically increased the number of working mothers, dual-earner couples and single parents. This drift increased the childcare and eldercare burden on working employees, especially on working females. Therefore, many companies initiated many welfare programs that facilitate work-life balance such as flexible work schedules and maternity leaves primarily for females. That was the first sight of the “work-life balance” concept in practice.

During the mid of 20th century, many organizations had to increase the length of working hours, unpaid overtime, and changed their working time. This trend generated work-related stress, shortened time for family and home and finally dissatisfaction about life. So, conflicts occurred among life roles when incompatible demands competed for each other. Thus, well-balanced work and family life has been identified as a key factor of increasing satisfaction in different life domains and promoting one’s psychological well-being (Ahrens and Ryff, 2006). Organizations have also helped their employees to balance work and family life demands since they have realized that well-balanced employees share lower work-related stress and higher organizational commitment and motivation. Employers have understood that having such employees corresponds to higher productivity and a sustainable workforce. Thus work-life balance has become an important concern among both employees and employers. Still, many individuals who engaged in this dynamic workforce are searching for good cooperation across multiple roles.

The “work-life balance” has attracted researchers’ attention since the 1960’s with the increase in women’s share of the labor force. But initially, they focused on working mothers and dual-earner families. Then, gradually, their focus has changed to work-family conflict with the growing incidents related to workplace stress and burnouts in the 1980s’ and 1990s. At the same time, “family-friendly policies” has grabbed the interest of researchers’ since they have identified the importance of a legal framework for the concept. But still, they have considered only working females especially working mothers and dual-earner couples, while forgetting working fathers, female employees without children, unmarried male/female workers, and those who have other family caring responsibilities. With time, researchers have come to understand that they should pay attention to those parties with the changing nature of work, due to ever-changing social and economic conditions. Therefore, in the late 1990s, their attention has shifted from the narrow focus of working mothers to a broader focus on married or unmarried male and female workers with or without children. This is how the “work-family balance” has grown broader up to “work-life balance” concept.

On the other hand, the social and economic developmental efforts of a country affect the work-life balance of its citizens. The fundamental goals of economic development include not only economic growth but also an improvement in human welfare, which is often known as social or human development. Social development, in turn, is a good investment in future economic growth. Every developed and developing country wants to speed up its economic development, but it is obvious that its efforts to do so cannot be realized without a growing workforce. Many countries, such as Japan and Sri Lanka, have low birth rates and difficulties in attracting and retaining quality workers, a situation that directly affects the growth of each country’s

workforce. These are the outcomes of a poor work-life balance. High birth rates may result in a larger group of workers as young people reach the age of employment, and high employment rates, high level of satisfaction and performance at work, and high degrees of productivity may be some of the positive outcomes of a healthy employment sector. It is important to improve the well-being of the workforce so workers can reach their full potential. The success of the society is ultimately linked to the well-being of each citizen. For this reason, the work-life balance is a hot topic among academics and also employers.

Even though, a lot of attention has been paid in academic literature to examining work-life balance aspects of the active workforce across diverse cultures, comparatively very little attention has been given to studying the emerging adults' intentions to balance multiple roles once they join the work-force (Weer, et al., 2006; Mason, 2015). However, many scholars (Cinamon, 2010; Roche, et al., 2017) have also mentioned the importance of studying emerging adults' intention of role combination and their plans to balance multiple roles. As explained by Arnett (2004), emerging adults are young males and females who are 18-25 years old. It is the age period between adolescence and adulthood. Therefore, emerging adults have a unique characteristic; the curiosity of searching for their own way/direction in life, love, career, and world, neither dependency on adolescence nor holding responsibilities in adulthood. Peake and Harris (2002) and Lopez, et al. (2014) have mentioned that the present generation of emerging adults is anticipating to participate in both career and family, unlike their earlier generations. On the other hand, some research has shown that both genders in young ages often fail to plan future role balance practically, and some others have mentioned normative controls that could influence people's role

balance intention (Stevens, et al., 1992). Therefore, there is timely importance to investigate the emerging adults' future role balance preferences in order to fill the gap in available knowledge.

Furthermore, most research in the realm of “work-life balance” has studied only a few life roles, such as spouse, parent, and employee roles and neglected other additional roles, such as a friend, elderly caregiver, volunteer, or social worker (Pietromonaco, et al., 1986; Thoits, 1986; Bridges, 1987). As Roche, et al. (2017) mentioned, inquiring how young people conceptualize and plan to negotiate their multiple roles has become an attractive research path at present.

Importantly, most of the studies regarding young adults' future multiple role balance are mainly based on the USA and few on other western countries. It is rarely found that such studies are carried out in the South Asian region. Thus, this thesis focuses on emerging adults in Sri Lanka.

1.2 Sri Lankan Context

1.2.1 A Brief introduction to Sri Lanka

Sri Lanka is a beautiful island of 66,000 square kilometers in the Indian ocean, close to the south-eastern coast of India. The island has a multi-ethnic and multi-religious society. The majority of Sri Lankan people are Sinhalese (74%) and the rest of them are Tamil (18%), Muslim (7%), and Burgers and other minor ethnic groups (1%). The island has suffered thirty years of civil war between Sinhalese and Tamil terrorists. But, there is a core of cultural beliefs, norms, and values that are widely shared among the majority of Sri Lankans who largely dominate the country's economy, social structure, family and common behavior.

It has been enriched mainly by Theravada Buddhism from long ago and it was exposed to western culture, since Sri Lanka has been ruled by three western nations: Portugal, the Netherlands and Britain for over 450 years. Other than that, Indian influence could be seen in Sri Lanka due to its closeness to the island. After the open economy in 1977, Sri Lanka has further gotten the chance to be exposed to foreign culture. Therefore, now the culture of Sri Lanka is a mixture of traditional elements with modern aspects.

1.2.2 Social and Economic Condition

The economy of the country, is a lower middle-income country with a GDP per capita of USD 4,073 in 2017, according to the World Bank. Since the manufacturing and service sector was blooming in cities, the country's economy was now shifting towards an urbanized economy from the rural-based agrarian economy which was prominent on the island decades ago.

Trade is significant in the Sri Lankan economy, while tourism, textile, tea, apparel, rice, and other agricultural products remain as main economic sectors. In addition to that, overseas employment contributes to the country's economy, and the major portion of it comes from Sri Lankan workers in the Middle East. The important point of this is, the majority of Middle East workers are females.

Sri Lanka has a free education system from primary education up to the university undergraduate level. It gives the opportunity to benefit from higher education for everyone at every social level. Further, the Sri Lankan government provides health facilities for free for every citizen. Because of this free education and

health service, the island could be able to make significant growth in its social and health sectors compared to other South Asian nations.

Sri Lanka is classified as a “High Human Development” nation by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP). The country has a Human Development Index (HDI) value of 0.77 and was ranked 76 out of 189 countries in human development in 2017 (United Nations Development Program, 2018). This human development index measures the social and economic development of the country. Sri Lanka ranked the top in the South Asian region and Japan was ranked as another country in Asia with an HDI above that of Sri Lanka (see Figure 1.1). One of the main components of HDI, “Long and Healthy Life”, measured by “Life Expectancy at Birth”, has now increased to 75 years (78.4 years for females and 71.7 years for males) in Sri Lanka.

The other component relates to “knowledge”, the adult literacy rate was 92.6 percent in 2012; youth¹ (15-29 years) literacy was 99.2 percent for females and 98.4 percent for males, and the percentages of the population (25 years and above) with at least some secondary education is more than 80 percent for both males and females (United Nations Development Program , 2018). Compared to other Asian countries, only Japan, Singapore, South Korea, and Malaysia, are above Sri Lanka in terms of population (25 years and above) with at least some secondary education.

According to the UNDP Statistical Report, even though there are many positive development aspects in Sri Lankan as indicated in social and economic development indices, still there are many challenges that Sri Lanka has to tackle.

¹ The National Youth Policy (Government of Sri Lanka, 2014) of Sri Lanka defines youth as between 15-29 years.

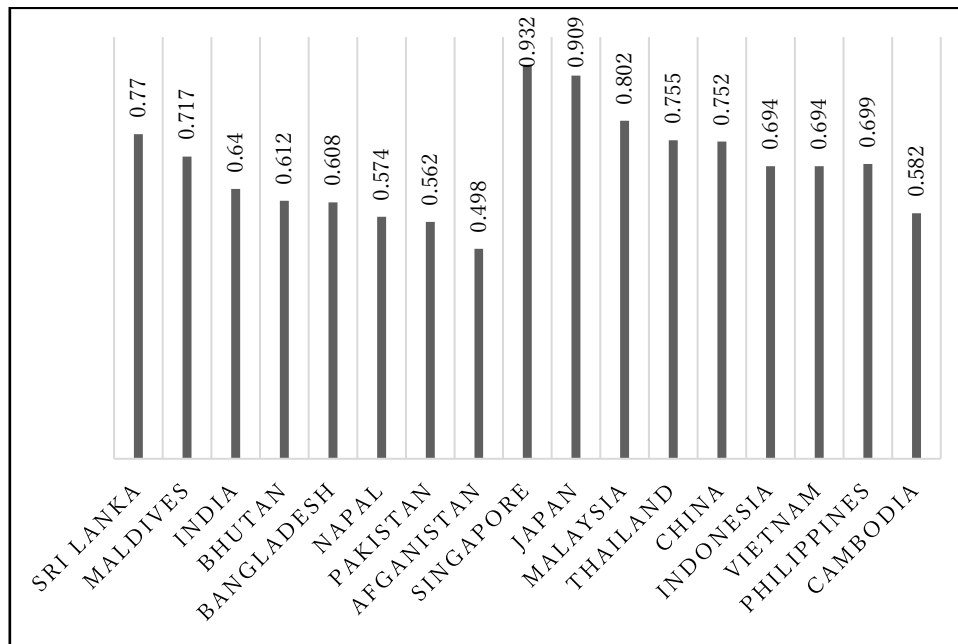


Figure 1.1: Human Development Index for Selected Countries in Asia (2017)

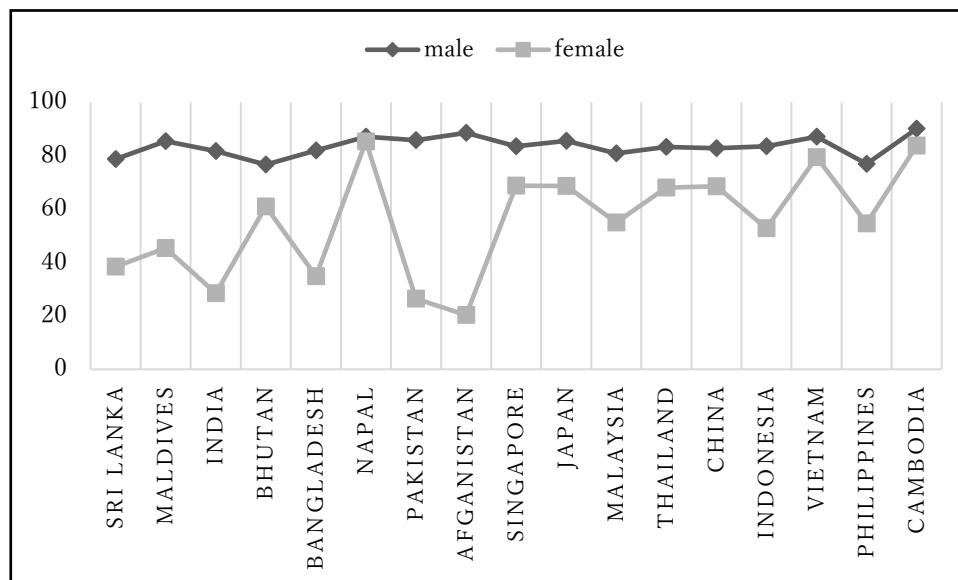


Figure 1.2: Labor Force Participation Rates for Males and Females (2018)

Among them, there are two issues that directly relate to the current research problem discussed in this thesis: less female empowerment compared to developed nations and less female labor force participation (FLFP).

1.2.3 Female Labor Force Participation

In the UNDP report, female empowerment has been calculated by the number of parliament seats held by females, which is at 5.8 % in the current parliament. In Sri Lanka, 82.6 % of adult women have reached at least a secondary level of education compared to 83.1 % in their male counterparts. Female participation in the labor market is 35.1 % compared to 74.1 % for men (United Nations Development Program, 2018).

As explained earlier, females perform better in education compared to males. Even though the gender gap in educational attainment and completion rate is close to zero, when it comes to FLFP, this education gain doesn't convert into a country's workforce advantage. Even though the economy has expanded, the FLFP has declined from 41% in 2010 to 38.4% in 2018. Maldives, Nepal and Bhutan maintain higher FLFP rates among regional neighbors (see Figure 1.2). The male labor force participation remains at 75% at the same time. However, the above statistics show, education alone will not enough to get females into the labor force. The annual report of the Institute of Policy Studies (2017) stated that creating decent jobs for highly educated females, flexible working hours, holistic policies which ensure, a good work-life balance, and improved child-care facilities would help to attract more females into the island's labor force.

1.2.4 Work-life Balance in Sri Lanka

In the Sri Lankan society, the role of women within the family is comparatively privileged compared to other Asian countries due to the influence of Buddhism. Even though the country's constitution grants women all the rights to enjoy

equal privileges in social, economic and political life as a male, Sri Lankan traditional norms, beliefs, and practices keep female behind the males (Herath, 2015).

In Sri Lankan society “family” is a fundamental unit of society. Within the family, most of the household chores, cooking, feeding, washing, cleaning, childcare, elderly care, hospitality for relatives, visitors, and neighbors are regarded as women’s responsibilities and males mainly act as breadwinners and decision makers. Thus, Sri Lankans perceive gendered labor division as natural phenomena, which don’t need any remedies. Even though this situation is now changing very slowly in urban society, it is still the same in suburban and rural areas of the island.

In the present, the number of dual-earning families is increasing, but the responsibilities on the women still remain. Therefore, Sri Lankan women bear multiple responsibilities at home even though they have a very busy schedule at work. The main reason for this is, both male and many females think of household duties as a “Woman’s Responsibility”. Still, Sri Lankan husbands aren’t familiar with life with career wives. Gunatilaka (2013) mentions that the earnings of women employees are regarded as “supplementary” within the family since males are privileged as main breadwinners. These socio-cultural perceptions and traditional attitudes hinder the entrance of women into the labor force and suppress a woman’s ability to achieve a work-life balance regardless of race and religion in Sri Lanka. However, the attention given to these socio-cultural constraints on women’s economic participation and work-life balance is insufficient.

Furthermore, it is possible to argue that why many researchers rarely consider gender when they carry out studies on work-life balance. In the context of traditional Eastern cultural background, it is true that females must face constraints when they

combine employment with family responsibilities. Even though the socio-cultural setting of the island provides some privileges to males by releasing them from the most of household and caring duties, they are the most discriminated segment in the Sri Lankan society in the face of family-friendly state and organizational legislation. That is because almost all the family-friendly legislation relevant to governmental or non-governmental are mainly focused on females (e.g., benefits relate to childbirth).

Men in dual-earning couples may experience the same level of work-family conflict as women or close to women, but they may perceive that differently. Women may feel guiltier than men about work interference with family just because of the culturally sanctioned care and domestic responsibilities. This creates more stress for females compared to males when they fail to balance competing demands. An important point is that female partners in dual-earning couples could achieve better balance in work-family demands and proper labor division at home only if their male partners are able to balance their work schedules properly. There are many discussions and debates that emphasize work-family balance as a “women’s issue” and barriers against women career involvement, advancement, and female leadership. However, it is obvious that change won’t happen if we ignore men’s relationship to work and life. Other than that, a combination of busy work schedules and a feeling of more responsible for earning money, while thinking about the involvement in home life can create an unhealthy level of anxiety and stress for some men. Furthermore, children also get benefits when both mothers and fathers are with them and they can observe how both parents share their duties.

In context of Sri Lanka, these aspects are still not opening a conversation that assumes everyone deserves to find a balance that fits and move away from labeling

work-life balance and other workplace problems as “women’s issues.”

1.2.5 Younger Generation

Except for male and female adults who are currently employed, the younger generation who are still educating and willing to join with the labor force in the future is the most neglected segment in society in the local work-family research arena. It is obvious that the youth are a valuable resource for any country and thus they are often seen as one of the most dynamic mediums of social change. The younger generation of any country often plays a vital and dominant role in social movements, which are usually the driving force behind these changes. Fortunately, Sri Lanka has the largest absolute cohort of young people the country is likely ever to have. However, unfortunately, the attention paid on problems and challenges that they are facing, and the problems they will face in the future, is not sufficient.

The National Youth Policy (Government of Sri Lanka, 2014) of Sri Lanka defines youth as those within the age group of 15-29 taking into consideration the nature of the transition from dependent child to independent adult in the Sri Lankan context. It is estimated that the youth population in Sri Lanka is about 22% of the total population in 2011. The youth population by sex indicates that there is an almost equal distribution.

Young people in higher education in Sri Lanka are fewer in number due to the limited number of tertiary education institutes. Only around 17% of total students those who pass the university entrance examination are eligible to enter a state university in Sri Lanka due to a limited number of open spaces in universities. In 2017, the majority

of total university enrolled students were females (63%) according to University Grant Commission Statistics. However, state university education doesn't guarantee employment. Access to employment is one of the major determinants of youth well-being in any country.

With regards to the employment of young people, the unemployment rate remains unchanged during the the last decade from 20.91% in 2007 to 20.74% in 2017 as per International Labor Organizations (ILO) estimates. The high youth unemployment rate is the result of many factors such as unmatched skills, limited employment opportunities in formal state and private sector organizations, lack of entrepreneurship, the mismatch between youth aspiration and available employment opportunities, social factors (class, caste and ethnicity, etc.) and regional disparities in resource allocation & opportunities. Young females must face additional barriers just because they aren't males, as evidenced by the female labor force participation rate, which is significantly lower than their educational attainment according to the Sri Lanka National Human Development Report (United Nations Development Program, 2014).

More importantly, youth is a period of growth, opportunities, and challenges both physically as well as mentally. During this period, young people start to show signs of physical and emotional independence and begin to develop their own sense of identity and maturity. On the other hand, it is a period that is full of exploration and experiments. As a result of that, young people are often self-questioning, emotional unsteady, and even socially depressed cohort who suffer from "identity crisis".

Unlike earlier generations, the younger generation today will eventually be dual-earner families with kids in the future. Therefore, future career and family life

play an important role among the challenges in both genders. They self-question on how they face circumstances when they become an employee, a spouse, a parent and a responsible citizen in society.

In such situation, there is a necessity to obtain a clear image on how they are going to plan their future when they engage in paid employment and how they are going to tackle the conflict between multiple life roles that they would play in future. Thus, the current research tries to fill this gap by studying anticipated multiple role balance among emerging adults in Sri Lanka and its' possible determinants.

1.3 Purpose and Objectives of the Thesis

The main purpose of the research is to obtain a better understanding of how emerging adults in Sri Lanka plan to balance their family life, work life, and social life and to examine possible determinants of their future expectations.

The more specific objectives of this research are:

- To explore existing local research in relevant to “work-family balance” and identify the research gap.
- To explore the institutional and non-institutional context in Sri Lanka and discuss the opportunities and constraints in the face of achieving a proper balance between work and non-work commitments.
- To examine the determinants of anticipated multiple role balance intentions of the emerging adults in Sri Lanka and to examines whether the relationships among the determinants and anticipated multiple role balance depend on gender or students' majoring academic field.

- To identify the role of social pressure from outsiders in emerging adults' future multiple role balance intention and to understand the gender difference in perceiving social pressure.
- To provide possible implications for policymakers, career-family counselors and relevant authorities in Sri Lanka to facilitate a proper background for work-life balance.

1.4 The Significance of the Thesis

This thesis would contribute to existing Career Self-Management (CSM) literature by filling the gap on sources of self-efficacy, and outcome expectation by studying the role of perceived social pressure in emerging adults and validating the Social Cognitive Career Theory's (SCCT) self-management model (see Appendix A) in the South Asian context. This study, for the first time, investigates the role of perceived social pressure on future or anticipated multiple role balance intention in young males and females as the source of multiple balance self-efficacy and outcome expectations.

Further, this study would expand the local existing knowledge on opportunities and barriers in institutional and non-institutional context for combining employment with family responsibilities. It also highlights the contributory factors for achieving multiple role balance which would apply to other developing nations, too.

Most of the studies regarding young adults' future multiple role balance are mainly based on the USA and few on other western countries. Such studies are rarely carried out in the South Asian region. Thus, there was timely importance to expand the

limited understanding regarding how Sri Lankan emerging adults plan to manage their future work and non-work life roles. Further, the societal discouragements and encouragements toward role combination and balance preferences also have been identified as an important area to study, especially in societies where modern elements are wrapped in traditional attitudes. Other than that, research is rarely carried out that demonstrates the gender difference in perceiving social pressure in the Sri Lankan context, where the dark clouds of traditional gender norms and, stereotypes still occasionally appear. However, this research fills the above vacuum in the work-family balance research realm in Sri Lanka.

Most importantly, it presents implications for policymakers, career-family counselors and corresponding authorities for making a work and family-friendly environment. Finally, it draws attention to future research directions to broaden existing knowledge on work-family research.

1.5 Organization of the Thesis

The thesis consists of seven chapters and two appendices.

Chapter 1 includes background information to the rationale of the research, the purpose of the research and research objectives. It further explains how “work-life balance” developed as a hot topic in the world as well as a popular research arena. Gradually, it explains why does studying of multiple role balance (work and non-work role balance) is important to Sri Lanka and especially, with relevance to emerging adults rather than the active workforce. Moreover, this chapter introduces the demographic, social and economic situation of Sri Lanka and gives a brief description

of Sri Lankan younger generation. Finally, it illustrates the significance of the research in the Sri Lankan context.

Chapters 2 and 3 offer an insight into Sri Lankan research relate to work-family balance and opportunities and constraints when balancing work and family roles in institutional and non-institutional contexts in Sri Lanka.

Chapter 2 outlines the literature review to illustrate the important areas covered by Sri Lankan researches with special reference to “work-life balance in Sri Lanka”. With the aim of encouraging more diverse local studies, this chapter attempts to review the contribution of local research relevant to work-life balance and to recommend directions for future research by identifying the gap in existing literature. Unlike the “work-family” research conducted in a wide, cross-disciplinary realm in the western countries, the issues related to work and family in Sri Lanka have been discussed mainly along three mutually unrelated paths, (1) labor force participation of women, (2) outcomes of work-life balance/imbalance, and (3) a few researches that relate to working mothers.

Chapter 3 attempts to make an insight into Sri Lanka’s institutional (state and organizational level) and non-institutional (socio-cultural) context in terms of available opportunities and constraints for achieving balance in work and non-work roles. It provides some implications for policymakers as well as corresponding authorities to mitigate the above-identified constraints. The chapter identifies that state policies, laws, and organizational work-family initiatives/practices sometimes act against their main objective of mitigating the difficulties of employees. These policies seek to advance the quality of employee’s quality of life, and that of their families – especially women and children. These projected benefits can be hindered by the island’s social and

cultural setting.

Chapter 4 to Chapter 6 presents the empirical findings of the thesis.

Chapter 4 explains the initial study conducted by the author at an export-oriented manufacturing company. It investigates the relationships between organizational commitment, trust in peers & management and employee change readiness. The effects of demographic factors such as gender, age, and working experience on employees' organizational commitment, trust in peers & management, and their change readiness are also examined. A cross-sectional questionnaire survey was conducted to collect data from a sample of 185 randomly selected employees in an export-oriented business firm in Sri Lanka. Pearson Product-moment Correlation test is used to test the strength and direction of the relationships in the hypotheses. Multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) is employed to analyze the relationships between demographic variables and the three main variables concerned. This chapter unveils that organizational commitment and trust in peers & management are significantly and positively correlated to employee readiness for organizational change. Further, it highlights that Sri Lankan organizations have not introduced favorable policies or efficient welfare practices which support employees' work-life balance yet. These findings of the preliminary study directed the author to investigate "work-life balance" in relevant to Sri Lanka.

Chapter 5 presents the investigation of relationships among self-efficacy, outcome expectations for balancing multiple roles and anticipated multiple role balance intentions of university undergraduates in Sri Lanka. Relationships among these factors depend on gender or university undergraduates' major academic field and were further examined in this research. Data analyses include factor analysis to determine the factor

structure of the data set and multiple regression analysis to test above relationships. From the results obtained, self-efficacy and positive outcome expectations predicted the anticipated multiple role balance intentions positively and significantly. However, results of moderated regression analysis show that there were not any moderating effects of gender and students' majoring field on the relationships among self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations and multiple role balance intentions. This chapter provides necessary directives for the policymakers in designing effective labor policies that can generate a work environment and strategies conducive to multiple role balance intentions of the emerging workforce.

Chapter 6 examines the role of perceived social persuasion on anticipated multiple role balance in emerging adults in Sri Lanka and variance across genders. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) with multi-group analysis was employed to investigate the relationships among constructs. The findings indicate that there is a positive and significant effect of perceived social pressure on anticipated multiple roles balance both directly and indirectly through multiple role balance self-efficacy and positive outcome expectations. Further, the results reveal that the effect of perceived social pressure on self-efficacy and anticipated multiple balance is statistically different across genders. This chapter contributes to the existing literature by applying SCCT's self-management model to multiple role planning for the first time in Sri Lanka and filling the gaps in research on self-efficacy and outcome expectations.

Chapter 7 is the concluding chapter which evaluates whether the research objectives have been appropriately achieved. Further, it summarizes the main findings, the limitations, and strengths of the research. Most importantly it presents implications for policymakers, career-family counselors and corresponding authorities. Finally, it

draws attention to future research directions. The current research concludes the impact of social pressure towards emerging adults' planning on balancing work and non-work balance in the future. The author expects that the findings of this research would contribute to existing CSM literature by filling the gap on sources of self-efficacy, and outcome expectation by studying the role of perceived social pressure in emerging adults. Finally, it would expand the local existing knowledge on opportunities and barriers of institutional and non-institutional context for combining employment with family responsibilities and contributory factors for achieving multiple role balance which would apply to other developing nations too.

Appendix A outlines the theoretical framework of the research which is directed towards understanding the relationship among anticipated multiple role balance and its determinants such as social pressure, self-efficacy, positive and negative outcome expectations. This appendix briefly explains the SCCT's its self-management model.

Appendix B describes the research setting, participants, questionnaire development, measurements, and the data collection procedure of the primary data done in Sri Lanka during early 2017. Further, it presents the demographic analysis of the research sample. The sample of the questionnaire also presented at the end of this appendix.

1.6 Summary

Finally, this chapter explains the background of the current research by specifying how “work-life balance” has developed as a hot topic in the world and how

it grabs the attention of researchers. Globally, there exists a considerable body of research on work-life balance in a wide, cross-disciplinary realm. But locally, it has been discussed within very limited focus. More specifically, both global and local researches are mainly centered on currently active workforce and they have neglected the younger generation, age between 18-25 who are going to get the baton of work-family conflict. Therefore, this research aims Sri Lankan emerging adults and their aspirations towards balancing multiple roles in the future. The next chapter reviews the past studies relate to work-family balance in Sri Lanka. Further, it tries to identify the gap and immediate need of investigation in the local work-life balance research.

Chapter 2 An Insight into Multiple Role Balance Related Studies: Work-Family and Parenthood

2.1 Introduction

As in Western countries, so in the developing countries such as Sri Lanka, with the growing number of dual-earner couples and female employees, there is a growing concern about “multiple role balance”. However, among the general audience, “work-life balance” is the more popular and better-known term than “multiple role balance”. Though there are many definitions of work-life balance, Sirgy and Lee (2018) conceptualized “*work-life balance*” as *a high level of engagement in work life as well as non-work life with minimal conflict between social roles in work and non-work life.*” This conceptualization makes it imperative that an individual balance these multiple roles at work, in the family and community to attain reasonable level of success in all of them.

Globally, there exists a considerable body of research on work-life balance. However, locally the knowledge of the concept of “work-life balance” and its consequences for males and females is limited. Most of the research has been focused especially on female labor and a few human resource management issues. The areas of work and family issues and the important areas of well-balanced life roles for individual well-being, satisfaction with life, mental health and overall harmony in life for either gender have been neglected. Many local researchers agree that there is a vacuum in empirical research on work-life balance and its subjective and objective contextual

factors (Bombuwela and De Alwis, 2013; Adikaram and Jayatilake, 2016; Kodagoda, 2010, 2018).

Not only the local research on the work-life balance but also global research conducted in diverse cultures has paid but little attention to the younger generation - the generation that is willing to join the workforce and are yet to start a family and to participate in social life - and their preferences for balancing work- and family life rather than the work- and family issues related to active workforce (Weer, et al., 2006; Cinamon, 2010; Mason, 2015; Roche, et al., 2017). Peake and Harris (2002) mentioned that young adults often fail to plan their work-, family- and social-life even though they have been raised with the ambition to hold a well-balanced lifestyle. Therefore, many scholars argue that the importance of planning the approach to striking a balance between future work-family roles because balancing multiple roles with minimum role conflicts is a complex task (Weitzman, 1994; Becker and Moen, 1999).

This chapter is an attempt at providing insights into the work-family balance related research in Sri Lanka to encourage more local studies to fill this research gap by making recommendations for future research, and finally, to raise the policymakers' awareness for formulating practical work-family friendly policies.

2.2 Work and Family Research in Sri Lanka

Unlike the “work-family” research conducted in a wide, cross-disciplinary realm in the western countries (Rajadhyaksha, 2012), the issues related to work and family in Sri Lanka have been discussed mainly along three mutually unrelated paths, (1) labor force participation of women, (2) outcomes of work-life balance/imbalance,

and (3) a few researches that relate to working mothers.

2.2.1 Female Participation in Labor and Female-Workers-Related Issues

Gunatilaka (2013) explored the drivers of women's decision to participate in the labor force as also the constraints on female participation in the labor force. She identified the availability of domestic help and attainment of secondary level education and beyond as the two principal drivers for participation of married women in the labor force. Other than these two drivers, having children at a later rather than earlier age, higher per capita household consumption, a higher share of employed females compared to males with the same educational attainment in the district, and whether the women live on estates or not, were also possible important factors. Similarly, having children below five years of age has been recognized as a constraint on engaging in economic activities. She argues that the reasons for the above factors are the cultural and status related perceptions and attitudes that shape the role of women/married women should play in the society and household.

Gunatilaka (2013) also reported that there was a huge care-burden on Sri Lankan women due to lack of institutional support for the childcare and eldercare. Also, the social norms consider women as "caregivers". Therefore, she avers that even when a woman has better education, her socio-economic status could be a reason for keeping her away from engaging in the paid labor force. Furthermore, she suggests that policymakers should address the unequal division of unpaid work between male and female while formulating new policies to attract more females into the workforce.

Semasinghe (2017) also studied the factors influencing women's participation

in the labor market in Sri Lanka. He uses both qualitative and quantitative data from a survey across the urban, rural, and estate sectors. He revealed a range of factors that keep Sri Lankan female at home and has categorized the factors as economic, socio-cultural and labor market-related factors as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Factors that keep Sri Lankan Women away from the Labor Market

Category	Examples
<i>Economic factors</i>	(i) involvement in studies (ii) sufficiently high level of income of the household that precludes the need for additional income (iii) low education (vi) lack of skills to cope with existing opportunities
<i>Socio cultural factors</i>	(v) heavy involvement in household activities, the major contributory factor that keep women away from the labor force (common to the three sectors) (vi) voluntarily turning down work to enjoy leisure (vii) socio-cultural norms (viii) family decision (ix) lack of information
<i>Labor market factors</i>	(x) bad environment in the work place, (xi) unfavorable working conditions (xii) low wages (xiii) backward attitudes (xiv) lack of awareness of available employment opportunities
<i>General factors</i>	(xv) physical illness/disability (xvi) retirement

As per the results obtained, heavy involvement in household activities has been identified as the major factor that keeps women away from the labor force (common to each of the three sectors). Semasinghe (2017) identifies factors, (i), (ii) and (iv) as causes common to urban and rural sectors while (iii), (viii), (ix), (xii), (xiii), and (xiv) as specific to the estate sector. More specifically, he mentions that the number of females who have never participated in any paid employment throughout their lives was very small. The reason for that is, they have been economically active at some time in their lives and left the paid employment due to numerous reasons such as marriage, pregnancy, childcare or eldercare responsibilities, poor health condition, and some

other workplace problems. In conclusion, Semasinghe (2017) states that, among other factors, socio-cultural factors, which are strongly bound with the island's traditional life pattern should be carefully handled since they are sensitively attached to Sri Lankans' mindset.

Gunewardena (2015) studied the reasons for not translating Sri Lankan women's educational gains into workforce advantages. Thus, she has found that the differences in the way the labor market treats the identical skills in men and women, and cultural norms regarding the division of household work as the most compelling reasons for the educated women not engaging in the labor force. Moreover, she has shown that women with tertiary education (university education) have the highest probability of participating in paid employment rather than women with secondary education as per the U-shaped relationship between education and labor force participation.

Madurawala (2017) examined the recent trends of opportunities available to Sri Lankan females to enter the labor force and concluded that the opportunities available for women in accessing the labor force have declined over time in Sri Lanka, and especially the poor women are more vulnerable to this situation. Other than female labor force related researches, many others have been conducted to address various problems faced by female workers at workplaces.

Bombuwela and De Alwis (2013) made inquiries about the effect of individual factors, family factors, organizational factors, and cultural factors on women's career development. A questionnaire survey was conducted among women executives (a sample of professional female employees). The results revealed that individual factors, organizational factors, and cultural factors significantly affect the executive women

worker's career development. The second most influential factor for the career development after individual factors was cultural factors, which create the most powerful barrier, the gender stereotyping.

Attanapola (2004) explored the health impacts of changing gender roles among female workers in Export Processing Zones (EPZ) in Sri Lanka. She stated that when rural girls come to work in urban industrial areas, their gender roles changes from that of a dependent householder to that of a breadwinner. This change could create difficult work-related (reproductive, respiratory; anemia, and malnutrition) and psychological health problems (hysteria), which could be the ultimate results of long working hours, unhygienic boarding houses, poor dietary habits, unsafe sexual relationships, and poor access to medical treatment. Since there are many success stories of EPZ working females, this study suggested that they would need institutional, legal, economic, and socio-cultural support to achieve their goals (Attanapola, 2005).

Wickramasinghe and Jayabandu (2007) investigated flextime arrangement in Sri Lanka. Their results showed that flextime, on the one hand, facilitates employees to combine career-family life demands, and on the other hand improve employee loyalty, commitment, and potential. As they pointed out, IT sector is the only sector in Sri Lanka that implements flextime at the workplace. Secondly, they mentioned that regardless of gender, most of the employees felt that flex-time helped to balance work-life commitments. Moreover, this study stated that female employees were more positive about flextime as it helps them to balance work and non-work demands and facilitate career development. Finally, it has concluded that flextime was beneficial to workers at all stages of their careers as it facilitates a more holistic work/life balance.

2.2.2 Outcomes of Work-life Balance/Imbalance

Even though very few, very interesting researches have been conducted under “work-family conflict” in Sri Lanka and most of them were interested in exploring determinants of work-family conflict.

Kailasapathy and Metz (2012) examined how dual-earner couples experience and deal with work-life balance in Sri Lanka. The interviews conducted by them revealed an influence of male spouse’s gender role ideology on the negotiation of the exchange relationship at home. Similarly, the interviews revealed the marital unhappiness of economically active Sri Lankan wives whose husbands did not share the household and childcare duties with them and the marital happiness of those who got help from their husbands. Furthermore, they found that the extended family (parents and in-laws) helped both spouses in dual-earner families, especially the wives, to manage work-family conflicts. They identified it as a special “work-family arrangement” in Sri Lankan society, something not found in the western cultures. In Sri Lankan workplaces, where high power distance exists, always workers initiate the negotiations when they need constructive outcomes. Therefore, they recommended that supervisors be open to negotiation in order to minimize conflicts and individuals should be positive to starting negotiations when they feel it necessary.

As an extension to the above study, Kailasapathy, et al. (2014) studied the direct and interactive effects of leader-member exchange (quality of the relationship shared by a supervisor and a subordinate), gender and spouse’s gender role orientation on work-family conflict. They found that high-quality supervisor exchange relationship helps the subordinates to achieve a better balance between work and family demands.

They also mention that the nature of this relationship depends on both party's gender and their spouse's gender role orientation. Moreover, this study found that the above relationship becomes positive when women workers' spouses have non-traditional gender role orientation. Nevertheless, their study confirms that better leader-member exchange is important to reduce work interfere with family conflict regardless of the gender, especially in a country like Sri Lanka, where the work-family friendly policies are absent.

Further, they have found that gender has a major effect on work-family conflict. Besides that, Sri Lankan couples reported only a moderate level of "work interferes family" conflict, and it was lower than the conflict level reported in the western studies. Kailasapathy, et al. (2014) mentioned that the help Sri Lankan couples normally receive from their extended families (collective societal values in Sri Lanka) and paid housemaids as the reasons for the lower level of role conflict.

While studying deeply and in detail the work-family conflict, Kailasapathy and Jayakody (2017) examined the effect of immediate supervisors' transactional and transformational leadership on their subordinates' "work interference with family conflict" through "Family Supportive Supervisor Behavior" (FSSB). Also, the moderating role of perceived organizational support in the relationship between "work interference with family conflict" and FSSB was studied. The results indicate that both transactional and transformational leaderships were negatively related to "work interference with family conflict". Further, FSSB partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and "work interference with family conflict" while it did so fully in between transactional leadership and "work interference with family" conflict. As stated by Kailasapathy and Jayakody (2017), the most interesting

finding was the change of the negative relationship between transformational leadership and “work interference with family conflict” in to positive with the entrance of FSSB as a mediator. Finally, they have mentioned that perceived organizational support does not act as a moderator on the relationship between FSSB and “work interference with family conflict”. This empirical study highlights the importance of leadership styles of supervisors for minimizing the conflicts among work and non-work roles of employees, especially in Sri Lankan context where the power distance at workplaces is greater than in the western countries. Furthermore, they have suggested incorporating supervisors’ family supportive behaviors into their performance appraisal in order to encourage them further.

Perera and Kailasapathy (2013) studied how the emotional labor (identified as the essential behavior expected from service sector employees) affects the employees’ work-family interference conflict. They concerned themselves with the service sector because of the vital role it plays in the Sri Lankan economy¹. It is important that social, cultural and organizational norms shape these essential behavioral expectations. Their research revealed that performing emotional labor was positively related to the work-family conflict. They also reported emotional exhaustion partially mediated the relationship between emotional labor and work-family conflict. Finally, this study confirmed the emotional labor and emotional exhaustion as influential factors in work-family conflict.

There has been considerable research to investigate the relationship of work-

¹ According to the Department of Census and Statistics (2018), the highest employment share is in the service sector and this is true for both male and female. In addition, the service sector share of GDP was 55.8% in 2017.

life balance with employee job satisfaction and work performance. However, most of the research was conducted just to verify whether there was a significant relationship between work-life balance and employee performance (Dissanayaka and Hussain, 2011; Mendis and Weerakkody, 2014; Thevanes and Mangaleswaran, 2018). Similarly, some research has been conducted to verify the relationship between job satisfaction and work-life balance (Abeykoon and Weerasinghe, 2015; Adikaram and Jayatilake, 2016; Arunika and Kottawatta, 2017).

2.2.3 Working Mothers' Employment-Family Related Issues

Amidst the research relate to work-life balance in Sri Lanka, a large number of empirical studies have been conducted on working mothers with young children and their employment-related problems.

Since there have been very few studies on working mothers' perception of the maternity policy in the island, Kodagoda and Samaratunge (2016) investigated the effectiveness of maternity leave policy² of Sri Lanka in terms of the expected outcomes by using a sample of professional women. Many career women think long maternity leave period is not suitable for professionals because taking long leave may

²1. As per Maternity Benefit Ordinance, Act, No. 15 of 2018 (Government of Sri Lanka, 2018a) any women worker shall be entitled to 84 working days of maternity leave on full pay, 84 days on half pay and 84 days of unpaid leave for every live childbirth (252 working days) which can utilize two weeks' leave prior to her. If the confinement does not result in a live child, the woman will receive 42 days maternity leave. confinement.

2. From the end of the fifth month of the pregnancy, the expecting mother shall be allowed to report for work half an hour later, and to leave the office half an hour before the normal working time (Government of Sri Lanka, 1992).

3. After the expiration of maternity leave, she shall be entitled to the six months "baby feeding hour" which allow her to leave the working place one hour before the normal time (Government of Sri Lanka, 2004).

harm their career, even though the current maternity leave policy gives the female workers a strong legal protection. As mentioned in their research, most of the interviewees perceived the maternity leave policy as family-friendly, and, though legal, yet are practically mother-family and workplace unfriendly. However, all mothers in the sample generally appreciated the “baby feeding hour.” Further, many professional working mothers pointed out several limitations of the current maternity policy. First, even though the policy focuses on expecting mothers and newborn to one-year-old baby care, the women have to neglect the work of caring for children above one-year-old. Therefore, many working mothers in the sample suggested provision of “trustworthy childcare” rather than “unacceptable” leave days. Kodagoda and Samaratunge (2016) identified this as a possible social barrier for the career advancement of working mothers since the state support for childcare is minimal in Sri Lanka. Second, the policy entirely ignores the fathering responsibilities. The researchers emphasized the importance of paternity leave, which facilitates binding relationship between father and child.

When dealing with multiple work and non-work roles, long working hours could limit the skilled working mothers’ career development. Even though there are many studies on the burden of long working hour culture in the West, in Sri Lanka there are only very few such studies. Kodagoda (2018) conducted a study to examine the impact of long working hours on professional and managerial level working mothers’ family life (a sample of health professionals and bank managers). She revealed that there is a negative relationship between long working hours and childcare as well as the child’s cognitive development. Further, it has identified that mothers’ age is a decisive factor in the perception of long working hours and motherhood duties.

According to Kodagoda (2013, 2018), many young mothers (age between 25 and 40 years) were more concern about their job than their young children at home for the reasons of career as well as for family reasons (since their earnings add to the family's income). Moreover, the findings of this research highlighted that mothers who tried to balance the burden of the long working hours and the duties of motherhood have experienced insufficient sleep and other adverse health issues. Additionally, Kodagoda (2018) emphasized the need of having family-friendly policies for long working hours without considering it as a personal problem of employees, irrespective of their gender.

With the combination of motherhood and career life duties, female workers may experience many positive (work-family enrichment) as well as negative outcomes (work-family conflict). In Sri Lanka, such outcomes have rarely been addressed in empirical research and researchers have paid only poor attention to these outcomes. In a society that believes childcare and household duties are a “female responsibility,” career women in Sri Lanka face a higher level of work-related stress than men (Kodagoda, 2010). Kodagoda (2010) examined work-family stress among women managers in the banking sector and its major predictors. This study has discovered that there are many negative impacts on family life just because of high work-related demands rather than family related demands. However, mothering responsibilities still rest heavily on women's shoulders in Sri Lankan society. Thus, this study also highlights the necessity of providing quality childcare facilities close to workplace, paternity leave policy, family-friendly environment, and family-career favorable policies to minimize the stress on women workers.

Fernando and Cohen (2013) examined organizational constraints (such as workloads and working hours, training and development programs, after-hours

obligations, and work-life initiatives) that affect the balanced home-work harmonization of highly skilled Sri Lankan women and what they do to overcome these constraints. They argued that South Asian women like Sri Lankan women, due to extended family responsibilities, must deal with several more roles than the three general roles (wife, mother, and worker) that western working women typically play. Based on the interviews, the study has revealed that early and mid-career women struggled to manage work and family responsibilities and that even the private sector had better work-life balance policies than the public sector. On the other hand, many of private sector career women thought that most of these work-life balance initiatives are useless, except the facility to work from home and flexible hours due to the irregular and long working hours in the private sector. However, in the public sector, career women enjoy work-life balance much more than women in the private sector due to less demanding work-culture.

Further, Fernando and Cohen (2013) showed that women in their late-career experience more favorable workload and working hours than early- and mid-career women since they have subordinates. Other than that, they enjoyed a work-life balance without the mandatory after office work and visibility expectations. Therefore, their study confirmed that late career women have the chance to experience more work-home harmony. Even in private sector early- and mid-career women experienced high workload and long working hours, they always try to bear the burden without breaking organizational norms and risking their career advancements. Their interviews revealed that all skilled female workers occasionally plead social engagements, call sick leaves to excuse themselves from weekend training sessions or leave such sessions early. However, the researchers recommended that the organization's cultures and policies

should be changed or constructed to facilitate career women to harmonize home and work responsibilities.

In addition to the constraints on achieving better work-life balance by career women highlighted in the previous studies, namely, the absence of “quality” childcare facilities, organizational family-friendly practices, supportive work environments; Kodagoda (2013) pointed at the interplay of state policies and gender cultures as the main constraint for balancing work and home duties for females in her study. As she argues, even though Sri Lankan state constitution assures equal opportunities for males and females at every level and social protection for women, the “gender institutionalized context” facilitates gender discriminatory actions since organizational practices in many sectors in Sri Lanka are still based on a traditional male prominent model.

2.3 Summary

This chapter, scanned the past literature on female labor force participation, conflicts between work and family domains, effects of work-family balance/imbalance, and problems related to motherhood and career advancement of professional female workers in Sri Lanka. Even though, these studies conducted within selected streams within the work-life balance realm, they highlight very important issues such as gender discriminative organizational practices, cultural and legislative constraints, familial and societal interactions, and the social norms in Sri Lankan society, all of which are relevant to women attempting to balance work and family demands.

The reviewed literatures reveals that Sri Lanka needs more women in the labor force and the need can be met solely from the island’s asset of educated females with

close to zero gender gap in educational completion and attainment rates. It is important that to introduce some remedies for the above issues to create favorable conditions for the future generations and get the full potential of labor irrespective of gender.

Nevertheless, when reviewing previous studies, it was clear that all most all the studies were centered around women and how they met the work and family demands. Researchers have neglected men's perception on managing work-family domains and difficulties that men face in striking a healthy balance between family and the career. Other than that, most of the studies focused only two or three roles (worker, spouse, parent) as in many western countries and have ignored other essential roles especially daughter/son, family member, neighbor, and member of the society- the roles in which Sri Lankan people engage due to extended family culture in the island.

Moreover, all the research has been concerned only with the issues of managing work-life roles faced by the currently active workforce. The study of the youth and their expectation to involve in multiple roles and their plans for balancing those roles has been neglected. Having a clear understanding about the younger generation's preferences and enthusiasm for engaging in multiples roles in future, and their perception of the barriers and promoters to managing multiples roles, would give the policymakers and employers a great opportunity to create favorable condition for employees at work and involvement in other life roles with minimum roles conflicts. More specifically, as previous studies have highlighted, encouragement and discouragement coming from society and even from the extended family culture should be further studied. Other than that, the attention should be paid to the young generation who will join to the skilled labor segment (especially university undergraduates) since they might face more conflicts in their career when trying to balance other life roles

with their jobs because of the limitation on utilizing even available legal supports (Kodagoda and Samaratunge, 2016). Therefore, this chapter recommends that more studies be addressed to overcome the shortage of local empirical studies on “multiple role balance” in Sri Lanka to raise the awareness of policymakers for formulating practical legal actions applicable in cultural setting of Sri Lanka.

Chapter 3 Opportunities and Constraints for Balancing Work and Family Roles in Institutional and Non-Institutional Contexts

3.1 Introduction

Many developed countries show a growing attention to balancing work and family responsibilities not only for its' importance in individuals' well-being, life satisfaction, mental health and overall life harmony but also its' positive outcomes for the organizations (Russo, et al., 2016), society, and ultimately the country's economy. In contrast, developing economies have been slow to recognize this tendency and still enact policies which support gender-based work and family roles (Bhalla and Kaur, 2011), tolerate gender inequality, and underestimate the negative outcomes of imbalanced work and non-work demands. Sri Lanka is a good example of an eastern society where the change of attitudes regarding traditional labor divisions is still very slow (Kailasapathy and Metz, 2012). Sri Lankan society still considers women "care givers" and men "full-time breadwinners", so they perceive work-life balance as naturally unbalanced phenomena which doesn't need any remedies (Kodagoda, 2013). Therefore, the impact of work and family conflicts are not fully recognized, and have not yet been adequately addressed in research or policy.

Research supports the need to attract more women to the workforce in order to strengthen the human capital of the island and to encourage development of capabilities within each household (Gunatilaka, 2013). Therefore, Sri Lanka's future

economy will heavily depend on Sri Lankan women and dual-earning couples, as well as working mothers. With the entering of more female into the labor force under the above mentioned cultural and social conditions, women have to face an extra wage-earning workload in addition to their usual household chores and childcare responsibilities (Kodagoda, 2010). In parallel, men will need to pay much more attention to family responsibilities than previously. Consequently, working individuals (especially females) may face difficulties in balancing work and non-work demands.

There are several kinds of local research which have addressed issues related to balancing the demands of career and family roles, such as the impact of long working hours on family life (Kodagoda, 2018), work-life conflict of dual-earning couples and career women (Kodagoda, 2010; Kailasapathy and Metz, 2012; Kailasapathy, et al., 2014), effects of supervisor behavior on work-family conflict (Kailasapathy and Jayakody, 2017) and work-family harmony (Fernando and Cohen, 2013; Thevanes and Mangaleswaran, 2018; Welmilla and Gamage, 2018). Further, many researchers (Chandola, et al., 2004; Cinamon, 2006; Kodagoda, 2010; Kailasapathy and Metz, 2012) have pointed out that there are several adverse effects of poor balance of work and non-work demands at the individual level (psychological and physiological health problems) as well as the organizational level (low productivity and high absenteeism).

Additionally, many researchers (Gunatilaka, 2013; Gunewardena, 2015) have shown that there are many constraints including individual, cultural, household and social factors that Sri Lankan females feel obligated to address before they attempt to combine paid employment with their general childcare and household duties. Further, Fernando and Cohen (2011) have mentioned in their study that females in non-western cultures are normally controlled concerning paid employment by social norms,

legislation, and state policies. This argument is supported by Kodagoda and Samaratunge (2016) who claim that females tend to change their decision in taking a particular job based on the available policies and practices in the country and/or the organization.

Even though most of these researches have been focused only on the female and simply neglected the issues with males, these shreds of evidences highlight the need of investigating the island's current institutional and non-institutional context which could affect the balance of ever competitive demands of work and non-work roles on Sri Lankans regardless of gender. Therefore, first, this chapter analyzes Sri Lanka's institutional (state and organizational level) and non-institutional (socio-cultural) context. Second, it discusses the available opportunities and constraints for achieving balance in work and non-work roles. Finally, this chapter provides some implications for policymakers and corresponding authorities to mitigate the identified constraints.

3.2 Institutional Context in Sri Lanka

Under this section, this chapter discusses the available government policies and welfare regimes in Sri Lanka which relate to work-life balance. At the same time, it investigates the opportunities and constraints they create for proper management of work and non-work duties of working people.

3.2.1 State Policies and Welfare Regimes relates to Work-Life Balance

Many high-income countries, especially Scandinavian countries¹ believe that state family friendly welfare policies promote the citizens to combine employment with family responsibilities (Ray, et al., 2010). Specifically, some other researchers (McRae, 2003; Esping-Andersen, 2009) have pointed out that available government policies related to work-family harmonization would make an impact on working mothers' willingness to engage in paid work in addition to or instead of their duties as "caregiver" and "homemaker".

The Constitution of Sri Lanka guarantees the "right to equality" in Article 12 (2) as mentioning "(1) All persons are equal before the law and are entitled to the equal protection of the law. (2) No citizen shall be discriminated against on the grounds of race, religion, language, caste, sex, political opinion, place of birth or any such grounds" (Government of Sri Lanka, 1978). However, Wickramasinghe and Jayatilaka (2006) argue that this guarantee is only for public servants and it does not apply to private sector employment. Further, they mentioned that the Constitution has neglected non-discrimination in other important contexts such as marital status, maternity, parental status, age, etc. Thus, it is obvious that the island's supreme law doesn't fully support balancing work and non-work roles even though it promises the equity of every citizen. Still there are many unseen barriers for working males and females especially when they become parents according to the argument of Wickramasinghe and Jayatilaka (2006).

¹ Scandinavia is a region in Northern Europe, including Norway, Sweden and Denmark.

By supporting the above, Kailasapathy and Metz (2012) also stated in their study that, even though the Sri Lankan Constitution agrees to provide equal rights to women, the government has not signed the International Labor Organization's (ILO) Convention 156 which assures the equal opportunity and equal treatment of employment for male and female employees with a commitment to provide care and support for their children and immediate family members.

Sri Lanka has ratified the United Nations' Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1981 which ensures equal opportunities in political and public life including education, health, and employment. According to the above Convention, *"The Convention is the only human rights treaty which affirms the reproductive rights of women and targets culture and tradition as influential forces shaping gender roles and family relations"*. Sri Lanka has translated the fundamentals of this Convention into the "Sri Lanka Women's Charter" and approved as a state policy in 1993. This would be a positive sign for eliminating barriers for women involved in paid employment as a whole, but Wickramasinghe and Jayatilaka (2006) have mentioned that this Charter has to be integrated as a national policy and legislative framework with many more amendments in the near future and they have highlighted the need of a powerful authorized body with private sector representation to ensure the rights of women workers.

Even though there are bottlenecks for managing proper balance in work and non-work role duties, given evidence of the opportunities that create for enjoying equal rights in health, politics, education, and employment by the island's Constitution and the government ratified Conventions would keep the country in a higher position than the regional neighbors. Other than above, the main Acts that currently address

balancing employees' career life and family life especially during childbearing age are:

- The Maternity Benefits Ordinance (Amendment) No.15 of 2018 (Government of Sri Lanka, 2018a).
- Shop and Office Employees (Regulation of Employment and Remuneration) (Amendment) Act, No.14 of 2018 (Government of Sri Lanka, 2018b).
- The Establishment Code-amended by Public Administration Circular No.3 of 2005 -applies to public sector employees (Government of Sri Lanka,2005).

The Sri Lankan government introduced maternity leave and maternity benefits in 1939 and many amendments have been made thereafter to the Maternity Benefits Ordinance for the purpose of widening the scope and enhancing maternity benefits for female employees. The principal legislation governing maternity leave and benefits of pregnant women are based on their place of employment (Goonetilleke, 2016).

The legislation applicable for public sector employees is the Establishment Code (Government of Sri Lanka, 2005). This Establishment Code is also applicable to University staff members as amended by the University Grants Commission Circular (Government of Sri Lanka, 2013). The maternity benefits for private sector employees are governed by the Maternity Benefits Ordinance and the Shop and Office Employees Act.

Opportunities

According to the above provisions, public sector female employees are entitled to 84 working days fully paid leave (in addition to holidays and other annual leaves that employees are entitled to), 84 days leave on half pay (including Public holidays, Saturdays and Sunday) and other 84 days of no-pay leave (only if such leave

is required and including Public holidays, Saturdays and Sunday) during every live childbirth. In the case of stillbirth, the mother is still entitled to 42 days of full-pay leave (Government of Sri Lanka, 2005). Moreover, it is mentioned that the granted leaves for a female employee should not adversely affect her salary increments, pensions, filling of vacancies and granting of promotions in the Establishment Code (Government of Sri Lanka, 2005). More specifically, fathers who work in the state sector institution are entitled to 3 days off on behalf of the new-born baby (these 3 days should be taken during the first three months of the baby's age) as per the Public Administration Circular amendment (Government of Sri Lanka, 2006). If the female worker reports for duty after the first 84 days of leave she should be allowed one hour for feeding the child until the child is the age of six months. Other than that, during the pregnancy, when the female employee reaches the 5th month she should be allowed to attend office half an hour later than the normal time of attendance, and to leave office half an hour before the normal time of departure until her maternity leave starts.

In addition, the University Grants Commission Circular (Government of Sri Lanka, 2013) ensures female university workers 84 days fully paid leave for each live birth and 42 days fully paid leave for stillbirth. Other than the 84 days leave, female workers are entitled to another 6 months of no-pay (special) leave in the case of the abnormal condition of the child or complications raised out of childbirth. Maternity benefits such as “arriving later and early departure” as well as “feeding hour” are the same as the public sector.

Private sector employees are entitled 84 days (14 days before confinement and 70 days after the child's birth) of fully paid leave for every live birth, irrespective of the number of children they have (Government of Sri Lanka 2018a; 2018b). In the

case of stillbirth, the mother is entitled to 28 days fully paid leave starting from her confinement. After returning to work, private sector mothers are entitled to two, one-hour nursing intervals per day; or two, half an hour intervals if the employer provides any suitable place where the mother would have easy access to the child, until the child is one-year-old (Government of Sri Lanka, 2018a; 2018b). After the amendment in 2018, all private sector female employees are entitled to the above nursing interval benefit. Other than the maternity leaves benefits and nursing interval benefits, the Shop and Office Employees Act and Maternity Benefits Ordinance allow female workers to engage in safe employment for a total 6 months (3-months pre- and 3-months post-confinement, respectively).

As explained above, Sri Lanka's currently available legislation for maternity and childcare provide various benefits especially for female workers in different employment sectors. The key benefit that working mothers require is a proper maternity leave period (before and after confinement), for preparing for the childbirth, giving the birth, caring and raising the new-born child. This requirement is guaranteed by the island's Acts and Circulars as above. Other than that, job assurance until the female worker reports to the job and financial support (pay during leave period) also could be considered an acknowledgment of the dual roles-employment with family-of the women (Goonetilleke, 2016). Also, it highlights the abolition of discrimination against females due to engaging in reproductive behavior as stated by Goonetilleke (2016). Apart from the above benefits, health and safety of mother and child, nursing intervals and paternity leave (at least three days for public sector workers) are the other facilities granted by the maternity legislation for promoting healthy, well-balanced families.

Constraints

Even though there is a strong coverage of maternity protection from the currently available legal framework for working mothers in Sri Lanka compared to the island's regional neighbors, still there are many policy loopholes effecting work-life balance of employees.

As the first prominent shortcoming, it is obvious according to the above-mentioned evidence that there is a lack of uniformity in laws across the female workers in different employment sectors (Wickramasinghe and Jayatilaka, 2006; Goonetilleke, 2016) in terms of the leave period, paternity leave and nursing intervals. Public sector female workers are entitled to greater benefits (long maternity leave period and nursing intervals) among other sector employees. Private sector employees aren't entitled to half-pay or no-pay leave and university staff can enjoy no-pay leave only under special situations. Goonetilleke (2016) has argued in her study that pregnancy, childbirth and need arising pre-childbirth can differ from woman to woman, not only because of employment type.

In contrast to the above-highlighted point, provisioning of long maternity leave might result in some negative effects on women employees' career advancement. Letting women employees (especially professional career women such as doctors or managerial level employees) away from the work-place for a long time period might cause them to face further discriminations in the workplace. Thus, professional women employees couldn't get the full benefits from available maternity benefits provisions (Kodagoda, 2012). In other hands, from the organizational point of view, they might think it is harmful for their organization to keep their female employees away from the work for a long time since most of the private sector employers are profit oriented

(Kodagoda and Samaratunge, 2016). Therefore, women workers of childbearing age might be less attractive to employers since they look at them as liabilities for the company since the company itself has to bear the entire cost of maternity benefits as per the maternity benefit law of Sri Lanka. Hence this might adversely affect women's employment opportunities.

Another shortcoming of the current maternity benefits law in Sri Lanka is that it mainly centers on the maternity leave of the working mothers and new-born babies' care until they complete the first year of age. It has totally neglected the care responsibility of young kids (1-15 years old). There is no any policy support in Sri Lanka for child care facilities or establishing quality childcare centers as in many western countries (Kodagoda, 2014). In the case of combining parents' employment and childcare responsibilities, many parents face the serious problem of a lack of trustworthy child care providers when they are away long hours from home. As stated by Kodagoda (2014) in her study, available state policies in Sri Lanka are framed by a gendered approach and those policies always identify the woman as the "only caregiver" for her children. Therefore, current provisions are unable to facilitate a favorable condition to balance the multiple roles of women (Goonetilleke, 2016).

Moreover, the Maternity Benefits Ordinance shelters all "working women" excluding the women workers whose employment status is "casual". But they are covered by the Shop and Office Employees Act since it is for "every" female employee works in the private sector. Similarly, it is stated that "all female employees" are entitled to the benefits in the University Grants Commission Circular (Government of Sri Lanka, 2013) and Establishment Code (Government of Sri Lanka, 2005). Therefore, all the "casual" female employees in the public sector are secured by the legislation,

but “casual” women workers are governed only by the Maternity Benefits Ordinance such as factory female workers who are not legally eligible to get any maternity benefits (Goonetilleke, 2016). Thus, Goonetilleke (2016) has argued that female workers in garment factories (where the majority of workers are female and work as “casual” workers) have been neglected from the maternity benefits legislation of Sri Lanka even though the Constitution of Sri Lanka grants “equality” for every citizen. Additionally, she pointed out another loophole in the maternity benefit legislation in Sri Lanka as providing no legal coverage for female workers in domestic service in private household and home workers. These constraints would adversely affect their family responsibilities when they are balancing multiple roles in their life.

Other than the above, another main loophole in work-family balance related policies in Sri Lanka is not addressing the importance of paternal leave. Even though three-day leave entitlement has been introduced for fathers who work in state sector institutions this provision does not apply to the private sector employees. Three-day leave also might not enough when considering the care for a new-born baby, but it could be considered as a progressive step for promoting a family-friendly environment at home. However, many studies (Wickramasinghe and Jayatilaka, 2006; Kodagoda, 2013; Gunewardena, 2015; Goonetilleke, 2016; Kodagoda and Samaratunge, 2016) have identified it as neglecting furthering male responsibility in child rearing and the relationship between father and child.

According to given evidence, the only policy support for both working mothers and fathers in Sri Lanka is maternity leave legislation except three days leave for public sector fathers in relation to child rearing and care. The alternative is using annual leave entitlement (for the public sector: 21 personal leaves and 20 sick leaves/

for private sector: 14 days of personal leave and 7 days of sick leave) if any emergency happens thereafter. Additionally, the island's social policy has totally ignored the elder care responsibilities of employees and hasn't provided any benefits so far.

Conclusively, the legislation relating to maternity benefits seems family friendly theoretically, but when it comes to practical application, it has become a hollow and unsupportive parents-families and work life.

Apart from the above, long working hours has become another challenge for maintaining a healthy environment in work-family spheres of working males and females all over the world (Ng and Feldman, 2008; Cha, 2010). In Sri Lanka, the main Act and Circulars that regulate the number of working hours, resting intervals and different type of holidays for the public and private sector employees are:

- Public Administration Circular: 9/2006 -for public sector employees (Government of Sri Lanka, 2006)
- Shop and Office Employees (Regulation of Employment and Remuneration) Act No. 19 of 1954 -employees working in a shop or an office (Government of Sri Lanka, 1954)
- Wages Board Ordinance No. 27 of 1941-employees in trades (Government of Sri Lanka, 1941)
- Factories Ordinance No.45 of 1942 -workers in factories (Government of Sri Lanka, 1942)

Opportunities

According to the Public Administration Circular (Government of Sri Lanka, 2006), the public sector employees' working hours are generally limited to eight hours

(including the 30-minutes lunch break) per day. All employees except for minor-staff employees are supposed to work from 8.30 a.m. to 4.15 p.m. and it is slightly changed for minor workers as 8.00a.m. to 4.45 p.m. Additionally, all public workers are entitled for 13 public holidays², 12 *Poya*³ days (one day per every month), and 21 personal leaves and 20 sick leaves per annum.

In the private sector, it seems like three legislative enactments pertinent to work time, resting intervals and holidays. According to the Shop and Office Employees Act (Government of Sri Lanka, 1954), the period of work for a day is 8 hours, and for a week it is 45 hours. Therefore, any additional hours of work are considered overtime. However, this provision is not applicable to managers and executives in private institutions. Every person employed in a shop or office shall be allowed one whole day and one-half day as paid holidays per week (Government of Sri Lanka, 1954). Further, if the employee has not worked for less than twenty-eight hours, exclusive of any period of overtime work, during that week, full remuneration should be given by the employer. Other than that, all the workers covered under Shop and Office Employees Act, are entitled to 8 public holidays⁴ and 12 *Poya* holidays (one day per each month) except 14 days of personal leave and 7 days of sick leave per year.

As per the Wages Board Ordinance (Government of Sri Lanka, 1941), the normal working week for employees who work in the trade sector cannot exceed 48

² National Day, Thaipongal day, Mahashivarathri day, the day previous to the Sinhala Tamil new year day, the Sinhala Tamil new year day, Good Friday, Mayday (International Labour Day), the day following Vesak Poya day, Ramazan Festival day, Hadji Festival day, Deepavali Festival day, Holy Prophet's Mohammed's Birthday and Christmas Day (Government of Sri Lanka, 1971)

³ *Poya* is the name given to the Lunar monthly Buddhist holiday in Sri Lanka.

⁴ Same as Footnote 2 except Mahashivarathri day, Good Friday, Ramazan Festival day, Hadji Festival day and Deepavali Festival day.

hours (including not less than one-hour interval per day for meal and rest). If someone works over 48 hours per week, that exceeded period is considered overtime. The maximum number of overtime hours per week is 12 hours (if no overtime rate has been determined, then payment must be calculated at 1.25 times the rate normally applicable to regular work). Employers should allow one day per week with or without remuneration as a holiday for all workers.

According to Section 67 of the Factories Ordinance (Government of Sri Lanka, 1942), every woman or young person employed in a factory shall not exceed 9 hours per day and 48 hours per week exclusive of intervals allowed for meals and rest. Further, the ordinance prohibits more than 12 working hours per day for a person, age 14-16 years and these hours cannot fall before 6 a.m. or after 6 p.m. In the case of young persons who have not attained the age of 18 the period of employment shall not end later than 8 p.m., and not on less than one day in the week, 1 p.m. Other than that, a woman or young person shall not be employed continuously for a spell of more than 4.5 hours without an interval of at least 30 minutes for a meal or rest. Particularly, pregnant mothers, nursing mothers until the completion of 1st year for the child and women who delivered a stillborn child (for three months of the period from the delivery date) are prohibited to be engaged in overtime work in factories by the ordinance.

As mentioned in Section 67 A of the Factory Ordinance (Government of Sri Lanka, 1942), all workers should give written agreement prior to the employment to work after 10 p.m. at night. There is a special protection over women in the factory ordinance for their night shifts. No woman shall be forced to work throughout the night against her will. The maximum number of days that women employees can work night shifts each month is 10 days. Furthermore, after working 6 a.m. to 6 p.m. no women

worker can be employed after 10 p.m. on any day. In order to assure female workers security and health during night duties, employers should provide a female warden (for checking the welfare of female workers) restrooms and refreshments. In addition, a young person shall not be employed in a factory on a Sunday and every woman or young person employed in a factory shall be allowed six whole days as holidays on six consecutive weekdays per year according to Section 73 of the Factory Ordinance (Government of Sri Lanka, 1942).

According to the above explanation, it is apparent that Sri Lankan employees in all sectors are protected by the state legislation from long working hours at workplaces. As in most parts of the world, the standard working duration of 8 hours per day and 48 hours per week, should be observed in Sri Lanka too (Kodagoda, 2018). Additionally, special attention has been paid for women with regards to their security and welfare during night shifts by the state legislation. Even though the government of Sri Lanka has not fully recognized the consequences of less family-friendly policies in Sri Lanka and there is no discussion on dangers to the families and employees due to the burden of balancing high demands of work and family life, at least citizens benefit from this kind of legal protection compared to other South Asian countries.

Constraints

In Sri Lanka, the formal working arrangement is limited to permanent, temporary or contract basis categories, and there is no part-time work, flexible working hours or home-based working arrangements (Kodagoda, 2018) as in most developed countries. Because of this limitation, many working people struggle when they seek to perform work, family and other social roles. Especially, for women workers who have

to quit their job when they are unable to find faithful and quality formal or informal childcare service ⁵. This would not be an easy decision for educated career women who have already invested a lot of money, time, and effort into their education and training. Thus, they have to face plenty of practical difficulties when they deal with family care responsibilities alongside high demands of professional managerial jobs. Accordingly, professional women employees are less benefited by the current legal framework (Kodagoda, 2014, 2018; Kodagoda and Samaratunge, 2016) compared to female factory workers since factory workers are especially cared by the Factory Ordinance (Government of Sri Lanka, 1942) against work under long and irregular working hours.

Recently, the Sri Lankan government has taken a positive step during the budget proposal for 2018 in parliament, towards family-friendly policies by changing laws that will enable private sector workers to choose flexible working hours and by considering giving increased benefits to public sector employees as well. According to the proposal, the Shop and Office Employees Act (Government of Sri Lanka, 1954) will be amended allowing the employees flexibility in choosing their working hours and the Wages Boards Ordinance (Government of Sri Lanka, 1941) will also be reviewed in the future. But most of these promises and proposals still remain aspirations which may remain empty election promises, rather than being effectively implemented (Wickramasinghe and Jayatilaka, 2006).

It is obvious that there is still inequality in Sri Lankan government legislation as it relates to employees working hours, resting hours, and holidays among all the employment sectors in the island. The public sector employees enjoy more benefits

⁵ Formal Childcare- Public or Private childcare facilities
Informal Childcare- Child caring by husband, parents/in laws or domestic workers

than other sector employees due to less workload, less working hours and more holiday entitlement. The private sector managerial and professional level employees have to struggle with irregular and long working hours without overtime wage entitlement. Yet, there is not any monitoring facility to ensure that women workers in factories are provided the necessary facilities for night duties (Government of Sri Lanka, 1942). So, there is a great chance of involving illegal long working hours in factories which are always run with the purpose of earning more profits. Even though the plantation sector employees are covered by the Wages Board Ordinance (Government of Sri Lanka, 1941), the women “tea pluckers” have to work longer hours than their male counterparts who are engaged in other plantation works (Wickramasinghe and Jayatilaka, 2006). Other than that, domestic workers/ workers at home-based industries are not covered by any of the legislation which has been discussed above.

Conclusively, the above review of Sri Lanka’s state legislation framework for work-life balance highlights that policymakers haven’t fully considered the importance of properly balanced work-family life from the employees’ perspective or the organizations’ perspective. Further, policymakers are not ready to listen or be concerned with these issues yet. Since work-family balance is not considered a labor issue at present, the realization of the real needs of the labor force hasn’t been identified as a vital phenomenon in Sri Lanka as it has been in other developed countries.

3.2.2 Organizational Legal and Welfare Facilities Related to Work-Life Balance

Not only do a country’s social policies impact on balancing work and family commitments, but also the workplace’s family-friendly policies and welfare facilities

affect employees' negotiation of their competitive work and family role demands (Kailasapathy and Metz, 2012). Although Sri Lanka's legislative framework acknowledges the need for maternity leave, a maximum level of working hours, holidays, and resting interval; it is obvious that the legal framework becomes an "empty shell" in the practice (Kodagoda, 2012). Therefore, it is less likely that organizations operating in Sri Lanka have family friendly policies and still, "work-life balance" is considered an individual personal issue.

Further, the government has not signed ILO's Convention 156 which assures equal opportunity and equal treatment in employment for male and female employees with care and support responsibilities for their children and immediate family members. As stated by Kailasapathy and Metz (2012), this loophole allows Sri Lankan organizations to avoid officially initiating work-family friendly practices for their employees.

Opportunities

With globalization, many domestic organizations are trying to operate their business aiming at a global market. Thus, these organizations are influenced by global strategies of work and employment management practices (Budhwar and Khatri, 2001). Since this situation is the same in Sri Lanka, some organizations especially those which collaborate with global companies, have introduced some of the family-friendly initiatives and welfare facilities common to other nations.

Some organizations have introduced a "supportive supervisor" concept to reduce the work-family conflict by increasing emotional support and the freedom to negotiate work demands by employees. It is very important especially in eastern

societies as such as Sri Lanka where very sound state and organizational level family-friendly policies are absent. Thus, the immediate supervisors' support is essential for combining ever challenging career-family and social demands (Kailasapathy, et al., 2014).

As a step towards establishing more supportive work environments to help employees engage in multiple roles, some firms in the IT sector have introduced "flextime" for managerial and professional employees (Wickramasinghe and Jayabandu, 2007). "Flextime" allows employees to develop their own work pattern which facilitates them to harmonize their work and family demands. Wickramasinghe and Jayabandu (2007) mentioned that organizations have gained employee commitment, loyalty and increased employee potential after introducing "flextime" practices.

Other than that, the option to work compressed hours, reduced hours, home-working, job share schemes, specialized leave policies, dependent care benefits and options for health and lifestyle at work (e.g. corporate gyms, leisure events, and sessions on stress management) have been initiated in some organizations, as mentioned by Fernando (2018) in her magazine article.

The benefits given under each work-family balance practices and the way of regulation are specific to each organization. More specifically the success of these initiatives is also doubtful.

Constraints

As in many legislation and welfare facilities in Sri Lanka, even the employers want to introduce an attractive work-life balance agenda theoretically, but there are

many loopholes in this initiative when it comes to real life scenario.

As in many eastern cultures, the power distance of organizational hierarchy in Sri Lanka is relatively high compared to western countries such as the USA, UK, and Australia (Kailasapathy, et al., 2014). In such a context, it is not practical to find high-quality supervisor support for subordinates in order to achieve a proper balance in work and family demands. On the other hand, the work environment in Sri Lanka is male-dominated and highly gendered (Kodagoda, 2013). Such a work environment hardly helps to negotiate employees' work and family demands. Especially for women subordinates, their male supervisors rarely support balancing career responsibilities with caring responsibilities since they believe "caring" is solely a woman's (primary) responsibility.

Sri Lankan work organizations' practices are still based on the traditional "male model ideal worker" norm (Kodagoda, 2013; Fernando, 2018). Many work and family-friendly practices become useless in this context. Because many workers might think they would be seen as "unprofessional or irresponsible worker" and it would be harmful to their career advancement/prospects if they take up flexible working arrangements rather than having long working hours while keeping as much visibility in the office as possible. On the other hand, the workers who would like to utilize the benefits granted by work-family friendly policies in the workplace might think that they would experience lower career growth than others who were dedicated enough to work fulltime. As stated by Fernando (2018) in her article, some non-standard work arrangements are considered "special flavors" rather than "employee entitlements" in many Sri Lankan organizations and therefore, traditional minded employees resist to use such benefits for balancing their work-family and social commitments. Especially,

male workers may be unwilling to use flextime entitlement since they think other workers may negatively react to their use of flextime working arrangements (Wickramasinghe and Jayabandu, 2007).

Not reducing employees' workload and not changing the usual way of performing tasks are the most common shortcomings that mitigate the proposed benefits of introducing "flextime" and "work compressed hours" policy initiatives. Likewise, employees have to face practical difficulties to complete the workload within a short time period while they use such practices, especially under unsupportive supervisors.

Some companies organize "weekend training sessions" as well as "social gatherings" as a leisure option and work harmonization opportunity, but with the hidden purpose of making more chances to keep their employees in the work setting. As stated by Fernando and Cohen (2013) and Kodagoda (2013), these kinds of events make more conflicts among career and family commitments since they have to dedicate time they have saved for the family. Therefore, they believe these kinds of initiatives are useless and tend to avoid these occasions by just calling in sick or leaving such events early.

As many state policies which relate to work-family balance, many organizational level work-family practices, and welfare facilities are mainly focused on women workers. This is because of the belief regarding women as "care givers" and "homemakers" (Kodagoda, 2013) due to the heavy gendered working background. This could be considered gender discrimination for male workers since it has neglected their importance in family responsibilities and child-father relationship. On the other hand, it automatically constrains the women workers career advancement by inspiring the traditional gendered ideologies of management (Fernando and Cohen, 2013).

Even organizations recognize women workers as “caregivers”, they consider childcare as a private problem but not as a labor problem. That’s why they aren’t sensitive to working mothers’ struggle in combining employment and care responsibilities. Thus, employers in Sri Lanka still lag behind other countries in terms of launching workplace facilities such as on-site childcare and nurseries for young kids, or in providing a better work environment and reduce the stress related to family commitments (Kodagoda, 2010). Furthermore, organizations have totally ignored the culturally sanctioned eldercare responsibilities of Sri Lankan employees and introduced some leave and welfare facilities for their employees.

It is obvious that Sri Lankan organizations haven’t fully understood employees’ genuine needs and their ground-level barriers when combining commitments in career-family and social life. The only thing they have done is, introduce a theoretically attractive work-family agenda to have a shine for their organizations and to improve their recognition without concerning the applicability to the social and cultural setting of Sri Lanka.

The other point that has been highlighted by the above review is that, there are some psychological and operational factors that might hinder policy implementation and proposed benefits in organizations such as employees’ backward/negative feelings on utilizing work-family balance initiatives, heavy workload and traditional working arrangements. Therefore, the organization should pay attention to developing strategies to mitigate such bottlenecks which limits the work-life arrangements.

3.3 Non-Institutional Context in Sri Lanka

Although the government and some organizations have recognized the need of legal assistance on working women and men up to a certain level compared to regional neighbors, it is understood that those provisions are not enough and focused only the organized sectors of the society. In such background, the island's non-institutional socio-economic context plays an important role in balancing individuals' ever competitive demands in career-family balance and in society.

Sri Lanka has a rich cultural diversity with a multi-ethnic and a multireligious society. The culture and the society of Sri Lanka are enriched mainly by the Theravada Buddhism and its exposure to British and European culture since it has been ruled by three western nations: the Portuguese, Dutch and British over a period of 450 years. More specifically, Sri Lankans' beliefs, norms, and cultural values are influenced by traditional Indian culture due to its closeness to the island. Therefore, the island's family and social interactions show many Eastern characteristics. In contrast, its governing strategies and legislation are heavily influenced by British and European colonial governance while their working culture displays a mixture of Eastern and Western philosophies.

Opportunities

In comparison with other developing countries, especially regional neighboring countries, Sri Lankan women have the great privilege to attain education and labor market participation (Kailasapathy and Metz, 2012; Kodagoda, 2013; Herath, 2015). Likewise, paid work provides both income and social status the family. Thus,

the huge expansion could be seen in the number of women entering into the labor force and dual-earning couples in society. As a result of it, the nuclear family pattern becomes a norm in society today with the difficulties around caring responsibilities and less government and organizational level family-friendly policy support. Still, some scholars (Kailasapathy and Metz, 2012; Kodagoda and Samaratunge, 2016) have pointed out that a special social characteristic “family-based arrangement” in Sri Lanka which is not found in most Western countries. Many dual-earner couples in Sri Lanka heavily depend on their extended family members such as parents, parents’ in-laws, unmarried sisters/brothers or relatives for child care responsibilities and household duties. As stated by Kodagoda (2010), the extended family structures allowed mothers to combine paid work easily with domestic work.

Despite the fact, Sri Lankan society displays many collective behaviors in familial and other social relations which is one of the prominent characteristics of many Eastern cultures, at present it can be seen everywhere especially, in urban settings. Hence, Kailasapathy and Metz (2012) argue that many dual-earning couples have to accept and combine Eastern values with Western values in order to face the challenge of mitigating work-family conflict. Because of the higher education and urban living style, traditional gender ideologies have become less rigid than societal expectation, but still they might depend on their extended family for household chores and child-rearing.

Other than the help of extended family members, many working couples get the help of paid domestic workers. Though, the service of domestic workers was comparatively cheap and available in Sri Lanka two or three decades ago, now it has become expensive and less available. Due to the huge change in the social and

economic environment over the last three decades, even economically poor or, unskilled women have plenty of opportunities to find socially recognized employment without engaging in domestic work. Some high earning couples are able to get the help of workers, but the reliability and trustworthiness are a matter of debate.

There is a belief in Sri Lankan society that women are the “caregivers” and “housemakers” and should be recognized as a negative influence on female involvement in paid employment and their career advancement. On the other hand, it can be considered a positive thought in terms of the wellbeing of the family and children. Sri Lankan women also believe themselves to be the only caregiver within the family and accept they will spend more time on household chores and childcare than their husbands, even if both are engaging in paid employment. This belief positively affects children’s psychological wellbeing and harmony within the family.

Constraints

As identified by many scholars (Fernando and Cohen, 2011; Kailasapathy and Metz, 2012; Gunatilaka, 2013; Kodagoda, 2013; Gunewardena, 2015; Herath, 2015) the main barrier to equal participation of female and male in household chores and caring obligations directly helped to maintain a healthy work-family balance in traditional social attitudes, gender ideologies, and norms of Sri Lankan society. Kailasapathy, et al. (2014) also mentioned that Sri Lankan families are still valued and obeyed to gender role norms.

With the social, economic and political change, it is totally acceptable for married women with children to go out for paid employment, and still be expected to bear the full or primary responsibility for child care and housework even if they

undertake paid work outside their homes. As mentioned by Kailasapathy and Metz (2012), Sri Lankan husbands still do not fully tolerate having working wives and sharing family responsibilities with them. A working woman can get her husband's support for sharing household duties and childcare responsibilities only if he holds a non-traditional gender ideology.

Another bottleneck for achieving the proper balance between employment and family responsibilities is the backward attitudes of both male and female employees in Sri Lanka. As mentioned in the earlier section, Sri Lankan women also accept the gendered societal expectation of the male as a “full-time standard worker” and female as a “caregiver”. Thus, they don't try to break the stereotype since they have been normalized by the existing cultural context from their birth (Wickramasinghe and Jayatilaka, 2006).

Moreover, Sri Lanka is a country with high power discrepancy in employment, compared with neighboring countries and in contrast with more developed Western countries (Fernando and Cohen, 2011; Kailasapathy and Jayakody, 2017). Not only in power structure in the supervisory relationship, but also in the family, there is a power distance between husband and wife even if both are earning, or if the wife earns more than the husband. Therefore, Sri Lankan husbands are not much familiar to “being requested to help with household duties and childcare responsibilities” by wives in Sri Lankan society. According to many researchers, this also acts as a barrier in Sri Lankan society for achieving a proper balance among multiple life roles by negotiating the commitments of the couple.

As Kodagoda (2010, 2014) has found out in her researches with professional career women in Sri Lanka, many working women are suffering from the limited

availability of publicly funded “quality” childcare or on-site childcare services provided by the workplace. Not only childcare but also centers for elderly care are virtually absent in Sri Lanka.

“Culturally sanctioned eldercare responsibilities” is another factor that keeps capable Sri Lankan women away from the workforce and makes them unable to combine family duties with paid employment (Østbye, et al., 2010; Kaluthantiri, 2015). The image of “elder care centers” is not much appreciated in Sri Lankan society since they believe caring for their parents and other elderly people is all about keeping them at home and feeding them, even if they don’t have much time to spend with these people. This belief might be acted upon three or four decades ago, but not with the modern dual-earner, nuclear family setting. They rarely think about the elderly in their care in terms of mental and physical fitness (physiotherapy). In developed societies, there are centers for elderly people (same as child care centers they come in the morning and leave in the afternoon) which offer all the necessary mental and physical treatment during the daytime until their children come to take them home. The negative attitudes characterizing such facilities in the Sri Lankan traditional society constrain the overall harmony of the life by facilitating much more conflict among role responsibilities. Thus, these kinds of psychological barriers should be treated through innovative, practical and context-specific approaches for the betterment of entire society by achieving a proper balance in work and family spheres (Gunewardena, 2015). Likewise, the balance in work-family and social commitments of Sri Lankan people are constrained by prevailing traditional stereotypes and prejudices in the society according to the above review. As stated by many researchers (Kodagoda and Samaratunge, 2016) available state policies, organizational family-friendly practices, and welfare facilities have an

impact on working males' and females' attitudes and behavior regarding combining employment with household and caring duties. In contrast, the projected benefits of these state and organizational work-life agendas could hinder the existing socio-cultural context of the Sri Lankan society.

3.4 Summary

This chapter had an insight into Sri Lanka's institutional (state and organizational level) and non-institutional (socio-cultural) context and discussed available opportunities and constraints for achieving balance in work and non-work roles.

According to the above review, there are few government policies and welfare regimes in Sri Lanka which relate to work-life balance, maternity benefits and childcare, working hours of employees, resting intervals and holiday entitlement. Even though these legal provisions are not enough, Sri Lanka stands above many of its' regional neighbors in the face of state legislation related to work-family balance.

Sri Lanka's currently available legislation for maternity and childcare provide various benefits especially for female workers in different employment sectors such as proper maternity leave (before and after confinement), job assurance until the female worker reports to the job and financial support (pay during leave period), health and safety of mother and child, nursing intervals and paternity leave (at least three days for public sector workers). Still, there are many loopholes in the current legislation which mitigate the working people's work-life balance, such as lack of uniformity in laws across the female workers in different employment sectors, provisioning of long

maternity leave, totally neglected care responsibility of young children (1-15 years old), no policy support for child care facilities/eldercare facilities, and most importantly not addressing the importance of paternal leave (except three days leave for government workers). Therefore, maternity benefits legislation seems family-friendly theoretically, but in practice, it has become ineffective and its' projected benefits are a matter of debate.

It is obvious that Sri Lankan employees in all sectors are protected by the state legislation framework to prevent long working hours at workplaces, but there is no part-time work, flexible working hours or home-based working arrangements, and still Sri Lankan working arrangements are limited to fixing working hours. Further, inequality in employees working hours, resting hours, and holidays among all the employment sectors is another shortcoming of the state legislation.

In Sri Lanka, the organization level work-family balance initiatives are not very common, as is the case in many developed countries due to the absence of governmental attention. Some organizations which operate aiming to address a global market, use some strategies related to supportive supervisory systems, “flextime”, work compressed hours, reduced hours, home-working, job share schemes, specialized leave policies, and dependent care benefits, as well as options for health and lifestyle at work (e.g., corporate gyms, leisure events, and sessions on stress management). Unfortunately, different psychological and operational barriers hinder the projected benefits.

Under the context of less practical state and organizational level legislative framework, the island's non-institutional context plays an important role in balancing individuals' ever competitive demands in career-family and society. Even though, there

are many barriers in Sri Lankan society which keep individuals away from properly balanced work and non-work roles such as traditional gender role ideologies, social norms, backward attitudes, and culturally sanctioned eldercare responsibilities; fortunately, there are some positive behavioral characteristics which support work-life balance which could be identified. Special “family-based arrangements”- support received from extended family members for household chores and caring duties and a combination of Eastern and Western values in urban dual-earner couples can help individuals recognize opportunities for combining paid employment with family and social responsibilities.

It is understood that state policies, laws, and organizational work-family initiatives/practices sometimes act against their main objective of mitigating the difficulties of employees in combining career and family commitments. They may even lead to advance employees, especially women’s and children’s wellbeing. On the other hand, these projected benefits are hindered by the island’s social and cultural setting.

This chapter provides some implications for policymakers as well as corresponding authorities to mitigate the above-identified constraints. First, each legislation should be equal to everyone in every employment sector as mentioned in the Constitution of Sri Lanka.

Since, there is no policy support for fathers or mothers in connection with childbirth, childcare or child sickness except maternity leave, paternity leave might thus be a good policy direction for promoting gender equality in the workplace and a family- friendly environment at home. If the government can introduce leave arrangements which allows parents to share parental leave between them, it would be a good opportunity to prevent the harmful effect on the mother’s career due to the

length of her maternity leave and could promote gender equality at work as well as at home by encouraging the father-child relationship. Nevertheless, the most important resource in an organization is the human resource. It is important to provide favorable conditions for employees to gain high loyalty, commitment and, productivity. Thus, organizational family-friendly practices and policies should have a better fit between organizational goals as well as individual values and their true needs. Local organizations can follow the guidelines and manuals formulated by the Employers' Federation of Ceylon (EFC) and ILO for improving the gender justice and the well-being of both men and women at work (Wickramasinghe and Jayatilaka, 2006).

As mentioned by Gunewardena (2015) attitude changes could be made through creative and inspiring projects such as television programs. Sri Lanka is a good example to prove that popular entrainment could have considerable effect on socio-cultural norms.

Chapter 4 Employee Readiness for Organizational Change

4.1 Introduction

The chapter 4 presents the preliminary research about the relationships between organizational commitment, trust in peers & management and employee change readiness which directed to investigate about “work-life balance” in relevant to Sri Lanka. According many scholars (Sturges and Guest,2004; Amjad, et al.,2014; Azeem and Akhtar, 2014; Sethi,2014), organizational commitment and trust on management directly depend on work-life balance of employees. Even though this study is a case study done at a private sector organization, it revealed a clue that Sri Lankan employees experience conflicts when balancing their career and family responsibilities and it affect on the relationship between workers and the management badly. It also has proved the findings of previous chapter that many Sri Lankan organizations except few IT companies, haven’t paid enough attention on improving work-life balance among their employees. Hereafter, this chapter explains the findings of the above-mentioned case study.

Globalization and rapid advancement in technology has turned the entire world in to a highly competitive and ever-changing market place. Therefore, business organizations must embrace change to survive and prosper in a highly competitive and volatile business environment. On the other hand, eliciting, implementing and managing changes within business organizations are challenging and time consuming. To adapt to changes demanded by the business environment, a firm may have to implement a planned

change process in which the employees' role would be highly decisive. For example, Ghany (2014) reports that managing organizational change is in very large part, about managing the people. However, employees may not welcome such changes instantly or without being pushed through a strenuous change program.

A change process can deliver successful results only at the places where employees could change their mind set to welcome the change (Ragadu, 2008) and where employees could accept the change in a positive manner (Lazenby and Radebe, 2011). Therefore, employee readiness for organizational change at any given time or context is unarguably a positive trait that can reward organizations to prosper in a competitive environment. Such employees, who are in constant readiness to face changes, can be a highly-valued asset to any organization.

Before designing and implementing a change within an organization, the change agents should induce change readiness in the change recipients or the employees. This process requires the change agents to have a prior and comprehensive understanding of the factors that predict change readiness. The importance of this stage and its pervasiveness in change management has turned "change readiness" into a widely discussed topic in the realm of organizational management.

Many scholars, during the past two decades, have had a great interest to investigate for factors associated with employee readiness for organizational change (Armenakis, et al., 1993; Cunningham, et al., 2002; Madsen, et al., 2005; Miller, et al., 2006). However, very little research has been conducted to observe how the factors influential on employee readiness in the developed world apply to developing countries. In an overall, there is a vacuum of academic research in change readiness arena especially regards to business settings in the developing part of Asia (Naotunna and Arachchige,

2016; Andrew, 2017).

This chapter investigated the effect of two possible predictors of employee readiness in a developing Asian context. Concretely, it examined the impact of organizational commitment and trust in peers & management on employee readiness in a business firm in Sri Lanka. In addition, the effect of employees' demographic factors on their organizational commitment, trust in peers & management and change readiness was also studied.

For the above purposes, a case study was conducted in an export-oriented manufacturing firm in Sri Lanka. This firm was selected for the study as it had been frequently introducing changes to maintain and enhance the firm's productivity. The firm, at the time of this study, was planning to upgrade their manufacturing process and make vital changes in the firm's human resource policy. The study laid its focus on the ground level employees and the shop floor supervisors who represent the largest human resource layer of the firm. To maintain the anonymity of the organization and the respondents, the name of the organization is hereafter denoted by "X".

4.2 The Studied Model

As per the findings of Higgs and Rowlands (2005), 70% of the change initiatives fail due to different reasons. Some of them are employee related factors and some others are change process related factors (Oreg, 2006). When an organization moves from known to an unknown situation, its employees undergo fear and uncertainty. Shah (2009), who supports this argument, states that an unknown situation could conceive doubt, nervousness and uncertainty in employees. Employees, under such situation, treat change

initiatives differently based on their different individual experiences, social characteristics, demographic factors, attitudes, motivational level, perception, behavioral factors and educational level (Ilgen and Pulakos, 1999). With this regard, open minded employees tend to see at change initiatives positively and consider it as an opportunity to improve. On the contrary, some others may look at it as a threat (Van Dam, et al., 2008; Shah, 2009). Employee readiness for change, the dependent variable of this research, explains the degree of openness of the employees for organizational change that transforms the change process into success.

4.2.1 Employee Readiness

Holt, et al. (2007) identify readiness to change as the first of the three stages of any successful change process. As defined by Rafferty, et al. (2012), readiness for change is the extent to which an individual is cognitively inclined to accept, embrace, and adopt a particular plan to purposefully alter the status quo. Bernerth (2004) defines readiness as the condition of mind during the change process that reveals the acceptance or willingness to participate in the change process. Change recipients' believes, attitudes, thoughts and behavior regarding the necessity of the change needed and the organizational capacity to achieve it are reflected on their readiness for change (Armenakis, et al., 1993; Eby, et al., 2000; Bernerth, 2004).

A thorough knowledge in employee change readiness directs the change agents to understand the best way to approach the change and the best mode to implement the change (Soumyaja, et al., 2015). Susanto (2008) highlights the importance of having better judgment on individual change readiness perception prior to any change

implementation. A good assessment of employee change readiness would help change agents, business consultants and management to understand the gap between their own expectation about the change and the change recipients' anticipation of the change (Ghany, 2014).

In the change management literature, a number of empirically tested influential factors on employee change readiness can be found. Some of those factors can be listed as, organizational commitment (Eby, et al., 2000; Weber and Weber, 2001; Vakola, et al., 2003; Madsen, et al., 2005; Barber, 2010; Vanhala, et al., 2016), trust in peers and management (Weber and Weber, 2001; Rafferty and Simons, 2006; Oreg, et al., 2011; Shah, 2014), change commitment (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002; Soumyaja, et al., 2015), job satisfaction (Goulet and Singh, 2002; Robbins, 2003; Shah, 2009; Khammarnia, et al., 2014; Lizar and Mangundjaya, 2015), employee empowerment and social relationship within the organization (Hanpachern, et al., 1998; Cunningham, et al, 2002; Madsen, et al., 2005), support from peers and management (Karasek, et al., 1982), teamwork (Rodriguez, et al., 2015) and relationship with superiors and peers (Eby, et al., 2000; Miller, et al., 2006; Barber, 2010; Shah and Shah, 2010). This chapter focuses on two factors (organizational commitment and trust in peers & management) that have been intensively studied in many developed countries, but hardly in developing countries of their impact on employee readiness.

4.2.2 Organizational Commitment

Vanhala, et al. (2016) explain organizational commitment as employees' attitudinal commitment towards their organization whereas Madsen, et al. (2005) define

organizational commitment as the individuals' attitudes and perception towards the organization. As per Vakola, et al. (2003), organizational commitment can be described as employees' desire to make more effort on their organization and their willingness for preserving their bond with the organization. According to Mathews and Shepherd (2002), there are four characteristics of employees who are committed to their organizations; (1) hold strong feelings about the organization's goals and values, (2) have great acceptance on it, (3) willingness to give great effort on behalf of the organization, and (4) willingness to maintain the membership with the organization.

As per Vakola, et al. (2003) and Barber (2010), there is a strong positive relationship between organizational commitment and change readiness. Madsen, et al. (2005) also report that employees perceive higher level of change readiness when they are highly committed to their respective organizations. According to Weber and Weber (2001), higher employee involvement in planning and implementing changes could help to decrease the employee resistance for change. Eby, et al. (2000) support the above stance adding that employee participation in change process (a kind of organizational commitment) can increase the employees' openness to change. This active employee involvement or participation in change process is a reflection of employees' organizational commitment. Madsen, et al. (2005) list employee involvement as a constituent of organizational commitment.

4.2.3 Trust in Peers & Management

The faith on subordinates and superiors is also an important attitudinal factor that can have an influence on change readiness. Rafferty and Simons (2006) identify trust in

peers & management as a vital predictor of employee change readiness.

Cunningham, et al. (2002) mention that trust in management is an important precursor in reducing employee resistance for change. Shah (2014) with empirical evidence, states that trust in supervisors & management can act as a catalyst for employees' positive attitudes towards organizational change. Weber and Weber (2001) and Oreg, et al. (2011) also found a positive relationship between trust in management and readiness for organizational change. On the other hand, Eby, et al. (2000) report that when employees trust their peers, it can help to reduce their anxieties and make the changed environment comfortable to the employees.

4.2.4 Demographic Factors

Shah and Shah (2010) believe demography as a critical factor in organizational behavior. They could reveal the existence of a significant relationship between readiness for organizational change and demographic variables such as number of dependents and present employment status. Further, the same authors state that the demographic factors can have both positive and negative effects on employee readiness. On the contrary, Madsen, et al. (2005) discover that there are no significant relationships between demographic variables (i.e., age, gender, marital status, job position, number of children and education background) and employee readiness for change. As a similar finding, Cunningham, et al. (2002) also observe that there are no relationships between marital status, gender and openness for change. Further, Hanpachem (1997) finds that age, gender, marital status and education background do not correlate with employee openness for change. In contrast, as per Hanpachem's findings, there are significant relationships

between job position, length of employment and employee openness for change.

4.2.5 Hypotheses of the Study

To empirically test the relationships between organizational commitment, employee's trust in peers & supervisors and employee readiness, in relation to the study sample, the following hypotheses were developed.

Hypothesis 1: *There is a significant positive relationship between employees' organizational commitment and employee readiness for organizational change.*

Hypothesis 2: *There is a significant positive relationship between employees' trust in peers & supervisors and employee readiness for institutional change.*

Further, as mentioned earlier, this research attempted to investigate the relationships among various demographic factors (gender, age, marital status, education, professional level, and working experience) and the three study variables; organizational commitment, trust in peers & supervisors and readiness for change.

4.3 Methodology

4.3.1 Sample and Data Collection

As mentioned earlier, the study was carried out in an export-oriented manufacturing firm in Sri Lanka. Out of the ten organizational units of the firm, two major production related units were purposively selected, and the target population was identified as the factory staff that consists of executives, supervisors and operational level

employees who work in the two selected production units. The permission for the data collection was granted by the human resource manager of the factory after submitting a permission requested letter with a sample of questionnaire.

A cross sectional survey using a self-administered questionnaire was conducted to collect the data. The original questionnaire was prepared in English and later translated in to Sinhalese; the native language in Sri Lanka. Participants completed the anonymous questionnaires individually during their lunch and tea breaks voluntary. Before the questionnaire distribution, the purpose of the study and the intended meaning of the change readiness were explained as they can understand. Approximately, it took 10-15 minutes to complete a one questionnaire. In addition, key informant interviews and group discussions were conducted to collect the primary data during their working breaks.

In compliance with the Research Bulletin of National Education Association (NEA) of the United States (Krejcie and Morgan,1960), a sample of 230 fulltime employees from the target population of 593 employees worked at the “X” were selected for the survey. The respondents were selected through stratified random sampling. The sample includes 10 executives, 56 supervisors and 164 operational level employees. Even though questionnaires were distributed among 230 employees, only 185 questionnaires were received back and hence the overall respondent rate was 80.4%.

Most of the respondents were females (58.9%) whereas 69.6% of the sample respondents were in the age group of 21-40 years. However, within the operational level employee category, a considerable number of employees (24.5%) were less than 21 years old. This indicates a shop floor employee base with fairly a sizeable proportion of amateur employees.

The executive level represented the highest academically qualified employment

category of which the half of the population was graduates. Majority (60%) of the supervisory level employees had received their education up to G.C.E. Advanced Level (Final examination of the high school). Majority (51.7%) of the operational level employees had studied up to G.C.E. Ordinary Level (Final examination of the middle school). Yet, 2.8% and 2.1% of the operational level employees had obtained a first degree and professional qualifications respectively. This indicates the under employment of university graduates and other professional qualification holders which has been a hot topic in the country over the past few decades. Employees who had less than 5 years of work experience in this factory were made up of 88.6% of the respondents. Most the respondents (86.8%), including all the executive staff, had experience on organizational change within their current organization. Table 4.1 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the sample.

Table 4.1: Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Variable	Category	Percentage %
Gender	Female	58.9
	Male	41.1
Age	< 21	19
	21-40	69.6
	41-60	11.4
Marital status	Married	35.1
	Unmarried	62.7
	Divorced/ widow	2.2
Educational level	Up to G.C.E. O/L	41.8
	Up to G.C.E. A/L	45.1
	Diploma	6.5
	Graduate	4.3
	Professional Qualification	2.2
Professional level	Management/ Executive	3.2
	Supervisory	18.0
	Operational	77.8
Change Experience at the current organization	Yes	86.9
	No	13.1

Note: Number of Observations = 172

4.3.2 Instrument and Measurement Scales

In this chapter, the dependent variable was employee readiness for organizational change whereas organizational commitment and trust in peers & management served as independent variables. A two-page questionnaire was used to collect data. The subjective constructs of organizational commitment and trust in peers & management and employee readiness were all measured at a five-point Likert scale (1: strongly disagree to 5: strongly agree).

Employee readiness: To measure employee readiness, this chapter developed a nine-item scale based on the previous studies (Madsen, et al., 2005; Shah and Shah, 2010; Shah, 2014).

Organizational commitment: Five items were constructed to measure organizational commitment based on the scales developed by Cook and Wall (1980) and thereafter used by Madsen, et al. (2005) and Vanhala, et al. (2016).

Trust in peers & management: To measure trust in peers & management, this research used a five-item scale which was constructed based on the scales developed by Brockner, et al. (1994), and Nyhan and Marlowe (1997).

Demographic factors: The demographic variables were measured as either categorical or scale variables. The categories or measurement units of each demographic variable are shown in Table 4.1.

4.4 Data Analyses and Results

At first, this chapter used factor analysis (FA) to determine the factor structure of the items and extract common factors. Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization was performed to elicit the factors while Eigenvalue one test was applied to keep or discard factors. Cronbach's alpha was performed to verify the internal consistency of the study scales. Indices were calculated by averaging items in each scale. To describe the demographic characteristics of the sample, various descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means, and standard deviations were used. Pearson Product-moment Correlation test was used to test the strength and direction of the relationships in above hypotheses. A Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze the relationship between demographic variables and the three main research variables: organizational commitment, trust in peers & management and readiness for organizational change.

4.4.1 Initial Analysis

As mentioned earlier, all the items of the three measurement scales were subjected to principal-component analysis for determining the factor structure of each scale. The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure was 0.814 with individual KMO measures all greater than 0.7. This indicates that the latent constructs could predict the variability in the responses on the observed variables. Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ($p < 0.0005$), indicating that the data was likely factorizable. The factor corresponding to change readiness was loaded with six items while organizational commitment and trust in peers & management were each loaded with five items (see

Table 4.2). Cronbach's alpha values extracted for the three major dimensions were above 0.716. As reported by Nunnally (1978), a score above 0.7 is considered reliable, and hence all the scales of this research are reliable.

Table 4.2: Factor loadings and Cronbach's alpha values

Items as in the questionnaire	Factor Loadings	Communalities	Cronbach's alpha
Organizational commitment			0.716
<i>If I get another job with the same salary, I will not probably take it</i>	0.621	0.393	
<i>I feel proud to be a part of this company</i>	0.692	0.519	
<i>I get financial and non-financial benefits up to satisfactory level</i>	0.660	0.473	
<i>Company offers promotions without any discrepancy at the correct time</i>	0.767	0.599	
<i>Company offers trainings and education relevant to my job at correct time</i>	0.646	0.453	
Trust in peers & management			0.785
<i>My colleagues are emotionally ready to implement changes</i>	0.727	0.553	
<i>When company undergoes turbulence, employees always try to settle them</i>	0.839	0.710	
<i>I trust management to make decision that are always good for employees</i>	0.666	0.605	
<i>In turbulent period, employees' ideas and suggestions are welcome</i>	0.630	0.484	
<i>I trust my colleagues to support me during the change process</i>	0.621	0.471	
Readiness for organizational change			0.838
<i>My willingness to take part in the change process</i>	0.748	0.600	
<i>My wiliness to support the change process in the firm</i>	0.716	0.579	
<i>My willingness to learn new things</i>	0.746	0.565	
<i>My wiliness to improve my current job position</i>	0.680	0.490	
<i>My wiliness to take responsibilities of the change process</i>	0.761	0.610	
<i>My wiliness to create new ideas</i>	0.775	0.612	

4.4.2 Change Experience at the Organization

Figure 4.1 shows how the employees at the "X" rated their experience on recent organizational change efforts at the firm. All the respondents, those who have experienced change at their current organization, rated their change experience at either successful or very successful levels. The human resource manager of the "X", who handles employee grievances, confirmed that his office has not received at least an anonymous employee complaint against the recent change initiatives.

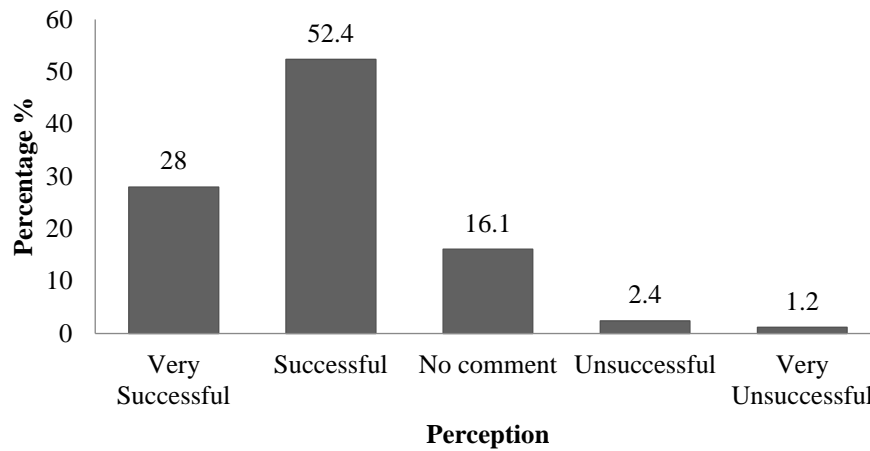


Figure 4.1: Employee Perception on the Success of the Recent Changes

4.4.3 Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Product-Movement Correlations

According to the obtained mean score of 4.40 (SD of 0.630) for the employee change readiness index on a 5-point Likert scale (1: strongly agree to 5: do not agree at all), a clear majority of the employees at “X” perceive that they are ready to welcome changes in future. The mean scores received for the indices of organizational commitment and trust in peers & management were 3.65 (SD of -0.630) and 3.5 (SD of 0.697), respectively (see Table 4.3). These mean scores imply that employees at “X” perceive moderately high levels of organizational commitment and trust in peers & management.

As shown in Table 4.3, the correlation analysis showed that employee organizational commitment was linked ($r_s=0.216$, $p=0.006$) to employee readiness as predicted by the hypothesis-1 (*There is a significant positive relationship between employees’ organizational commitment and employee readiness for organizational change*).

Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Product-Movement Correlation Test Results

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.Employee readiness for change	4.40	0.630								
2.Organizational commitment	3.65	0.630	0.216**							
3.Trust in peers & management	3.50	0.697	0.338**	0.427**						
4.Age ^{a)}	1.92	0.548	0.003	-0.037	-0.024					
5.Marrital status ^{b)}	1.67	0.515	0.042	0.099	-0.067	-0.244**				
6.Educational level ^{c)}	1.82	0.989	0.059	0.076	0.137	0.166*	0.164*			
7.Professional level ^{d)}	2.70	0.506	-0.067	-0.031	-0.116	-0.228**	0.031	-0.397**		
8.Work experience at the current company (months)	31.20	30.87	-0.080	-0.007	0.016	0.148	-0.062	-0.075	-0.208**	
9.Total work experiences (months)	65.01	48.46	-0.080	-0.052	-0.033	0.346**	-0.223**	0.005	-0.229**	0.486**

Notes: ** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2- tailed), * correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2- tailed), M= Mean, SD= Standard Deviation, Number of observations =172

a) Age: 1- < 21yrs, 2 - 21-40yrs, 3- 41-60yrs

b) Marital status: 1- Married, 2- Unmarried, 3- Divorced /Widow

c) Educational level: 1- Up to O/L, 2- Up to A/L, 3- Diploma, 4-Graduate, 5-Proffesional qualification

d) Professional level: 1-Executive level,2- Supervisory level,3- Operational level

According to Cohen (1988), the strength of an association between two variables is regarded as weak if r_s ranges from 0.1 to 0.3 in Pearson correlation test. Therefore, this relationship can be rated as a weak relationship. However, it indicates that higher the perceived commitment to the organization higher the perceived readiness for organizational change.

As per the results obtained by Pearson Correlation test, a statistically significant, positive and moderate relationship was found between trust in peers & management and employee readiness for organizational change ($r_s=0.338$, $p=0.000$). Thus, hypothesis-2 (*There is a significant positive relationship between employees' trust in peers & supervisors and employee readiness for institutional change*) is found to be true and the null hypothesis can be rejected at $p=0.01$.

In addition, even though not related to a hypothesis of the chapter, it found that trust in peers & management was moderately correlated to organizational commitment ($r_s=0.427$, $p=0.000$).

4.4.4 Multi analysis of variance (MANOVA) results

MANOVA was used to analyze the relationship between demographic variables such as gender, age, and so on, and the three main research variables: organizational commitment, trust in peers & management and readiness for organizational change.

According to the results obtained (see Table 4.4), statistically significant relationships were found between readiness for organizational change and educational level ($p=0.002$) and readiness for change and total work experience ($p=0.000$). The

Table 4.4: Demographic Multi Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) Results

Demographic variables	Employee readiness ^a		Organizational commitment ^b		Trust in peers & supervisors ^c	
	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Gender	1.465	0.228	1.416	0.236	0.000	0.987
Age	0.082	0.921	0.147	0.863	2.030	0.135
Marital status	0.315	0.730	0.860	0.425	0.559	0.573
Education level	4.345	0.002**	2.110	0.082	3.031	0.019*
Professional level	0.509	0.602	0.090	0.914	0.710	0.493
Work Ex. at current Org	0.920	0.588	0.811	0.739	1.074	0.380
Total work Ex.	2.737	0.000**	0.623	0.911	0.982	0.489

Notes: ** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2- tailed) * correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), a. $R^2 = 0.001$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.012$; b. $R^2 = 0.002$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.011$; c. $R^2 = 0.025$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.013$. F= Variance of the group mean, *p* =probability value, R^2 : R Square, ΔR^2 = Adjusted R Square, Number of observations =172

other demographic variables were not found directly correlated with employee readiness. In addition, statistically significant relationships were found between trust in peers & management and educational level ($p=0.019$).

4.5 Discussion

As illustrated in the previous section, this chapter found a positive and significant relationship between organizational commitment and employee readiness for change. This finding goes in line with the findings of the studies conducted by Eby, et al. (2000), Weber and Weber, (2001), Madsen, et al. (2005), Vakola and Nikolaou (2005), and Barber (2010). This finding complies with the notion that employees would be more open to organizational change when they are more obligated towards their organization. Therefore, employees' desire to welcome changes could be raised by strengthening the employees' psychological bond with the organization. Effective communication, emotional empowering and reducing uncertainties of the employees can help to strengthen this bond (Madsen, et al., 2005). Furthermore, the psychological

contract between employers and employees could broaden by reducing the ‘expectations gap’- a discrepancy between what a person encounters on the job in the way of positive and negative experiences and what he or she expected to encounter (Porter and Steers, 1973). Sturges and Guest (2004) mention that if organizations able to manage work-life balance issues carefully those organizations could raise their employees’ psychological bond and commitment in better way.

The chapter, as per the hypothesis 2, revealed that there is a positive and significant association between trust in peers & management and employee readiness for change. There is a line of similar studies (Eby, et al., 2000; Weber and Weber, 2001; Rafferty and Simons, 2006; Oreg, et al., 2011; Shah, 2014) which provides evidence to support this finding. It can be assumed that employees’ faith on their peers and the superiors help them to face changes with confidence and certainty as organizational change is more of a team work. On the other hand, as Ajzen (1991) explains in his famous theory of planned behavior (TPB), human intentions and behaviors are guided by subjective norms. These subjective norms, with regard to an individual, are highly linked to his trust on other individuals who are influential on his behavior.

This chapter could also reveal that employees’ who had faith on peers & management, were more committed toward the organization. This makes sense that employees’ positive faith on their peers and management escalates their commitment towards the organization and vice versa.

Only education and total work experience, among the demographic factors, had a statistically significant positive association with employees’ change readiness. The correlation of educational level with employee readiness is supported by previous studies (Hanpachem,1997; Madsen, et al.,2005; Shah and Shah, 2010). Other

demographic factors did not show any degree of correlation with employees' change readiness. Cunningham, et al. (2002), Madsen, et al. (2005) and Shah and Shah (2010) also discovered that there were no significant relationships between change readiness and demographic variables such as gender, age, marital status, number of years in present job & number of years with present employer.

Other than that, trust in peers & management correlated with education level ($p=0.019$). In other words, more educated employees showed a higher level of faith on their co-workers and management compared to the employees who had a lower level of education. It can be assumed that formal education train employees to have an open mind that welcomes new and unexpected situations.

4.6 Summary

In efforts of organizational change, it is quite difficult or rather impossible to modify or change employees' demographic characteristics as a strategy to achieve a desired change or steer the organization in a direction desired by the organization. However, this chapter, with reference to a case study in a manufacturing firm in Sri Lanka, reveals that employees' organizational commitment and trust in peers & management are more influential on their readiness to change over their demographic characteristics. These two factors can be altered through human resource development (HRD) functions such as employee training, employee career development mentoring, and introducing work life balance initiatives. On the other hand, the HRD intervention can also raise the education level of the employees, and hence induce a multiple level impact on boosting employee readiness.

As previous chapter found, some work-life balance initiatives which have introduced through HRD policy could be seen at IT sector in Sri Lanka. However, some practical work life balance promoting initiatives which are more suitable for the factory workers can introduce for these kinds of factories where the majority of the workforce is non-managerial workers. It might be a good solution for improving organizational commitment and trust on management & supervisors while reducing employee turnover. This study therefore recommends that organizations should include work-life balance as part of Human Resource practices in order to have satisfied and committed employees and for reducing turnover rates. An employee who is satisfied with his/her job is definitely loyal to the job, and obviously, has been able to balance the demands of work and life/family (Rousseau, 1995).

In contrast, Sturges and Guest (2004) highlight the important roles organizations can play in mitigating work/non-work conflict for younger employees, both through support for out-of-work responsibilities and through the psychological contract, while also confirming the role of organizational support in maintaining organizational commitment (Eisenberger, et al, 1990).

This chapter concludes that organizational change can still be effectively performed, despite the barriers imposed by undesirable demographic factors, if the organization can formulate a strong and an effective strategy to drive the employees' organizational commitment and trust in peers & management into a very desirable and constructive state.

The results of the change process must be made tangible to employees at all levels, nevertheless the benefits of the change effects must be distributed among all the employees concerned. This can help to sustain the change process through the time.

Further studies with bigger and more randomized samples are needed to validate the generalizability of this study. The finding of this chapter also encourages further research to investigate the impact of other attitudinal factors and their interactive effects on employee readiness for organizational change.

Lastly, the results highlight the need of organizational understanding on the importance of the careful management of employees perceived 'imbalance' or conflict between work and non-work life. Furthermore, there is evidence from academic literature that generational values are different (Smola and Sutton, 2002) and that young people today emphasize achievement of work/life balance more than their predecessors (Lewis, et al., 2002). Therefore, future research on young people and their expectations on balancing career and family responsibilities are recommended.

Chapter 5 Role of Gender and Students' Majoring Academic Field on Multiple Role Balance Expectations

5.1 Introduction

Maintaining a balance among work, parenting, family and social roles is a challenge for most of working mothers and fathers. Balancing multiple roles is about maintaining a supportive and healthy balance between competitive responsibilities of work and non-work roles with minimum conflicts among roles (Kirchmeyer, 2000; Sirgy and Lee, 2018). Even though there has been great interest illustrated in academic literature to examine work and non-work roles balance aspects of active workforce across diverse cultures, very little attention has been comparatively given to study the emerging adults' intentions to balance multiple roles once they join the work-force (Weer, et al., 2006; Mason, 2015). Furthermore, most research on the realm of “multiple role balance” has studied only a few life roles such as spouse, parent and employee roles and neglected other additional roles such as friends, elderly caregivers, volunteers, and social workers (Thoits, 1986).

In this chapter, the author attempts to fill this void by investigating anticipated multiple role balance intentions of future workforce in Sri Lanka. According to 2016 estimates, the female labor force participation rate in Sri Lanka is about 37.6% (Department of Census and Statistics, 2016). It means the majority of the country's working-aged females remain outside the labor force without any paid employment. Even though the female labor force participation rate is lower than DMC (developing

member countries) average (Asian Development Bank, 2015), Sri Lanka has a long record of gender equality in education enrolment and female completion rates (Gunewardena, 2015; Semasinghe, 2017). Meanwhile, the University Grants Commission (2014) reported that females accounted for 60% of the total university enrolment of undergraduate studies in Sri Lanka. These ground level statistics raises a question, why are Sri Lankan women unable to translate their educational achievements into the workforce advancement and ultimately aid the country's economy. According to the World Bank (2017), gender division of labor in the household could be one reason for the above matter. Similarly, a lack of social and family-friendly policies/strategies (Gunewardena, 2015) and culturally sanctioned eldercare responsibilities (Østbye, et al., 2010; Kaluthantiri, 2015) keep capable Sri Lankan women away from the workforce. So, there is a timely importance to investigate how young Sri Lankans, both female and male plan to balance their future work and non-work life domains since the necessity of attracting more capable women to the island's labor force in the future.

This chapter aims to examine the determinants of anticipated multiple role balance intentions of the future workforce. It further examines whether the relationships among the determinants and anticipated multiple role balance depend on gender or students' majoring academic field. For the above purpose, Social cognitive career theory's (SCCT) self-management model (Lent and Brown, 2013) used as the guiding theoretical framework. Appendix A explains the theoretical background and SCCT self-management model.

5.2 The Studied Model

5.2.1 Anticipated Multiple Role Balance (AMRB)

According to the findings of various scholars (Kirchmeyer, 2000; Sirgy and Lee, 2018) multiple role balance can be described as achieving a balance between work and non-work personal life by devoting equal amounts of quality time, energy and commitment across all life roles meanwhile attaining the satisfying experiences in all life domains with a minimum of role conflict. Meanwhile, many researchers (Peake and Harris, 2002; Cinamon, 2006; Kirby, 2014) also mentioned that most young adults between 18-25 years old are exploring how they anticipate the balance among multiple roles in future and preparing to handle multiple roles. Accordingly, it is very important to explore about young people's expectations and possible determinants of balancing multiple roles since available knowledge is very limited in this area (Barnett, et al., 2003; Weer, et al., 2006). Because a better awareness of anticipated multiple role balance of emerging adults would help young people to prepare for the future in advance, it would ultimately ensure a well-organized and efficient workforce in the future.

5.2.2 Multiple Role Balance Self-Efficacy (SE) and Outcome Expectations (SE)

According to Bandura (1986), self-efficacy can be described as one's beliefs about personal capabilities to perform a task. Then, work-life balance self-efficacy can be defined as perceived competence to balance work and family roles at once without a minimum level of role conflict (Basuil and Casper, 2012). When someone has strong

self-efficacy to balance future work and non-work roles, it would contribute young people's career decisions and career plans while minimizing role conflict (Weitzman, 1994; Lent, et al., 2003). There is much evidence in academic literature that proves the high level of work-life balance self-efficacy results in a less work life conflict (Erdwins, et al., 2001; Cinamon, 2006) and it significantly contributes to having a balanced work and family life (Cinamon, 2006; Basuil and Casper, 2012; Mason, 2015; Roche, et al., 2017). However, in the Sri Lankan context, there is no such evidence about the relationship between self-efficacy and multiple role balance intention. Thus, the following hypothesis has been set for this chapter analysis.

Hypothesis 1: *Multiple balance role self-efficacy positively and significantly predicts the anticipated multiple role balance intention.*

The other cognitive variable, that would influence the intention of adaptive carrier behavior (anticipated multiple balance for this chapter), outcome expectations can explain as one's belief about negative and positive consequences of the particular task or behavior (Lent and Brown, 2013). According to Lent, et al. (2016), this can include either positive or negative social, material or self-evaluative outcomes. Roche, et al. (2017) mentioned in her study that outcome expectations for managing multiple roles and self-efficacy for multiple role management are moderately and positively related. Further, the strength of the relationship among outcome expectation and intention to manage multiple roles was found smaller than the relationship among self-efficacy and intention. On the other hand, there is no evidence about the relationship of both positive and negative outcome expectations with the anticipated multiple role

balance intention. Therefore, two other hypotheses were set up as follows.

Hypothesis 2: *Positive outcome expectations positively and significantly predicts anticipated multiple role balance intention.*

Hypothesis 3: *Negative outcome expectations negatively and significantly predicts anticipated multiple role balance intention.*

5.2.3 Gender and Majoring Academic Field

The gender of respondents and their majoring academic field as personal inputs of the study model were considered. Normally, work-life balance is a challenge for anyone, irrespective of gender (Parker and Wang, 2013). However, past literature provides evidence of both gender similarities and differences in work-life balance intention. Basuil and Casper (2012), and Peake and Harris (2002) reported that there is no main effect of gender in attitudes towards multiple role planning. By contrast, McElwain, et al. (2005) mentioned that there is a gender difference in managing work and family roles. Meanwhile, Rothbard (2001) stated that females are still responsible for the family and they spend a lot of time on household and childcare responsibilities where men are primarily responsible for earning money. Tan-Wilson and Stamp (2015) argued the gender differences in balancing work and family cores already remains with college students even though they may not have a spouse, children or life career yet.

The information about the impact of students' majoring academic field on their work-family intention is very limited. In Sri Lanka, graduate unemployment varies with the field of study as management students don't face a big problem in the labor

market with the problem being more severe among art graduates. Thus, it is important to explore more about the role that students choose to major field in at university and how this can influence their anticipated multiple role balance.

5.3 Data Analysis and Results

The data collection procedure, measurements and demographic analysis of the studied sample are explained in Appendix B.

5.3.1 Initial Analysis

Nineteen questionnaire items for self-efficacy for multiple role balance and twenty items for anticipated multiple balance intention were factor analyzed using maximum likelihood factor extracting method. No rotation was used for the purpose of extracting one factor for each scale above. The factor corresponding to self-efficacy included twelve items and anticipated multiple balance intention included with fourteen items (see Table 5.1).

The maximum likelihood with oblique rotation suggested two underlying factors as the positive outcome (seven items) and the negative outcomes (six items) for outcome expectations for multiple role balance (sixteen items). Thus, two separate scales were created for positive and negative outcome expectations as the inter-correlation between the scores of these scales were statistically insignificant ($r=-0.009$). The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measures for self-efficacy, outcome expectation and anticipated multiple role balance intention were 0.929, 0.847 and 0.945 respectively, with individual KMO measures all greater than 0.7.

Table 5.1: Factor Loadings and Cronbach's Alpha Values

Items as in the questionnaire	Factor Loadings	Communalities	Cronbach's alpha
Self-efficacy for multiple role balance			0.868
<i>Fulfil your family role effectively after a long day at work</i>	0.645	0.416	
<i>Find time to have date nights with my wife/husband</i>	0.590	0.348	
<i>Have a plan if my babysitter is sick on a day that spouse and I both are busy</i>	0.592	0.350	
<i>Initiate a conversation with my spouse when I am upset with him/her</i>	0.648	0.420	
<i>Enjoy time at home with family, even though I have work to do</i>	0.717	0.515	
<i>Find time to be with my parents to attend their requirements</i>	0.692	0.479	
<i>Set realistic goals concerning amount of task to be completed</i>	0.581	0.338	
<i>Refuse unreasonable requests from family members, friends and workplace</i>	0.455	0.207	
<i>Manage time to attend social gatherings while playing other roles</i>	0.547	0.299	
<i>Devote time for personal relaxation or leisure activities</i>	0.653	0.426	
<i>Be available to my children when they need me</i>	0.743	0.552	
<i>Make time to shop myself or get my haircut</i>	0.518	0.269	
Positive outcome expectations			0.830
<i>There will be warm and lovely relationship with spouse, children etc.</i>	0.567	0.318	
<i>I would have self-satisfaction at the end</i>	0.576	0.309	
<i>I would be successful at my job</i>	0.788	0.529	
<i>I would be able to gain recognition from others</i>	0.772	0.532	
<i>I would be making use of my abilities</i>	0.687	0.428	
<i>I would feel proud of my efforts</i>	0.639	0.403	
<i>I would feel fulfilled one day</i>	0.535	0.281	
Negative outcome expectations			0.755
<i>I may have many arguments, conflicts with my family members</i>	0.544	0.296	
<i>I would be criticized</i>	0.415	0.200	
<i>I may feel overloaded</i>	0.635	0.405	
<i>I may have low self-esteem</i>	0.647	0.478	
<i>I would have feelings of guilt one day since I missed valuable moments</i>	0.663	0.443	
<i>I would feel as a loser since I missed personal pleasure</i>	0.593	0.404	
Anticipated multiple role balance intentions			0.908
<i>I will manage many life roles in future</i>	0.715	0.511	
<i>I will come out with some flexible plans to manage multiple roles</i>	0.768	0.590	
<i>I will talk to friends/family about strategies for balancing multiple roles</i>	0.631	0.398	
<i>When balancing multiple roles, I will consider several different strategies</i>	0.674	0.454	
<i>I will discuss with spouse about combining career and family roles</i>	0.734	0.539	
<i>It is important to listen to spouse's ideas/suggestions about the best way</i>	0.737	0.543	
<i>When balancing multiple roles, I may have to change plans/strategies</i>	0.610	0.372	
<i>I would develop a clear image of what I want to achieve in each life role</i>	0.662	0.439	
<i>I will try to understand my own values around each role</i>	0.660	0.436	
<i>I will set priorities in both work and non-work roles to minimized stress</i>	0.646	0.417	
<i>I plan to select many options of managing multiple roles responsibilities</i>	0.628	0.395	
<i>I would be committed to have a lifelong career in addition to raise a family</i>	0.473	0.223	
<i>I try to be conscious about managing time while balancing many roles</i>	0.533	0.284	
<i>I am not going give-up anything, I really want to play many roles</i>	0.533	0.306	

This indicated that the latent constructs could predict the variability in the responses on the observed variables. Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ($p < 0.0005$), for all three scales, and it indicated that the data was likely factorizable.

Cronbach's alpha was performed to verify the internal consistency of the research scales. All the Cronbach's alpha values extracted for the three study scales were above 0.755 as Table 5.1. According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.70 or above is considered reliable and acceptable. Therefore, the yielded alpha values were supported by the internal consistency of research scales.

5.3.2 Differences of Gender and Majoring Field in Study Variables

Two independent-samples t-test were conducted to analyze whether gender and students' majoring fields made a difference in study variables. Results showed, significant gender difference in all three variables, self-efficacy for multiple role balance, $t(684) = 3.84, p = 0.000$, positive outcome expectations, $t(692) = 2.812, p = 0.005$, negative outcome expectations, $t(692) = -5.629, p = 0.000$ and anticipated multiple role balance, $t(698) = 3.69, p = 0.000$. Further, female students' perceived capability of balancing multiple roles ($M = 4.02, SD = 0.56$), beliefs for positive consequences of multiple role balance ($M = 3.88, SD = 0.65$) and intention for anticipated multiple role balance ($M = 3.94, SD = 0.55$) were higher than male students ($M = 3.80, SD = 0.076$ for self-efficacy, $M = 3.73, SD = 0.69$ for positive outcome expectations, $M = 3.75, SD = 0.67$ for anticipated multiple role balance). In contrast, students' beliefs on negative

consequences of multiple role balance was higher in male students ($M=3.14$, $SD=0.73$) than female students ($M=2.80$, $SD=0.73$).

Next, independent sample t-test results for students majoring field showed a significant difference between science and management students in positive outcome expectations only, $t(671)=-2.247$, $p=0.025$. Whereas students in the management faculty had higher positive outcome expectations of balancing multiple roles ($M=3.90$, $SD=0.68$) rather than science faculty students ($M=3.78$, $SD=0.64$).

5.3.3 Correlation among Self-Efficacy, Outcome Expectation and Anticipated Multiple Role Balance

Pearson's correlation coefficient (two-tailed) was performed to identify the relationships among study variables. Since gender differences in study variables were found already, two correlation analyses were conducted separately for each gender. As per the results obtained for the total sample, anticipated multiple role balance showed a strong positive relationship with self-efficacy ($r=0.657$, $p=0.000$) and positive outcome expectations ($r=0.626$, $p=0.000$). Further, the relationship between negative outcome expectations and anticipated multiple role balance was not significant ($r=-0.072$, $p=0.067$). Other than that, there was a moderate positive relationship ($r=0.541$, $p=0.000$) between self-efficacy and positive outcome expectations while the relationship between self-efficacy and negative outcome expectations was small and negative ($r=-0.106$, $p=0.007$). Similar results with slightly different magnitude were observed when correlation analysis performed for males and females separately (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.2: Correlation Coefficients

	AMRB intention	Self-efficacy	Positive OE
Full Sample (n=620)			
Self-efficacy	0.657**		
Positive outcome expectations	0.626**	0.541**	
Negative outcome expectations	-0.072	-0.106**	0.009
For Female (n=422)			
Self-efficacy	0.626**		
Positive outcome expectations	0.614**	0.521**	
Negative outcome expectations	-0.064	-0.043	-0.002
For Male (n=422)			
Self-efficacy	0.680**		
Positive outcome expectations	0.640**	0.567**	
Negative outcome expectations	-0.005	-0.123	0.025
For Science faculty (n=364)			
Self-efficacy	0.652**		
Positive outcome expectations	0.594**	0.504**	
Negative outcome expectations	-0.100	-0.118*	-0.029
For Management faculty (n=239)			
Self-efficacy	0.655**		
Positive outcome expectations	0.654**	0.559**	
Negative outcome expectations	-0.032	-0.096	-0.017

Note: ** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), * correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), AMRB-Anticipated Multiple Role Balance, OE-Outcome Expectations

Two Pearson's correlation coefficient analyses were performed separately for the science and management faculty students. Results were the same for both faculties with only slightly different magnitudes (see Table 5.2).

5.3.4 Regression Analyses

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine whether university students' self-efficacy for multiple role balance and outcome expectation predict their intention of multiple role balance (Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2). For the total sample, the multiple regression model statistically predicted anticipated multiple role balance, $F(3, 617) = 247.27$, $p < 0.0005$, $\text{adj.}R^2 = 0.54$. Self-efficacy and positive outcome

expectations variables added statistically significantly to the prediction, $p < 0.05$. Thus, hypothesis one and two of this research are found to be true and the null hypothesis could be rejected, but negative outcome expectations variable was found not to be significant ($\beta = -0.016$, $p = 0.585$). Therefore, hypothesis three was found to be false and the null hypothesis had to be accepted. Regression coefficients and standard errors are shown in Table 5.3.

In order to examine whether there are any gender differences in the prediction of anticipated multiple role balance, two multiple regression analyses were conducted for female and male students separately. Results showed that significant models were produced for both female students, $F(3, 419) = 157.014$, $p < 0.0005$ and male students, $F(3, 194) = 79.305$, $p < 0.0005$ which explained 52.6% and 54.4% of anticipated multiple role balance of female and male students respectively. The self-efficacy emerged as the best predictor of anticipated multiple role balance variance for both female and male students (see Table 5.3). A similar pattern of results was obtained for both the science and management faculty students, only differences in the magnitudes were observed (see Table 5.3). Significant model for management faculty students was explained higher anticipated multiple balance variance (55.3%) than science students (52.2%).

5.3.5 Test for the Moderation Effect of Gender and Students Majoring Academic Field

In order to test whether gender and students majoring academic fields moderate the relationships among self-efficacy, outcome expectation and anticipated multiple role balance, hierarchical regression procedures were performed.

Table 5.3: Multiple Regression Analysis Results

	B	SE	β		B	SE	B
For both Genders (n=620)				For both Faculties (n=603)			
Constant	0.014	0.026		Constant	0.018	0.027	
Self-efficacy	0.468	0.033	0.453*	Self-efficacy	0.465	0.304	0.453*
Positive outcome expectations	0.412	0.034	0.391*	Positive outcome expectations	0.41	0.304	0.388*
Negative outcome expectations	-0.016	0.030	-0.015	Negative outcome expectations	-0.016	0.030	-0.015
R²	0.546**			R²	0.540**		
ΔR^2	0.544**			ΔR^2	0.538**		
For Female (n=422)				For Science Faculty (n=364)			
Constant	0.042	0.030		Constant	0.018	0.035	
Self-efficacy	0.460	0.042	0.423*	Self-efficacy	0.477	0.044	0.457*
Positive outcome expectations	0.419	0.040	0.412*	Positive outcome expectations	0.408	0.045	0.379*
Negative outcome expectations	-0.031	0.035	0.030	Negative outcome expectations	-0.025	0.041	-0.023
R²	0.529**			R²	0.526**		
ΔR^2	0.526**			ΔR^2	0.522**		
For Male (n=198)				For Management Faculty (n=239)			
Constant	-0.063	0.053		Constant	0.016	0.043	
Self-efficacy	0.468	0.056	0.483*	Self-efficacy	0.448	0.053	0.446*
Positive outcome expectations	0.395	0.063	0.362*	Positive outcome expectations	0.414	0.054	0.400*
Negative outcome expectations	0.041	0.058	0.034	Negative outcome expectations	-0.004	0.046	-0.004
R²	0.551**			R²	0.558**		
ΔR^2	0.544**			ΔR^2	0.553**		

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.0005$, B= Unstandardized Coefficient; SE=Standard error of the coefficient; β =Standard Coefficient; R^2 =R square; ΔR^2 = Adjusted R square

Before testing for moderating effect, gender and faculty variables were dummy coded to ensure they were continuous variables. In the hierarchical regression model, the order of entry was as follows.

Table 5.4: Moderated Hierarchical Regression Results

	Model 1			Model 2		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	B
Constant	-0.051	0.047		-0.063	0.049	
Self-efficacy	0.46	0.033	0.446*	0.468	0.051	0.453*
POE	0.413	0.034	0.391*	0.395	0.057	0.375*
NOE	-0.008	0.03	-0.007	0.041	0.053	0.038
Gender	0.096	0.057	0.047	0.105	0.058	0.051
Self-efficacy*Gender				-0.007	0.068	-0.005
POE*Gender				0.024	0.071	0.018
NOE*Gender				-0.072	0.065	-0.053
R²	0.548**			0.549		
ΔR^2	0.545**			0.544		
	Model 1			Model 2		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	B
Constant	0.008	0.041		0.007	0.041	
Self-efficacy	0.468	0.033	0.453*	0.455	0.052	0.441*
POE	0.412	0.034	0.391*	0.420	0.052	0.398*
NOE	-0.016	0.03	-0.015	-0.004	0.045	-0.004
Gender	0.011	0.053	0.005	0.011	0.053	0.006
Self-efficacy*faculty				0.021	0.068	0.015
POE*faculty				-0.012	0.068	0.015
NOE*faculty				-0.021	0.06	-0.014
R²	0.546**			0.546		
ΔR^2	0.543**			0.541		

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .0005$, B= Unstandardized Coefficient; SE=Standard error of the coefficient; β =Standard Coefficient; R^2 =R square; ΔR^2 = Adjusted R square, POE= Positive outcome expectation; NOE= Negative outcome expectations

At step one, all the predictor variables (self-efficacy, positive outcome expectations and negative expectations) and possible moderator variables (dummy coded gender or dummy coded faculty) were entered. For the second step, the interaction terms were included. However, according to the results obtained (see Table 5.4) there were no significant moderating effect of gender ($\Delta R^2 = 0.00$, $p = 0.716$) and students majoring

academic field ($\Delta R^2 = 0.000$, $p = 0.969$) on the relationships among self-efficacy beliefs, positive and negative outcome expectations and anticipated multiple role balance intentions.

5.4 Discussion

This chapter aimed to examine the relationship among young adults' perceived capacity to balance multiple life roles in future (self-efficacy for multiple role balance), their anticipated positive and negative consequences of balancing multiple roles and students' intention to balance multiple roles in future. Further, it tried to investigate the role of gender and students' majoring academic field (Science and Management) on above relationships.

As per the results obtained in multiple regression analysis, self-efficacy and positive outcome expectations predicted the anticipated multiple role balance intention positively and significantly which goes in line with the findings of the studies conducted by Mason (2015) and Roche, et al. (2017) that specially in “work-life balance” realm. Negative outcome expectation was not found as a significant predictor in the model. However, there is little or no empirical support for this. Lent, et al. (2017) also mentioned in their paper that self-efficacy beliefs and positive outcome expectations are the main cognitive variables that promote peoples' intention to pursue career exploration and decision-making activities. They also mentioned nothing about the role of negative outcome expectations on intention to perform particular tasks even negative outcome expectations already included in the SCCT's self-management model introduced by Lent and Brown (2013).

The analysis for gender differences revealed that young females perceive capability to balance multiple roles in future (self-efficacy for balancing multiple roles) is higher than male students. By supporting to that argument, both Riggio and Desrochers (2006), and Basuil and Casper (2012) have discovered that gender is a predictor of self-efficacy. In contrast to these findings, Roche, et al. (2017) mentioned that there is no gender difference in self-efficacy beliefs while Cinamon (2006) argues that self-efficacy for managing multiple roles is less in females compared to men. The results of this chapter further explored that female students' beliefs on positive consequences of balancing multiple roles are higher than young males and in contrast, young males hold stronger beliefs on negative consequences of balancing multiple roles than females do.

In addition, the results found that female students have stronger intention for balancing multiple roles in future than male students. This finding is consistent with prior literature (Friedman and Weissbrod, 2005; Roche, et al., 2017). By supporting that many past literatures also have proven that there is a gender difference in work-family balance intention (Rothbard, 2001; McElwain, et al., 2005; Fapohunda, 2014) and further, Tan-Wilson and Stamp (2015) mentioned that gender differences in balancing work and non-work roles in the future could still be observed among young adults.

These findings are possible as mentioned by Evans, et al. (2013), because young males are socially expected to give priority to their career life rather than their family life. Roche, et al. (2017) also supported this argument by stating that young men are expected to focus on one main role in life while young women are socialized to engage in several roles at once. These statements are highly applicable to the Sri Lankan context where the study was conducted. Even though not prominent, conventional gender ideologies (Perera, 1991), the dominance of men in society (Lynch, 1999), extended family relations (Niles,

1998), intergenerational caring obligations (Malhotra and Mather, 1997), and social divisions (Fernando and Cohen, 2013) still remain in Sri Lankan society today. Similarly, many scholars argue that South Asian women face a high demand of multiple roles, rather than women in western cultures since they have to handle the additional responsibilities of their extended families (Rana, et al., 1998; Poster and Prasad, 2005). Under this context, young females in Sri Lanka are culturally modelled to hold multiple responsibilities in future while males are socially urged to focus mainly on their career. Such career-oriented men normally put their attention on negative consequences of handling multiple responsibilities in different life domains; on the other hand, young women set their minds and attitudes to hold multiple roles in future from their childhood.

Interestingly, this chapter further revealed that students in management faculty have strong beliefs on the positive consequences of balancing work and non-work roles compared to science faculty students. Mason (2015) highlighted that students' outside educational experiences are more affective in their preparation for future work and family roles rather than classroom academic experiences. Further, she suggested these experiences may increase self-efficacy and both positive and the negative consequences of multiple role lifestyle. In general, management students at Sri Jayewardenepura university get many chances to engage with outside institutions and professionals during their university time, but science faculty students mainly attached to their laboratories and experiments which provide more academic experience to students. Therefore, management students have a higher possibility to experience success and failure in real life, exposure to real life model characters, and are encouraged to cultivate positive emotions towards handling multiple roles in future through their academic discipline.

Even though young adults hold such gender differentiated attitudes and different

learning experiences based on their academic discipline as described above, results of moderated regression analysis showed that there is not any moderating effect of gender and students majoring subjects on the relationships among studying variables. In line to that finding, Roche, et al. (2017) has found that gender shows a direct effect rather than a mediated effect on the intention of balancing multiple roles in the future.

Correlation analyses are shown the similar pattern of relationships among study variables, by observing differences only in magnitudes for the total sample and for both genders as well as both faculties. Students' self-efficacy beliefs and positive outcome expectations strongly correlate with anticipated multiple balance intention while negative outcome expectations negatively and weakly relate. Notwithstanding, results revealed that there is a moderate and positive relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and positive outcome expectations. These findings are similar to those of Roche, et al. (2017). However, the current study has focused on both positive and negative outcome expectations as an extension to the present literature.

This chapter may have important implications on the multiple role balance among the future workforce of Sri Lanka. Results for this study confirmed that the strong intention of balancing multiple roles in the future can be yielded through higher self-efficacy beliefs and positive outcome expectations. Thus, in order to ensure higher multiple role balance among a future workforce, it is very important to facilitate an environment that enables students to establish a strong perception on their own capabilities for balancing multiple roles and to develop steady beliefs on positive consequences of multiple role balance. To do that, it is beneficial to discover the antecedents of self-efficacy and outcome expectation. According to SCCT's self-management model (Lent and Brown, 2013), learning experiences (preponderance of

personal success, verbal encouragement, access to relevant role models and low level of negative emotions) are the main source that predict these cognitive motivators of anticipated multiple role balance. As per Mason (2015), current environmental support or barriers (supportive policies in the country) could be considered as an important factor that predicts individuals' learning experiences. Meanwhile, Fernando and Cohen (2013) argue that young and mid-career women in Sri Lanka struggle with lack of gender friendly and family-friendly policies.

Therefore, the findings could raise policymakers' awareness of how to motivate young adults in the country to maintain well-balanced multiple life roles in future through introducing more family-friendly policies that facilitate opportunities to engage multiple roles without minimum role conflicts. If there are strong state welfare regimes and work-family balance policies, it may indirectly affect the advancement of future workforce's self-efficacy beliefs and positive beliefs on outcome expectations for multiple role balance in future. It would ensure the satisfaction and well-being of the workforce and ultimately the country's economy.

Finally, several limitations of the research must be mentioned. The data were collected only at Sri Jayewardenepura University which is located in the capital of Sri Lanka. In order to increase the scope of this research and its' findings, future research could be conducted with a sample comprised of students from several universities and diverse academic disciplines around the country. Secondly, this chapter investigates the moderation effect of gender and majoring academic field only. In addition, the effect of participants socio-economic factors could be addressed in future research. Finally, this chapter used a cross-sectional research design to conduct the study, but future research should employ a longitudinal research design to explore how young adults' intentions

change with time which may provide more visible moderation effects.

5.5 Summary

Chapter 5 aimed to investigate the relationship among young adults' self-efficacy, positive and negative outcome expectations and anticipated multiple balance intentions. Further, it examined the role of university students' gender and their majoring academic field (science and management) on the above relationships. Findings showed that, self-efficacy and positive outcome expectations predicted the anticipated multiple role balance intention positively and significantly. Nonetheless, there were not any moderating effects of gender and students' majoring field on the relationships among self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations and multiple role balance intentions. Analyses for gender differences in study variables revealed that females perceived a capability to balance multiple roles, beliefs of the positive consequences of balancing multiple roles and anticipated multiple role balance intention were higher than in males. In contrast, young males hold higher negative outcome expectations of balancing multiple roles in the future. Overall, the findings of this chapter highlight the importance of introducing effective work-family balance policies/strategies to Sri Lanka to raise young adults' and indicate the confidence to handle multiple role balance in future through strengthening their self-efficacy and positive outcome expectations.

Chapter 6 Role of Perceived Social Pressure in Multiple Role Balance Expectations

6.1 Introduction

In the field of vocational and organizational psychology, multiple role balance has been identified as a hot topic, because of its' importance in individuals' well-being, life satisfaction, and mental health (Clark, 2000; Rantanen, et al., 2011; Haar, et al., 2014). Even though many researchers have studied aspects of multiple role balance within a currently active workforce, comparatively limited knowledge is available in the literature to understand emerging adults' future or anticipated role balance preferences. However, many scholars (Cinamon, 2010; Roche, et al., 2017) have called for studying emerging adults' intentions toward role combination and their plans to balance multiple roles. As argued by Arnett (2004), emerging adults (aged 18-25) have an enhanced ability to manage their time and money and to explore their identities in career, marriage, finance, parenting and other role responsibilities. In contrast to previous generations, both young men and women anticipate participating in both a career and family (Peake and Harris, 2002; Lopez, et al., 2014). On the other hand, some research has shown that both genders in young age often fail to plan practically for future role balance, while other studies have discussed the normative controls that could affect peoples' role balance intentions (Stevens, et al., 1992).

Importantly, most of the studies regarding young adults' future multiple role balance are based mainly in the US with a few others in western countries. Research

specific to South Asia, in particular Sri Lanka, are rare. With a declining fertility rate and an increasing life expectancy, Sri Lanka is facing a major problem of a rapidly aging population; one quarter of the island's population will be elderly in 2041 (Kaluthantiri, 2015; Samaraweera and Maduwage, 2016). Population aging will automatically result in a decreased labor force and an increasing old age dependency ratio (Gunatilaka, et al., 2010). Therefore, Sri Lankan women must increase their share in the labor force to offset the anticipated shrinkage. As stated by Pignatti (2016), increasing female labor force participation is essential for sustainable economic growth, especially in economies with highly educated women and aging populations. According to the University Grants Commission of Sri Lanka (2014), women accounted for 60% of the total university enrolment for undergraduate studies in Sri Lanka. With the increasing number of dual earning couples, both genders must engage with multiple roles as employee, parent, spouse, caregiver and so on. Therefore, the challenge of adequately balancing multiple roles could become one of the central concerns for individuals as the number of families where both partners work grows. Consequently, it is beneficial to young people to have a planful approach to balance future life roles for the purpose of minimizing conflicts that may occur due to incompatible demands among these roles as they develop in emerging adulthood (Peake and Harris, 2002). Furthermore, the societal discouragements and encouragements towards role combination and balance preferences have also been considered important (Stevens, et al., 1992; Coyle, et al., 2015) especially in societies like Sri Lanka where modern elements commingle with traditional attitudes.

The previous chapter (Chapter 5) has studied how multiple balance self-efficacy and outcome expectations predict anticipated multiple role balance in young adults. As an expansion to above, this chapter focuses on examining how emerging adults in Sri

Lanka plan to manage their multiple roles in the future and the role of social pressure on their intentions and, how differently social pressure affects on males’ and females’ multiple role balance intention. For the above purpose, social cognitive career theory’s (SCCT) self-management model (Lent and Brown, 2013) offers a valuable theoretical framework to investigate how young adults are planning their future life roles (Roche, et al., 2017). Appendix A explains the theoretical background and SCCT self-management model.

6.2 The Studied Model

Figure 6.1 illustrates the model used in the current chapter.

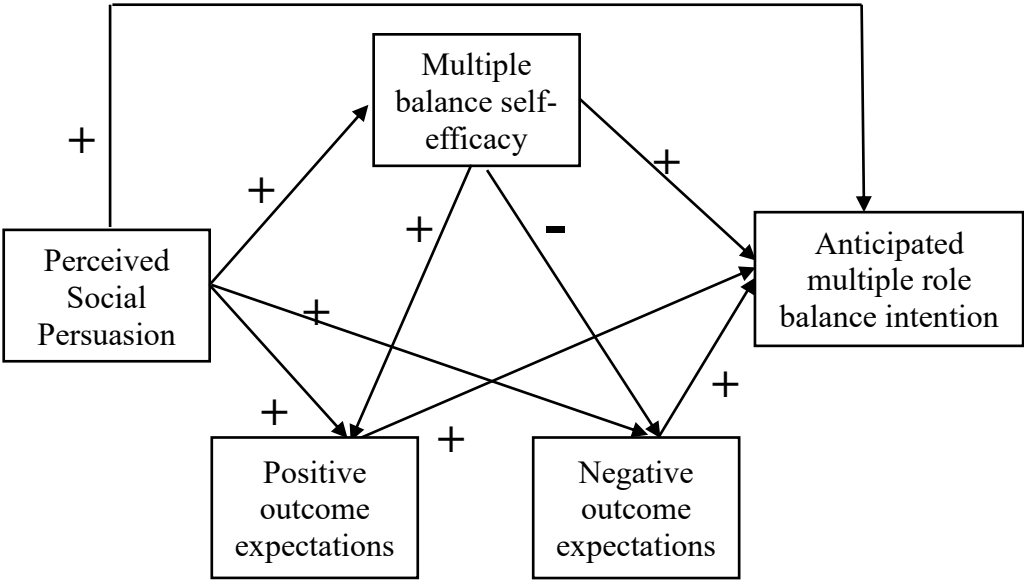


Figure 6.1: Model Tested in the Current Chapter

As mentioned earlier, this chapter used SCCT’s self-management model as a guiding theoretical framework based on the emphasis on learning experiences, self-

efficacy, outcome expectations and goal (intention) within the model. Following the SCCT's self-management framework, the present chapter tries to extend the previous research and study the role of learning experiences (verbal persuasion) via perceived social pressure on multiple role balance self-efficacy, outcome expectations and finally anticipated multiple role balance intention of Sri Lankan emerging adults.

6.2.1 Anticipated Multiple Role Balance (AMRB)

According to Sirgy and Lee (2018), "multiple role balance" is the integration of a high level of engagement among roles and minimal conflicts between work related roles and other social roles in non-work life. Most of the research on multiple role balance has focused on work-life conflict and work-life enrichment (Kulik, et al., 2015; Sirgy and Lee, 2018) while minimal research has been found examining young people's expectations and possible determinants of balancing multiple roles.

Unlike for prior generations, there is no clear demarcation of labor in the family and work domains, and women no longer solely dedicate their lives to childcare and household works while men earn money for the family (Peake and Harris, 2002). Contemporary young men and women believe in the importance of engaging multiple roles without interrupting any singular role's responsibilities (Kerpelman and Schvaneveldt, 1999; Peake and Harris, 2002; Lopez, et al., 2014). In addition, both genders already understand some of the challenges that they will face to balance their work and non-work lives in the future (Weer, et al., 2006).

Furthermore, most research on multiple role balance has studied only a few life roles such as spouse, parent, and employee roles, while neglecting others such as friend,

elderly caregiver, volunteer, and social worker. Even though there was not much evidence on AMRB intention in past literature, Roche, et al. (2017) has identified positive relationship between self-efficacy and anticipated multiple role balance management as well as outcome expectations and AMRB management among US undergraduates.

Therefore, an examination of emerging adults' expectations and possible determinants of multiple role balance intention would expand the existing knowledge on how individuals develop a balanced future life (Friedman and Weissbrod, 2005). In the Sri Lankan context, there are no studies on emerging adults' multiple role balance intentions.

6.2.2 Multiple Role Balance Self-Efficacy (SE) and Outcome Expectations (OE)

Lent and Brown (2013) have defined SE as one's beliefs about their own personal capabilities to perform a particular behavior or action. Further, they have argued that the SE discussed in the career self-management model is "process efficacy" rather than "content specific self-efficacy" in SCCT model. However, Basuil and Casper (2012) have defined "work-life balance SE" as the perceived competence to balance work and family roles at the same time with minimum levels of role conflict. In the academic literature it proves that a high level of work-life balance SE results in higher enrolment in both work and non-work-related roles (Cinamon, 2006) and a lower level of work-family conflict (Erdwins, et al., 2001). In the case of emerging adults, strong work-life balance self-efficacy beliefs could help them to be more aware of combining work and non-work roles in the future and direct them to be more proactive to prevent potentially impending work-family conflicts (Basuil and Casper, 2012). In any case, many studies

(Cinamon, 2006; Mason, 2015; Roche, et al., 2017) have shown that having strong SE beliefs contribute significantly to a balanced work and family life.

Lent, et al. (2017) define outcome expectations as the anticipated positive or negative consequences (social, material, or self-evaluative) of involving adaptive behaviors (balancing multiple life roles in this chapter). According to social cognitive theory, people are more likely to engage in particular behavior when they believe that they have sufficient capability to perform that task and when it creates desired outcomes (Lent and Brown, 2013). Further, they have argued that when someone believes that a particular behavior only yields neutral or negative results, the chances increase that the individual will give up or put forth less effort to make it successful. More specifically, when emerging adults have faith in achieving more satisfied family life and successful career life in the future, they would try to achieve it while trying to minimize the undesirable outcomes in future such as having felt like a loser, low self-esteem, and guilty feelings. Therefore, it is very important to examine the role of both positive and negative outcome expectations of emerging adults on their future intention to balance multiple roles. Importantly, there is no evidence in the literature about the relationship of both positive and negative OE (as two different variables) with AMRB intention.

As hypothesized in the SCCT career self-management model, both self-efficacy and outcome expectations promote intentions (goals) and actual behavior (actions) directly. In addition, OE mediate the relationship between SE and intention. Roche, et al. (2017) have discussed how OE for managing multiple roles and SE for multiple role management are moderately and positively related. Furthermore, the relationship between OE and the intention to manage multiple roles was found to be smaller than the relationship between SE and intention.

6.2.3 Perceived Social Pressure (PSP)

As mentioned earlier, there is a large gap in the literature on the role of sources of self-efficacy and outcome expectations in vocational behavior research (Schaub and Tokar, 2005; Lent, et al., 2017). When considering the few studies published on the topic, most importantly, verbal persuasion has been identified as the strongest source for SE beliefs among those who have a moderate level of SE (Warner, et al., 2011) such as emerging adults who do not have fully developed attitudes (Hendry and Kloep, 2010). As mentioned in self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997), when people receive realistic encouragement for performing a task, they are more likely to do it properly. On the other hand, when people receive negative feedback and discouragement for a particular behavior, they may easily give up.

Similarly, in the theory of planned behavior (TPB) by Ajzen (1991), there are three conceptually independent determinants to a person's intention to perform a behavior: attitudes, subjective norms (perceived social pressure), and perceived behavioral control. Subjective norms refer to how individuals perceive the pressures of the beliefs of other people who are important to them (family, friends, colleagues, and others) that indicate whether they should perform or refrain from a behavior. Further, it explains that perceived social pressure can influence behavior even with no anticipated rewards or punishments.

Many researchers (Vincent, et al., 1998; Marks and Houston, 2002; Johnson, 2016) found out that perceived social pressure relates significantly to career intention and career behavior. Further, Paa and McWhirter (2000) mentioned that female high school students were more influenced by their mothers, friends, and teachers than male students

did. Therefore, it is needed to examine how perceived social pressure affect on emerging adults' intention to balance future multiple roles and how it affect differently on young males and females in Sri Lanka.

For the current model, the “perceived social pressure” (PSP) has been defined as individuals' perceptions of the encouragement or discouragement coming from family, friends, colleagues, and others regarding engaging in and balancing multiple roles in the future (by combining verbal persuasion and subjective norms).

According to the new report released by the world bank “Getting to Work: Unlocking Women's Potential in Sri Lanka's Labor Force” (Solotaroff, et al., 2017), one of the main reasons for keeping women from outside the workforce is social norms. Further, it elaborates that social norms negatively affect females' mobility outside the home, long-distance transportation while broadening the gender gap in labor market outcomes. Therefore, such evidence highlights the necessity of a clear understanding of the effect of PSP on emerging adults' multiple role intentions in order to find the correct solution.

6.2.4 Originality of the Model

This subsection presents the differences in model use in this chapter as compared to original model.

There are several unique features in this model compared to previous ones in the vocational behavior literature. First, this chapter, for the first time, investigates the role of PSP on future or AMRB intention in young males and females as the source of multiple balance SE and OE. Second, OE are examined in a more detailed manner as positive

outcome expectations (POE) and negative outcome expectations (NOE). Third, this model attempts to explore the possibility of having an additional direct effect from PSP to AMRB intention. It is the deviant feature in the hypothesized model as compared to the SCCT model. Yang, et al. (2009) have proven that there is a direct effect between social influence and intention to use innovative information technology. More relevantly, Fouad, et al. (2016a) have mentioned that there is a statistically significant relationship between family influence and career decision making.

Even though Chapter 5 concerned OE in more detail manner as POE and NOE it didn't examine the path between SE and POE as well as SE and NOE. Therefore, in this chapter, hypothesizes that the relationship between PSP and AMRB intention is mediated by SE, POE and NOE consistent with the SCCT model.

Finally, this chapter examines whether the role of PSP and the relationships among SE, POE, NOE, and AMRB intention are the same or not across male and female emerging adults in Sri Lanka.

6.3 Data Analysis

The data collection procedure, measurements and demographic analysis of the studied sample are explained in Appendix B.

Structural equation modelling (SEM) with maximum likelihood estimation was performed using AMOS Ver.24 to evaluate the validity of the measurement model and estimate the complete structural model. As the assumption of multivariate normality was not violated, this chapter used the maximum likelihood estimation (Bryant and Satorra, 2012; Işık, et al., 2018). The data analysis procedure followed mainly three stages. Pooled

confirmatory factor analysis (pCFA) was employed first to assess the unidimensionality, validity, and reliability of the measurement model.

Conventionally, unidimensionality is ensured when the measuring items have acceptable standardized factor loadings for each latent construct. As a rule of thumb, the standardized factor loadings should be 0.5 or higher and statistically significant for adequate unidimensionality (Dang, et al., 2014).

Three types of validity-convergent validity, construct validity and discriminant validity-were tested for each measurement model. Convergent validity is achieved when all items in the measurement model are statistically significant and average variance extracted (AVE) for each latent construct is 0.5 or higher (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair, et al., 2010). Construct validity can be achieved when the goodness-of fit indices (GOF) for the measurement model achieve the required levels (see Table 6.1). GOF indices are categorized into three types as absolute fit, incremental fit, and parsimonious fit. The rule of thumb is to use at least one index from each category of model fit for assessing construct validity (Hair, et al., 2010).

Table 6.1: Goodness-of-Fit Indices (GOF) and Level of Acceptance

Name of Category	Name of Index	Full Name of Index	Level of acceptance	Literature
Absolute fit	Chisq	Discrepancy chi square	>0.05	Wheaton, et al. (1977)
	RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	<0.05	Hu and Bentler (1999)
Incremental fit	CFI	Comparative Fit Index	>=0.9	Bentler (2010)
Parsimonious fit	Chisq/df	Chi square/degree of freedom	<3	Hair et al. (2010)

Finally, the discriminant validity can be achieved when the square root of the AVE for each latent construct is higher than the correlations between that particular construct and other respective constructs as well as when the measurement model is free from redundant items (correlation between exogenous constructs is less than 0.85).

The reliability for the measurement model is estimated through composite reliability (CR) and internal reliability (by Cronbach's alpha). CR at 0.6 or higher suggests good reliability (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Hair, et al., 2010). Consequently, Cronbach's alpha was performed to verify the internal consistency of the measurement items. According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.70 or above is considered reliable and acceptable. Cronbach's alpha values were calculated using the IBM SPSS Ver. 24, while CR, AVE and square root of AVE were calculated manually.

After the measurement model was validated and confirmed, the second step was to estimate the structural model representing the hypothesized relationships among exogenous and endogenous variables. The criteria used similar to the measurement model (see Table 6.1) in order to measure goodness-of-fit for the structural model. Next, standardized direct and indirect path coefficients were evaluated with bootstrap analysis using a 2000 bootstrap sample and 90% confident interval (CI) to determine the significance of the indirect effects (Bryant and Satorra, 2012).

Finally, multi-group SEM analysis was conducted to identify differences in the hypothesized relationships between variables among male and female emerging adults. Five models were created by using the validated structural model in order to meet the requirements of the multi-group SEM analysis. The first one was the unconstrained model where all parameters were to be estimated for both genders. The other four models were:

Model A PSP→SE path constrained for both groups; Model B PSP→AMRBI path controlled for both genders; Model C PSP→NOE constrained for both genders; and Model D PSP→POE path controlled for both groups were compared against the unconstrained model. If the chi-square difference between constrained models and the unconstrained model is significant, then the constrained path of the relevant model is statistically different across genders (Preacher, et al., 2007).

6.4 Results

6.4.1 Measurement Model Results

As shown in Table 6.2, all of the standardized factor loadings are higher than 0.5 (the majority of them exceed 0.6) and statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). Therefore, unidimensionality is achieved for the current measurement model.

The AVE values for some constructs (NOE, PSP, SE, and AMRB intention) are at a marginal level (see Table 6.2). However, all latent constructs, except NOE, surpass the cut-off level of 0.5 when AVE values are rounded up to the first decimal point. Despite this low AVE for NOE, all of the factor loadings are statistically significant, suggesting a satisfactory level of convergent validity. Additionally, the square root of the AVE values for most of the latent constructs (except AMRB intention and SE) are higher than the inter-factor correlations as shown in Table 6.3. The proposed measurement model is free from redundant items, and the correlations between all the exogenous variables are less than 0.85. Therefore, the discriminant validity is also established. Most importantly, the goodness-of-fit indices for this measurement model confirm an acceptable fit of the data ($\chi^2/df=2.427$, RMSEA=0.044 [90% CI=0.041-0.048], CFI=0.938).

Table 6.2: Construct Validity and Reliability of the Measurement Model

Items as in the questionnaire	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE
Perceived Social Pressure		0.807	0.811	0.462
<i>My parents think that I should hold multiple roles in future</i>	0.605*			
<i>People who are important to me always appreciate people who are handling multiple roles in their lives</i>	0.685*			
<i>People whose advices and opinions I admire always, prefer not to success in one life role but in several roles</i>	0.660*			
<i>People who are close to my family have positive thoughts about the results of handling multiple roles</i>	0.710*			
<i>My teachers, lectures who are very close to me want me to be success in my career as well as family life</i>	0.732*			
Self-Efficacy for multiple role balance		0.839	0.842	0.471
<i>Spend time with your family effectively after a long day at work</i>	0.653*			
<i>Initiate a conversation with the spouse when I am upset with him/her</i>	0.650*			
<i>Enjoy time at home with family, even though I have work to do</i>	0.719*			
<i>Find time to be with my parents and attend to their requirements</i>	0.705*			
<i>Devote time each week for personal relaxation or leisure activities.</i>	0.629*			
<i>Be nurturing and available to my children when they need me</i>	0.755*			
Positive Outcome expectations		0.796	0.799	0.502
<i>I would be successful at my job</i>	0.785*			
<i>I would able to gain recognition from others</i>	0.742*			
<i>I would make use of my abilities</i>	0.695*			
<i>I would feel proud of my efforts</i>	0.597*			
Negative Outcome expectations		0.740	0.741	0.418
<i>I may feel overloaded</i>	0.584*			
<i>I may have low self-esteem</i>	0.712*			
<i>I would have feelings of guilt one day since I missed many valuable moments</i>	0.639*			
<i>I would feel as I am a loser, since I might miss personal pleasure</i>	0.646*			
Anticipated multiple role balance intentions		0.900	0.900	0.475
<i>I intend to manage many life roles in future and do it well</i>	0.745*			
<i>I intend to come out with some flexible plans to managing multiple roles.</i>	0.773*			
<i>Talk to friends and family about strategies for how to balance multiple life roles.</i>	0.656*			
<i>When balancing multiple roles in life, I should consider several different strategies</i>	0.672*			
<i>I intend to discuss with spouse about combining career and family</i>	0.744*			
<i>It is important to listen to spouse' ideas about the best ways</i>	0.739*			
<i>I would develop a clear image of what I want to achieve in each life role</i>	0.645*			
<i>I will try to understand my own values around each role</i>	0.638*			
<i>I intend to set priorities in both work and non-work roles to minimize stress</i>	0.633*			
<i>I plan to select many options of managing multiple roles' responsibilities</i>	0.625*			

Note: * $p < 0.0005$. λ =Factor loadings, α =Cronbach alpha, CR=Composite Reliability, AVE= Average Variance Extracted

The CR values for the latent constructs in the measurement model range from 0.741-0.900 (see Table 6.2). This indicates that the current study's model meets the requirements for construct reliability. Internal reliability is also at a satisfactory level. As shown in Table 6.2, all of the estimated Cronbach' alpha values for the latent constructs are equal to or higher than 0.740.

Table 6.3: Discriminant Validity Index Summary

Items as in the questionnaire	PSP	AMRBI	NOE	POE	SE
Perceived social pressure (PSP)	0.680				
Anticipated multiple role balance intentions (AMRBI)	0.533**	0.689			
Negative outcome expectations (NOE)	0.001	-0.187**	0.647		
Positive outcome expectations (POE)	0.425**	0.687**	-0.150*	0.708	
Multiple role balance self-efficacy (SE)	0.513**	0.752**	-0.210**	0.585**	0.687

Note: * $p < 0.01$ level ** $p < 0.001$ level. The diagonal values are the square root of AVE of each respective construct, while other values are the correlation between the respective constructs.

In terms of inter-correlations among study variables, PSP shows significant moderate and positive relationships with AMRB intention, POE, and SE (see Table 6.3). Yet, the relationship between PSP and NOE is statistically insignificant ($r^2=0.001$). AMRBI shows significant positive correlations with POE and SE while negatively correlating with NOE ($r^2=0.187$). Furthermore, NOE negatively but significantly correlates with POE ($p < 0.01$) and SE ($p < 0.001$). Finally, the correlation between POE and SE is positive and moderate at the significant level of 0.001.

6.4.2 Structural Model Results

The proposed structural model produces a good fit with the data when compared with the threshold levels suggested in the SEM literature as explained under data analysis ($\chi^2=2.388$; $df=1$; $p=0.122$; $\chi^2/df=2.388$; $RMSEA=0.044$ [90% CI=0.000-0.086]; $CFI=0.999$). According to the SEM estimates (see Table 6.4), PSP has positive and significant direct effects on multiple role SE, POE, NOE ($p < 0.001$), and AMRB intention ($p < 0.05$). Similarly, the results indicate that multiple role SE has a positive significant impact on AMRB intention and POE, although the path from SE beliefs to NOE is negative ($p < 0.001$). Even though the path from POE to AMRB intention is positive and significant, impact of NOE to AMRB intention is statistically non-significant.

Table 6.4: Standardized Direct Effects and Indirect Effects of the Structural Model

Parameter	Path coefficient	Standard Error	Probability Level	90% Confidence Interval
Direct effects				
PSP → SE	0.592	0.030	0.001	
PSP → NOE	0.218	0.040	0.001	
PSP → POE	0.160	0.028	0.001	
PSP → AMRBI	0.124	0.027	0.002	
SE → NOE	-0.381	0.040	0.001	
SE → POE	0.581	0.029	0.001	
SE → AMRBI	0.498	0.033	0.001	
NOE → AMRBI	-0.027	0.024	0.161	
POE → AMRBI	0.364	0.034	0.001	
Indirect effects				
PSP → SE → NOE	-0.225			[-0.277, -0.178]
PSP → SE → POE	0.344			[0.298, 0.394]
PSP → SE → AMRBI	0.478			[0.435, .0523]
SE → POE → AMRBI	0.222			[0.182, 0.262]

Further, as shown in Table 6.4, all of the indirect paths are significant at the level of 0.001, indicating that significant partial mediations among all of the study variables except NOE since the direct effect of NOE on AMRB intention is statistically non-

significant. Therefore, a trimmed model created; the path from NOE to AMRB intention is constrained to zero. The trimmed model result in the same level of model fit to the data ($\chi^2=4.5$; $df=2$; $p=0.105$; $\chi^2/df=2.25$; RMSEA=0.044 [90% CI=0.000-0.119]; CFI=0.999), and the χ^2 difference between the trimmed model and the proposed model is not significant ($\Delta\chi^2=2.112$; $p=0.146$). Thus, the proposed model is retained since there is no difference between the two models.

6.4.3 Multiple Group SEM Analysis

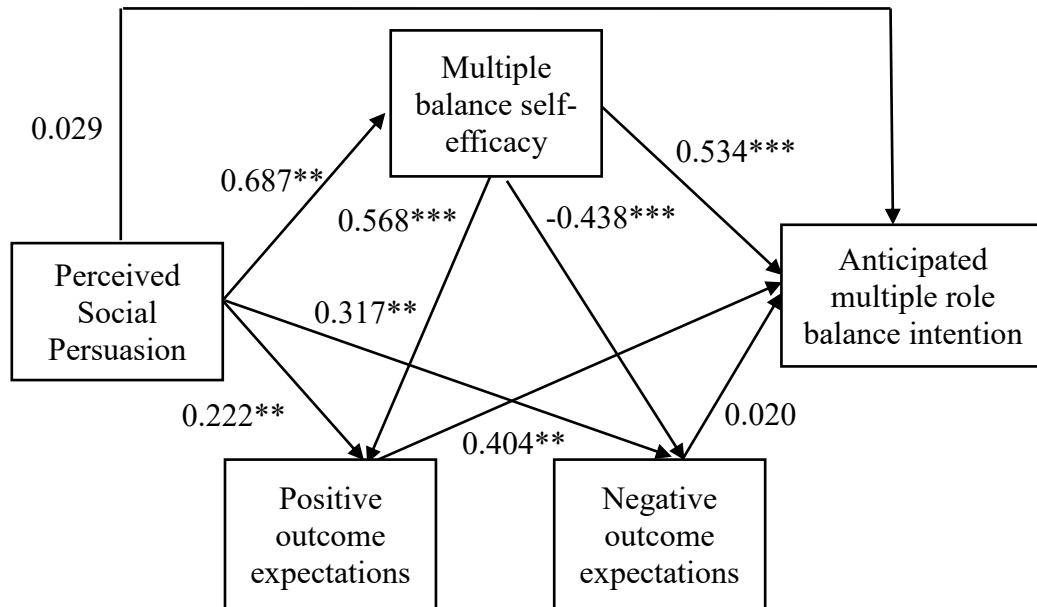
According to Table 6.5, the chi-square difference for Model A is statistically significant at 0.001, and the chi-square difference for Model B is also statistically significant at 0.05. Therefore, the paths from PSP to SE and from PSP to AMRB intention are statistically different across the male and female groups. These findings suggest that the PSP differently affects SE and AMRB intention in Sri Lankan young males and females. Further, the effect of PSP on multiple role balance SE is higher in emerging male adults ($\beta=0.687$) than females ($\beta=0.501$). Additionally, the direct effect of PSP on AMRB intention is non-significant in males, but in females it is statistically significant at the 0.001 level ($\beta=0.167$). Thus, the relationship between PSP and AMRB intention is fully mediated by SE and POE in males. In females, it is partially mediated by SE, POE, and NOE.

Table 6.5: Chi-Square Difference Results for Nested Models

Model	χ^2	df	P	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p
Unconstrained	3.315	2	0.191			
A	23.859	3	0.000	20.544	1	0.000
B	9.630	3	0.022	6.315	1	0.012
C	4.384	3	0.223	1.069	1	0.309
D	4.725	3	0.193	1.410	1	0.235

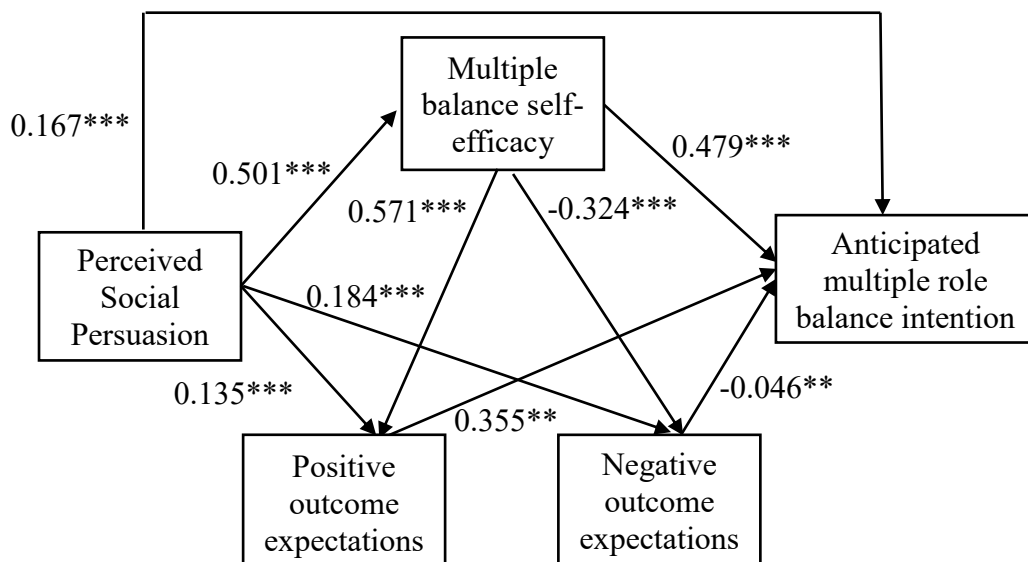
Note: χ^2 = chi-square, df= degrees of freedom, p= probability level, $\Delta\chi^2$ = chi-square difference

The difference in path coefficients between males and females is shown in Figures 6.2 and 6.3, respectively.



Note: ** $p < 0.05$ level *** $p < 0.001$ level

Figure 6.2: Model Tested for Males



Note: ** $p < 0.05$ level *** $p < 0.001$ level

Figure 6.3: Model Tested for Females

6.5 Discussion

The purpose of this chapter was to examine the role of perceived social pressure on anticipated multiple role balance intentions in emerging adults in Sri Lanka and examine how it varied by gender. Furthermore, this chapter observed the direct and indirect relationships among study variables. For the first time, this chapter used the social cognitive career theory's (SCCT) self-management model in the Sri Lankan context for analyzing the anticipated multiple role balance intention. Most importantly, the current chapter contributes to the existing CMS literature by filling in the gap in the literature on self-efficacy and outcome expectation by studying the role of PSP in emerging adults. Additionally, the current chapter included both positive and negative outcome expectations as the predictors of adaptive behavior, which is rarely found in CSM literature.

The results obtained in the SEM analysis indicated: a) perceived social pressure has a positive and significant relationship with anticipated multiple role balance intention both directly and indirectly through multiple balance SE and multiple balance POE; b) PSP differently affects multiple balance SE and AMRB intention across genders; c) the hypothesized relationships were all significant except NOE→AMRB intention for the full sample; and d) PSP and two cognitive variables predicted a significant amount of variance in emerging adults' AMRB intention.

The most important finding of this chapter is the influence of social pressure on emerging adults, especially in a society such as Sri Lanka. Traditional attitudes regarding gender roles persist alongside modern elements, such as feminism and social equality that are blooming among youth. As the results indicate, Sri Lankan emerging adults show a

sensitivity to pressure coming from the people who are important to them. According to Arnett (2000), emerging adulthood is a transitional development phase where individuals attempt to explore their personal and career aspirations and plan their future life. Even though emerging adults exhibit more independence than adolescents, Arnett (2004) argues that the influence of parents and other important people is still higher in their career and life decisions. This finding is more applicable to the South Asian region, especially Sri Lanka, where the value of collectivism and the bond between parent-child, siblings, and colleagues are comparatively high (Kaluliyana, 2017). Many studies (Brouwer, et al., 2009; Yean, et al., 2015; McCoy, et al., 2017) have shown that people normally behave in the way recommended by their close family and friends; however, this research is not in the field of work-family balance.

Furthermore, Lent, et al. (2017) have verified that learning experiences, including verbal, can act as predictors of the individuals' SE beliefs and OE. Based on the above theoretical findings, it is possible to have a positive effect in social pressure on emerging adults' multiple role SE and multiple role balance OE. More specifically, PSP also plays a direct influential role on emerging adults' multiple role balance intention for the total sample. This finding follows Ajzen's theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), which has identified perceived social pressure as a key determinant of behavioral intention.

Although the path from NOE to AMRB intention was not significant, all other paths were, which conformed with the expectations for the total sample. Consistent with the SCCT model, SE and POE mediate the relationship between PSP and AMRBI. The effect of anticipated negative outcomes does not affect emerging adults' intention to balance multiple life roles in the future. Empirical findings on the role of NOE are rare in

the literature, even though Lent and Brown (2013) included NOE in the SCCT self-management model. Subsequent to their earlier work, Lent, et al. (2017) declared that SE and POE are the main predictors of career related behavioral goals. However, keeping in line with the past studies (Kirby, 2014; Mason, 2015; Roche, et al., 2017; Kim, et al., 2018) specially in the work-life balance literature, this chapter also confirmed the relationship between social cognitive variables (SE and POE) and multiple role balance intention outside western culture, especially in the South Asian region of Sri Lanka. Therefore, this chapter offers valuable support for the validity of applying the social cognitive model of CSM in multiple role planning.

The most interesting finding of this chapter is the variation across gender in the hypothesized model. At the path level, PSP to SE and PSP to AMRBI are statistically different across the male and female groups. Results suggest that the positive effect of PSP on SE is stronger for males than females. This finding indicates that young males' perceived ability could be more easily affected by outside social pressure than young females. One explanation of this difference is that males may be more socialized than females and thus, highly susceptible to external pressure (McCoy, et al., 2017). Nonetheless, there is no direct relationship between PSP and their future multiple role balance intentions. Young males' multiple role balance intentions could become stronger if their perceived capability and anticipated positive outcome increase due to encouragement from the people close to them.

In contrast, there is a positive significant direct relationship between PSP and AMRBI in females, and it is also partially mediated by SE, POE and NOE (since the path NOE→AMRBI is significant in females). According to Evans, et al. (2013) and Roche, et al. (2017), men in US are largely socialized as more susceptible to societal

expectations-such as men being the financial provider in the family, rather than sharing other life roles-while females are socially encouraged to handle several life roles at once. Therefore, it is possible for social pressure to directly affect the intention to balance multiple roles in females but not in males, as the results suggest.

Similar to many South Asian countries, in Sri Lanka there is a cultural demand on women to handle many family responsibilities at once, including household duties, child care, care for the elderly, and hospitality for relatives, neighbors, especially due to extended family relations-a common characteristic of the South Asian region (Malhotra and Mather, 1997; Watt, et al., 2014). Therefore, the social pressure for handling many life roles simultaneously is higher for women in Sri Lanka, and concomitantly, it affects their future career and family role planning. At the same time, unlike young males, when young females anticipate negative outcomes of balancing multiple roles, it negatively affects their multiple role balance intention. This occurs because when men have negative outcome expectations regarding multiple role balancing, they may be able to ignore or avoid these feelings, since there are no social obligations to handle multiple roles (Kailasapathy and Metz, 2012). Yet, women are more unable to ignore negative expectations, because they are culturally molded to be multi-role handlers in the future (Wickramasinghe and Jayatilaka, 2006).

The results of the current chapter have some important implications for career and family counselors who deal with young men and women who are just starting out. The results revealed that strong intention in balanced work and non-work life is not only a matter of individuals' internal factors but also affected by external influence. So, when doing career/family counseling or therapy it is very important to look at both sides especially pressure coming from a young person's background. Therefore, it is beneficial

to make emerging adults' mind to take all the expectations, feedbacks and advice coming from outside (especially family, peers, relatives and teachers) positively. This can be done by career and family counselors.

At an individual level, the findings offer sound directions for career development. Career development cannot be achieved when there are conflicts between work and non-work roles. Individuals should be able to maintain a proper balance between incompatible role demands. For that, they should be able to boost their self-efficacy beliefs continuously and consider the positive consequences rather than negative outcome. The current findings very clearly demonstrate the way to do it.

Further, there is an immediate need of proper family-friendly social policy, investment in childcare support, policy implementations for childcare staffing and more especially paternity leave policy introduction.

Academically, the findings contribute to extend the career management literature by filling the gap exists in sources of self-efficacy and outcome expectations and validating the SCCT's self-management model in South Asian context. As the results suggest, the role of social pressure on individuals' cognitive feelings and career-family planning, as well as the difference across males and females, is very important to understand how people interacting with young adults (especially family, peers, relatives, and teachers) affect their career and life decisions. In addition, the findings could be helpful for raising awareness among policy makers to create family friendly and gender egalitarian policies in a country where there is a significant vacuum in the state welfare regime. More specifically, it is highlighting the necessity of empowering Sri Lankan females to be positive to social pressure/norms and achieving career success as well as healthy family and social life.

6.6 Summary

This chapter examines the role of perceived social pressure on anticipated multiple role balance in emerging adults in Sri Lanka and how it varies across gender. SEM with multi-group analysis was employed for investigating the relationships among constructs. The findings indicate that there is a positive and significant effect of perceived social pressure on anticipated multiple roles balance both directly and indirectly through multiple role balance self-efficacy and positive outcome expectations. Further, the results reveal that the effect of perceived social pressure on self-efficacy and anticipated multiple balance is statistically different across the gender. This chapter contributes to the existing literature by applying SCCT's self-management model in multiple role planning for the first time in Sri Lanka and voiding the gap of investigating sources of self-efficacy and outcome expectations.

Chapter 7 Conclusion and Implications

7.1 Introduction

With the increase in labor market participation of women and dual-earner couples, conflict and balance between family and work lives have become important issues for families and organizations. Especially, women have to bear the extra burden when they combine paid employment with usual household and care responsibilities. Therefore, work-family issues of the labor force and working mothers have become an attractive research realm over the world. Many researchers have reported that work-family imbalance could cause many adverse effects such as psychological problems and decision-making difficulties in individual level and low productivity, less organizational commitment and higher absenteeism in organizational level. However, it is rarely studied about the younger generation in the face of work-life balance who are yet to engage with a paid employment and their expectations in balancing work and non-work roles in future. More importantly, in a country like Sri Lanka, where traditional Eastern cultural elements are still very powerful, the younger generation has to face much more pressure from society. Nevertheless, youth is the most dynamic mediums of social change and the main capital of the country's furtherance. Therefore, it is important to have a clear image on their future expectations on balancing their family and social life with paid employment for a better future in Sri Lanka. This is the area in which this study seeks to make a contribution.

This chapter presents an evaluation of whether the study objectives have been appropriately achieved. Further, it summarizes the main findings and strengths of the study. Most importantly, it presents implications for policymakers, career-family counselors and corresponding authorities. Finally, it draws attention to future research directions.

7.2 Concluding Major Findings of the Study

The overall aim of the thesis is to obtain a better understanding of how young people in Sri Lanka plan to balance their family life, social life, and work life and to examine possible determinants of their future expectations. The study's statistical analysis revealed that perceived social pressure, self-efficacy, and positive expectations for the future affect the emerging adults' beliefs on how they would manage the time and energy they would spend on these three areas of life. The results also showed that young men and women had statistically different views on how their self-efficacy and anticipated multiple role balance would be affected by perceived social pressure.

In order to achieve the overall aim, five specific objectives were investigated.

At first, this section concludes the findings of the preliminary study (Chapter 4) and thereafter it assesses the extent to which thesis' objectives have been achieved by summarizing the findings.

7.2.1 Preliminary Study on Employee Readiness to Change

Chapter 4 presented the initial study conducted by the author at an export-oriented manufacturing company. It examined the relationships between organizational

commitment, trust in peers & management and employee change readiness. The findings revealed that employees' organizational commitment and trust in peers & management are more influential on their readiness to change. As proven by many scholars (Amjad, et al., 2014; Azeem and Akhtar, 2014) organizational commitment and trust in management directly depend on the work-life balance of employees. Vice versa, an employee who is satisfied with his/her job is definitely loyal to the job, and obviously, has been able to balance the demands of work and life/family (Rousseau, 1995). Therefore, Chapter 4 recommends that organizations should include work-life balance as part of Human Resource practices in order to have satisfied and committed employees and for reducing turnover rates. Relatedly, this chapter identified that Sri Lankan organizations have not introduced favorable policies or efficient welfare practices which support employees' work-life balance yet. These findings of the preliminary study directed the author to investigate "work-life balance" in relevant to Sri Lanka.

7.2.2 The Gap in "Work-Family Balance" Research Realm

"Work-life balance" has become an interesting research area among vocational and behavioral researchers. Hence, a considerable amount of work-life balance studies exists globally which have been conducted in a diverse, cross-disciplinary realm. In Sri Lanka, work-family research has been mainly limited on female labor force participation, conflicts between work and family domains, effects of work-family balance/imbalance, problems related to motherhood, and career advancement of professional female workers. As per the review conducted in Chapter 2, it is obvious that local work-family researches are exclusively focused on the females in Sri Lanka. Thus, these few kinds of research shed

light on very important and sensitive issues in Sri Lanka such as gender discriminative organizational practices, cultural and legislative constraints, familial and societal interactions, and the social norms in Sri Lankan society. Most importantly local studies have rarely concerned how Sri Lankan males deal with the ever-competitive multiple role demands. The younger generation and their expectations for balancing work and non-work roles have been also totally neglected. Thus, Chapter 2 has identified this as a huge vacuum in the local work-life balance research area and as an immediate research need.

Additionally, most of the local studies have been considered only two or three roles (worker, spouse, parent) and have been ignored other essential roles (daughter/son, family member, neighbor, and member of the society), which Sri Lankan people generally engage due to Eastern, closed family relation behavior. This point also identified as a gap in available work-family research in Sri Lanka.

7.2.3 Institutional and Non-Institutional Opportunities and Constraints for Work-Family Balance

Many developed countries believe that state legislation with regards to gender equity at work (antidiscriminative policy, parental leave, and childcare facilities) influence their citizens' power to negotiate family and social responsibilities with career responsibilities. Meanwhile, some researchers argue that organizational family-friendly policies and welfare facilities encourage females to combine employment with household and caring responsibilities. Besides, some Sri Lankan researchers have pointed out that there are many constraints such as individual, cultural, household and social factors which keep women away from the paid employment.

Chapter 3 identified that "The Constitution of Sri Lanka" guarantees that all

persons are equal before the law and are entitled to the equal protection of the law and no citizen shall be discriminated against on the grounds of race, religion, language, caste, sex, political opinion, place of birth or any such grounds. However, the Constitution has neglected the non-discrimination on other important parties such as marital status, maternity, parental status, age etc. It shows that the island's supreme law doesn't fully support for balancing work and non-work roles even though it already promises the equity for every citizen.

Further, it found few government policies and welfare regimes in Sri Lanka which relate to work-life balance, aiming maternity benefits and childcare, working hours of employees, resting intervals and holiday entitlement. State legal framework guarantees proper maternity leave period, job assurance until the female worker reports to the job and financial support, health and safety of mother and child, nursing intervals and short paternity leave. Additionally, the government has introduced a sound provision for not have been involved in long working hours at workplaces.

Even these legal provisions are somewhat advanced compared to other South Asian developing countries, there are many shortcomings according to the review. Lack of uniformity in laws across all employment sectors, provisioning of long maternity leave, totally neglected care responsibility of young kids (1-15 years old), no policy support for childcare, eldercare facilities, and paternal leave, no part-time work, flexible working hours or home-based working arrangements could be highlighted as constraints for working people's work-life balance. Further, inequality in employees working hours, resting hours and holidays among all the employment sectors could identify as another shortcoming of the state legislation.

Organizational level legal practices and facilities in relevant to work-family

balance is not advanced in Sri Lanka compared to many developed countries. Supportive supervisory system, flextime, work compressed hours, reduced hours, home-working, job share schemes, specialized leave policies, and dependent care benefits, facilities of corporate gyms, leisure events, and some psychological supports are provided by few organizations. Unfortunately, these benefits block by some psychological and operational bottlenecks.

Sri Lanka's traditional gender role ideologies, social norms, backward attitudes, and culturally sanctioned eldercare responsibilities appear as barriers for getting an advantage over the projected benefits of state and organizational level legislation. Support receive from extended family members for household chores and caring duties and the combination of Eastern and Western values in urban dual-earner couples can recognize as opportunities for combining paid employment with family and social responsibilities.

7.2.4 The Role of Gender/Majoring Academic Field on Multiple Role Balance Expectations

It is imperative that individuals balance their multiple roles in work, family and social settings to lead a successful career while playing a responsible role within their family and society. Within the realm of "work-life balance" research, little attention has been given to emerging adults' intention to balance multiple roles once joining the work-force, as found in Chapter 2.

Therefore, Chapter 5 investigated that relationships among self-efficacy, outcome expectations for balancing multiple roles and anticipated multiple role balance intentions of university undergraduates in Sri Lanka. It further examined the role of gender and students' majoring academic field (Science and Management) on the above

relationships.

As the results revealed, self-efficacy and positive outcome expectations predicted the anticipated multiple role balance intentions positively and significantly. Negative outcome expectation was not found as a significant predictor of emerging adults' future work-balance expectations.

Chapter 5 further explored that young females' self-efficacy feelings to balance multiple roles in the future is higher than male students. Moreover, it revealed that female students' beliefs on positive outcomes of work and non-work role balance are higher than young males and in contrast, young males hold stronger beliefs on negative outcomes of work and non-work role balance than females do. Additionally, the results found that female students have a stronger intention for balancing multiple roles in future than male students.

It also revealed that students in management faculty have strong beliefs on the positive consequences of balancing work and non-work roles compared to science faculty students.

Lastly, it found that there were not any moderating effects of gender and students' majoring field on the relationships among self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations and multiple role balance intentions as per the moderated regression analysis.

7.2.5 The Role of Social Pressure on Multiple Role Balance Expectations and the Gender Difference in Perceiving Social Pressure

As found by the review in Chapter 3, the island's traditional cultural setting and close familial relationship can have a huge effect on Sri Lankans' thinking pattern and

behavior. Therefore, Chapter 6 studied the role of perceived social pressure on anticipated multiple role balance in emerging adults in Sri Lanka and how it varies across gender.

The results of structural equation model analysis revealed that, perceived social pressure has positive and significant relationships with anticipated multiple role balance intention both directly and indirectly through multiple balance self-efficacy and positive outcome beliefs. This finding verifies that people normally behave as the recommended way by their close ones, especially where the collectivism and a closed bond between family members exist. Since there is a direct influential role of social pressure on emerging adults' multiple role balance intention for the total sample, it proves that perceived social pressure act as a key determinant of behavioral intention of Sri Lankan young people. Other than above finding, the SEM analysis indicated the effect of anticipating negative outcomes doesn't affect emerging adults' intention to balance multiple life roles.

Further, Sri Lankan young males' perceived ability would easily affect the pressure come from outside than young females. Young males' expectation to balance work and non-work roles in future, would become stronger only if their perceived capability and anticipated positive outcome raise due to encouragement coming from outside people. Moreover, the social pressure for handling many life roles simultaneously is higher for women in Sri Lanka and meanwhile, this pressure effects their future career and family role planning. Since Sri Lankan females are culturally molded to be the multi-roles handlers, young females' feelings on negative outcomes of the multiple role balance, negatively affect their behavioral intention.

7.3 Implications

Providing possible implications for policymakers, career-family counselors and relevant authorities in Sri Lanka to facilitate a better environment for handling multiple works and non-work roles with minimum role conflict is one of the specific objectives of this thesis.

7.3.1 Implications for Policymakers

The empirical results of the study highlighted the impact of social pressure on emerging adults' future expectations to combine work and non-work roles. According to the findings, there are culturally sanctioned responsibility of household works and care burden of young children and elderly people on Sri Lankan females. The policy implications of these findings are,

- i) initiating more family-friendly policies that encourage a more equitable sharing of the burden of care and household chores between males and females,
- ii) introducing policies that enable more flexible work arrangements, such as part-time work, flextime, home-based working, and work that can be done online,
- iii) creating amendments for night work and better-paying arrangements,
- iv) developing telecommunication and other infrastructure facilities (technological advancement) for long distance working/home-based working,
- v) providing a safe, efficient, and convenient public transport system for women to travel to and from work at any time of the day within minimum time, and
- vi) creating proper legal protection against sexual harassment and gender-based discrimination at workplaces. Further, efficient police service and justice service

should provide for employees.

In order to face the pressure coming from outside, the only weapon that youth could have is empowerment in education especially IT and English for securing employment in the emerging global employment market. These skills are lacking in most Sri Lankan young people especially in rural youth from outside Western Province. Therefore, creating a policy and legislative environment that supports followings are needed.

- i) to expand the opportunities for rural youth to access science, English and, IT skills.
In here, it is important to increase the opportunities as well as making financial assistance available for the target group.
- ii) to improve and modernize the technical and vocational education for gaining professional skills and training for both male and female young people.
- iii) to introduce scholarships or loan programs for capable students from low-income backgrounds.

Other than above, the legislation should be equal to everyone in every employment sector as mentioned in the Constitution of Sri Lanka. As an example, public sector female workers are entitled to longer maternity leave period and nursing intervals than other sector employees. However, everyone has to face the same kind of demanding situation after having children while doing a job. It is not depending on the working sector. Therefore, the government legal protection should be equal to everyone.

Since there is no policy support for fathers or mothers in connection with childbirth, childcare or child sickness except maternity leaves. Paternity leave might thus be a good policy direction for promoting gender equality in the workplace and a family-friendly environment at home. The paid paternity leave has been identified as a necessity

after the childbirth, then fathers could engage in more caring work that would also enhance the early father-child relationship.

Further, if the government can introduce parental leave arrangement which allows parents to share between mothers and fathers, it would be good opportunity to prevent the harmful effect on mothers' career by long maternity leave, to promote gender equality at the work as well as home and encourage the father-children relationship. Therefore, the government can introduce short maternity leave just for enabling all mothers to recover after childbirth and subsequent parental leave for both mothers and fathers which they can apply from their employment in share basis. Children also get the possibility to stay with their parents during their formative years.

The investment in childcare support is necessary thus the policy implementation should be administered by the state as the state is the better key player for addressing key social issues in Sri Lanka. A sound legal framework for staffing these child care centers and pre-schools to provide high-quality service is also needed. The aim of the childcare policy shouldn't be just to provide care for children while parents are at work but to provide quality educational, social and emotional support for children, by taking childcare as a shared responsibility among the government, parents, and employers. Some schools in urban cities such as Colombo, Kandy, and Galle, provide after-school boarding facilities for students until their parents pick them up an afternoon at the school. Not only care, extra classroom education and extracurricular activities are also provided under familiar environment by trained staff.

Nevertheless, the most important resource in an organization is human resource, it is important to provide favorable conditions for employees to gain high loyalty, commitment and, productivity. Thus, organizational family-friendly practices and

policies should have a better fit between organizational goals as well as individual values and their true needs. However, policymakers should have a proper social dialogue about organizational cultures and public support for traditional gender beliefs vs work-family balance. Not only providing flextime, job sharing, temporary/permanent part-time working schedules, distance working, and maternity/paternity leave systems but also introducing flexible emergency leave system, employee and family health benefits, family-oriented events, financial supports for employee education, and scholarship support for employees' children are needful for family-friendly working environment. Further, private sector organizations also should consider investments in childcare facilities so that women continue to remain in their careers (e.g., on-site daycare at workplaces).

As mentioned by Wickramasinghe and Jayatilaka (2006) private sector organizations can follow the guidelines and manuals formulated by Employers' Federation of Ceylon (EFC) and the International Labor Organization (ILO) for improving the gender justice and the well-being of both men and women at work.

7.3.2 Implications for Career Counselors

The thesis has some important implications for career and family counselors who deal with young men and women who are about to start a career and family life.

The results revealed that strong intention in balanced work and non-work life is not only a matter of individuals' internal factors but also affected by external influence. So, when doing career/family counseling or therapy it is very important to look at several sides especially influence of social, environmental and personal backgrounds of an

individual's life.

It is beneficial to make emerging adults' mind in advanced to take all the expectations, feedbacks and advice coming from outside (especially family, peers, relatives, and teachers) positively. For that, counselors can initiate career discussions with focusing on learning experiences, contextual influences, and social persuasion within the family through more comprehensive career counseling approach.

Especially for young females, the most effective way of increasing social acceptance and encouragement of combining a career with household and care duties is to equip them with strong self-efficacy beliefs (feeling about their own capabilities) and positive belief about outcomes. For that purpose, the following implications could be useful.

- i) raising awareness about the benefits of having a balanced life and career identification & development among young girls, parents, and teachers through community campaigns, outreach programs.
- ii) mentoring and concealing for girls in STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics) areas as well as in business can reduce gender dominance in education and occupational choice, so that women increasingly pursue traditional "male" careers such as engineering, ICT, and business
- iii) introducing young women to successful adult role models in desired careers who can provide examples of balancing work with marriage and raising children.
- iv) providing career counseling and placement function of high schools and universities, with trained counselors which very rarely found in Sri Lanka.

Career counselors can encourage young females to start their own businesses with family labor which is a good solution for work-family conflict since female

entrepreneurs can spend more quality time with the family as the absence of fixed working schedules.

7.3.3 Implications for Other Authorities

Since this thesis shed lights on the strong effect of the island's traditional cultural norms and social pressure, it is important to think about a way of mitigating such constraints. As Fernando and Cohen (2013) mentioned, it is important to recognize that this cannot happen overnight, even cultural change is imperative for work-life balance. Leadership by example is essential for this process. Both male and female senior managers need to role model how to work flexibly and combine work and familial responsibilities. Line managers should be trained to provide emotional, instrumental and practical support for employees who utilize work-life initiatives. Line managers are employees' first point of contact when it comes to unconventional ways of working and they play a significant role in enabling people to utilize work-life initiatives.

Further, encouraging supervisors to be supportive of their employees by being open to suggestions that minimize work-family conflict also an important implication especially where family-friendly policies and practices are not officially offered. It is important to encourage employees to initiate negotiations with their supervisors when they feel it is possible to obtain favorable outcomes such as family-friendly practices, flexible work practices and control over work hours.

Nevertheless, gender certification and ethical banding for both governmental and private sector organizations should introduce in order to monitor poor workplace facilities and conditions.

Social acceptance of paid child care, elder care and being multirole handler could be improving through media campaigns. As mentioned by Gunewardena (2015) attitude changes could be also done through creative and inspiring projects such as television programs. Sri Lankan is a good example for proving that popular entrainment could have on socio-cultural norms.

Finally, the work-life balance should not be positioned as a gendered imperative for only women. Rather male workers should be actively encouraged to participate in the work-life balance agenda and be publicly endorsed and rewarded for combining paid work with parental responsibilities. By challenging gendered stereotypes in the workplace through their work-life balance agenda, organizations can initiate the way for a wider socio-cultural change. If couples practice a more equitable division of domestic labor, work-life balance may not be such a problem for women workers.

7.4 Future Research Directions

The findings of this thesis extend prior multiple role balance research and yield empirical support for the relationship of social pressure as the source of self-efficacy and outcome expectations as well as anticipated multiple role balance expectations. Further, it presents several implications for future research which can expand the knowledge in multiple role balance preferences.

Replication of significant relationships found in the current thesis in future research would clarify and extend the generalizability of these findings and provide further support for the relationships among constructs within the model. Relatedly, further analyses focus on strengthening the outcome expectations and self-efficacy measures

used in the present thesis are needed in future research on multiple role management and SCCT in general. Besides, the use of data from a more diverse and representative sample (e.g., data from students from several other national and private universities located all over the island and diverse academic disciplines) would expand the generalizability of results. Furthermore, it's beneficial to research on other Asian countries, specially developed Asian countries like Japan which shares some cultural similarities such as male dominance and conventional gender ideologies.

Future research should cover the effect of participants socio-economic factors and personal factors as the sources of the learning experience in SCCT' model as well. Especially assessing perspectives of participants specifically representing low socioeconomic status and potentially first-generation university students would provide further data to understand the impact of social pressure on their future behavioral expectations. As verified by other researchers (Mason, 2015; Lent, et al., 2016; Roche, et al., 2017) more research is needed to extend the CSM model to other types of adaptive behavior and to explore its range of applicability across gender, race/ethnicity, socioeconomic conditions, sexual orientation, age, and disability/health status.

As explained in previous chapters many studies in work-life balance relearn are mainly focused on femininity specific factors, work-family conflict, and challenges associated with managing work and family. It is obvious that the challenges that working people face and the aspirations they have largely depend on their career stage. Therefore, it is important to conduct future studies incorporating early career/mid-career males and females to identify the difference among their future planning and its' determinants. Relatedly, the current study identified that islands' state legislation for maternity benefits, paternal benefits, working hours, and holiday entitlements are non-equal across all

employee segments. Thus, investigating the effect of social pressure among different employment levels would give a better knowledge of constraints that they are facing and would help to initiate customized legal solutions. Rather than investigating in general, closely assessing individuals with which participants identify outside their family constellation, such as peers, individuals representing heroes for participants, and teachers, may assist researchers in further understanding social pressure may occur beyond a familial influence.

Lastly, a longitudinal research design with the qualitative approach or a mixed approach would ensure more visible moderation effects and investigation of how young adults' intentions change with time. The repeated observational study could be useful in discovering more sensitive information regarding participants' intention of combining a career with other life roles. Additionally, qualitative items could provide very important and thorough understandings of the study. Further, qualitative interviews might give more detail information regarding participants' desires, plans and expectations for balancing work and non-work roles as well as their experiences on social influence.

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Appendix A Theoretical Framework

This appendix attempts to give a brief explanation of the theoretical background of this study. The current thesis focuses on examining how emerging adults in Sri Lanka plan to manage their multiple roles in the future and the role of social pressure on their intentions. For the above purpose, social cognitive career theory's (SCCT) self-management model (Lent and Brown, 2013) was used as the guiding theoretical framework based on the emphasis on the determinants of the behavioral intention (goal).

In general terms, SCCT attempts to describe how people make educational and career decisions and relates those factors to the outcomes of these decisions. SCCT incorporates self-efficacy expectations and outcome expectations as primary constructs expected to influence career goals, actions, and performance. Later, Career Self-Management model was designed by focusing on how people try to guide their career progress. The conceptual model for the present thesis has developed based on the SCCT's self-management model to fill the gap on sources of the self-efficacy expectations (SE) and outcome expectations (OE) in the vocational literature by applying social pressure as a learning experience. The proposed model has been used in this thesis and the relevant analysis and results are mentioned in Chapters 5 and 6.

A.1 Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT)

Based on Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura,1986), SCCT (Lent, et

al., 1994) is a relatively new theory that is aimed at explaining three interconnected aspects of career development: (1) how basic academic and career interests develop, (2) how educational and career choices are made, and (3) how academic and career success is obtained. This theory explains the impact and influence of the interplay between personal and cognitive aspects of an individual, and the environmental and social factors to which the person is exposed. All three aspects focus on the relationships among self-efficacy (one's personal belief of own capabilities to be successful in a particular domain), outcome expectations (one's expectation of what will happen as a consequence of the behavior in a particular domain) and related goals. These three linked variables served as the building blocks of SCCT.

In here, self-efficacy beliefs are relatively different from self-esteem or self-confidence as it is changeable and specific to particular behavior or domain (Lent, et al.,2002). As an example, one person might have very strong beliefs about his capabilities in engineering fields, but in the social field he might feel less confident about being a success. Therefore, SCCT assumes that people perform better at activities at which they have strong self-efficacy beliefs if they also have the necessary skills and environmental supports to pursue these activities.

The other cognitive variable, outcome expectations are all about the individuals' beliefs about the consequences of the behaviors that they are going to perform. These outcomes could be tangible or non-tangible as well as positive or negative. It is natural for people to engage in activities that they think which would create positive outcomes. As mentioned in SCCT individuals' engagement in behaviors, the effort they put into them, and their ultimate success are partly determined by both their self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations (Lent, et al.,2002).

Self-efficacy and outcome expectations are influenced by four sources of information or learning experiences: personal experiences, exposure to role models, messages of social/verbal persuasion, and physiological states (e.g., stress) while performing a particular behavior (Lent, et al., 1994), but in a different level. Personal inputs (interpersonal variables) and contextual factors (background or environmental influences) are the possible determinants of learning experiences. Person inputs may also regulate background contextual affordances or environmental contributions.

Both self-efficacy and outcome expectations influence career goal. According to Lent, et al. (2002) goals in SCCT is defined as individual intentions to engage in a particular behavior or to attain a certain level of performance (e.g., achieving a proper balance among work and non-work roles in the present study). People normally set goals that are reliable with their views of personal capabilities and of the consequences they expect to obtain from performing a particular behavior. Success or failure in reaching personal goals, in turn, becomes important information that helps to alter or confirm self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations. These experiences encounter as learning experiences in the model through a feedback loop fashion.

A.2 Social Cognitive Model of Career Self-Management

The social cognitive model of career self-management (CSM) is an expansion of SCCT model, which mainly focuses on the content aspect of career development or the types of fields that people wish to practice (Lent and Brown, 2013). The later CSM model was developed by addressing the processes of career-based behavior to explain how people direct their own educational and career development e.g., job searching, multiple

role planning, identity management, making career choices (Ireland and Lent, 2018). Personal inputs, contextual supports, and barriers influence the learning experiences that are the experiential sources of self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Lent and Brown (2013) have defined SE as one's beliefs about their own personal capabilities to perform a particular behavior or action. Further, they have argued that the SE discussed in the career self-management model is "process efficacy" rather than "content specific self-efficacy" in SCCT model.

Lent, et al. (2017) define outcome expectations as the anticipated positive or negative consequences (social, material, or self-evaluative) of involving adaptive behaviors (balancing multiple life roles in this study). According to social cognitive theory, people are more likely to engage in particular behavior when they believe that they have sufficient capability to perform that task and when it creates desired outcomes (Lent and Brown, 2013). Further, they have argued that when someone believes that a particular behavior only yields neutral or negative results, the chances increase that the individual will give up or put forth less effort to make it successful.

As hypothesized in the SCCT career self-management model, both self-efficacy and outcome expectations promote intentions (goals) and actual behavior (actions) directly.

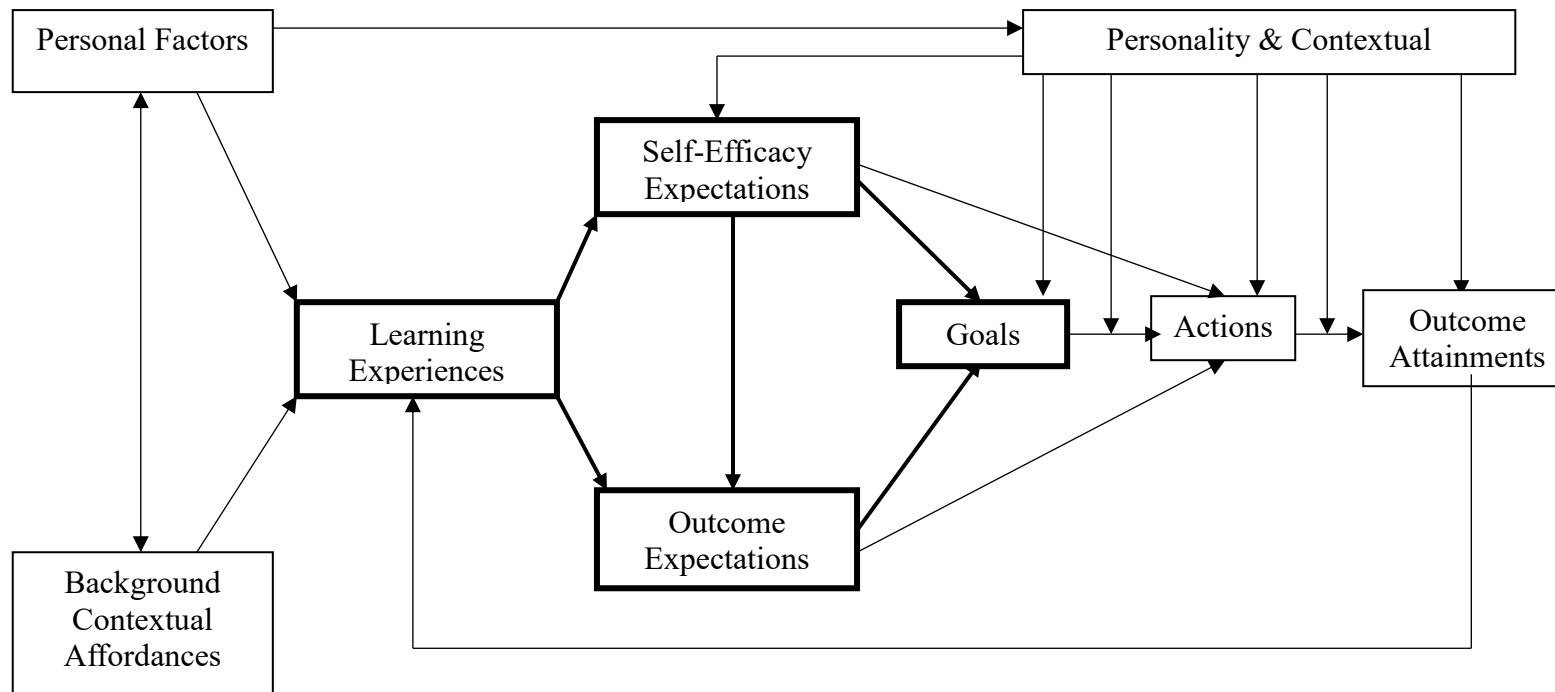
According to Lent, et al. (2017), the learning experiences may be represented by the same key variables in self-efficacy theory (Bandura,1997); personal mastery experiences, verbal persuasion, vicarious learning, and physiological and affective states or reactions. Even though the above four variables have been considered as main sources of self-efficacy in Bandura's theory, according to SCCT those learning experience variables predict both self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations (directly and via

self-efficacy).

There is a vacuum in the past literature on the expressive role of the learning experiences in the CSM model (Lent, et al., 2017; Roche, et al., 2017), especially regarding multiple role planning behavior.

Roche, et al. (2017) have tested the SCCT self-management model in anticipated multiple role management and examined the role of gender and conscientiousness as a personal input in the CSM model. Subsequently, the CSM model has been applied for studying the role of career traditionality and the conformity of masculine norms as contextual variables by Kim, et al. (2018). The current study attempts to apply the SCCT self-management model for Sri Lankan emerging adults to examine how social pressure (as a learning experience) relates to self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations, and the intention to balance multiple roles.

Finally, Figure A.1 illustrates the original model and the proposed relationships among variables within the model.



Note: Adapted from Lent, et al. (1994). Diagonal lines indicate the part of the model to be tested in the thesis.

Figure A.1: Model of Career Self-Management

Appendix B The Survey and Demographic Analysis

This appendix describes the research setting, participants, questionnaire development, measurements, and the data collection procedure of the primary data done in Sri Lanka during early 2017. The collected data were used for empirical analysis in Chapters 5 and 6 to understand the future work and non-work roles balance preferences and its' determinants among university undergraduates in Sri Lanka. Further, it includes the demographic analysis of the sample. The sample of questionnaire present at the end of the appendix.

B.1 Participants and Procedure of the Survey

The author conducted a survey at the University of Sri Jayewardenepura, which is located in Sri Lanka's capital city. The university was purposefully selected for the study; it is viewed as one of the major state institutions due to its track record in producing a significant portion of the skilled workforce in Sri Lanka. With a student population over 12,000, it is multidisciplinary-a point that also recommended it to this study.

Since the current thesis aims to understand the future work and non-work role balance preferences of youth prior to occupying such roles, the target population identified as unmarried undergraduates aged between 18-25 years for the cross-sectional survey. The population is extremely culturally diverse. Nine hundred students were randomly selected from three major faculties of the university: Management, Applied

Sciences, and Arts. The author choosed these three to distribute the questionnaires to since they enroll most of the students out of the seven total faculties in the university.

The permission was granted by the Vice-Chancellor in the University of Sri Jayewardenepura and respective deans of above-mentioned faculties. (The permission requested letter from Saga University, Japan and the permission granted by officers in the Sri Lankan University, are with the Author).

The self-administered, cross-sectional survey was conducted March 12th-23rd, 2017. The original questionnaire was prepared in English and later translated into Sinhalese; the native language in Sri Lanka (see the sample of the questionnaire at the end of this appendix). The final questionnaire was presented in both languages since the participants were multi-linguistic and multi-ethnic. Participants were presented with the material in the following order, demographic questionnaire, future expectations on marriage parenting and work, perceived social pressure measures, multiple role balance self-efficacy measures, the multiple roles outcome expectations measures (both negative and positive), and multiple role balance intention measures. The order of measures was intended to prevent the development of a priming effect for participants by completing self-efficacy measures at first.

Participants completed the anonymous questionnaires individually during their lecture breaks voluntary. Before the questionnaire distribution, the purpose of the study and the intended meaning of the multiple role balance were explained to the participants. It took individuals approximately 15-20 minutes to complete the survey.

After removing incomplete questionnaires, the final analysis included 725 participants. Therefore, the overall response rate was 80.5%. For the remaining data, mode imputation was employed since the missing data percentage was < 5% (1.8% in

this survey).

B.2 Measurements

B.2.1 Demographic Characteristics

Participants responded to demographic questions about gender (female/male), current academic year (1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th), age, faculty, receiving a scholarship (yes/no), employment status (unemployed/part-time/permanent/self-employed).

Besides the above information, participants were asked about their plan to marry or form a long-term partnership with another person in the future (yes/no/sometimes), their anticipated age of marriage (open-ended), plans for parenthood (yes/no/sometimes), planned age of becoming a parent for the first-time (open-ended), and expected number of children (open-ended).

B.2.2 Multiple Role Balance Self-Efficacy

Nineteen items were developed to measure multiple role balance self-efficacy based on the scales constructed by Fouad, et al. (2016b) and Kirby (2014) with slight modifications. Modifications were done to increase the applicability of items to the Sri Lankan context and unisex emerging adults. Because Fouad, et al. (2016b) constructed their scale for the US-based women engineers and Kirby (2014) used his scale for US women undergraduates. In this survey, respondents were asked to indicate their confidence level for each task (items on the scale) on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not confident) to 5 (very confident).

B.2.3 Multiple Role Balance Outcome Expectations

A sixteen-item scale was written to measure both positive and negative multiple role OE based on past literature (Fouad and Guillen, 2006a; Lent and Brown, 2006; Kirby, 2014) with some modifications applied to fit the studying context and to target population. Therefore, the modified items for this study assessed outcomes which reflected the self-evaluation of anticipated rewards and penalties from balancing future multiple roles. Respondents were asked to indicate how likely they thought that given outcomes (items on the scale) would occur for managing multiple roles in the future. The likelihood was measured with a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not likely) to 5 (very likely)¹.

B.2.4 Anticipated Multiple Role Balance Intentions

Twenty items were created based on the multiple role planning scale (Weitzman and Fitzgerald, 1996) to meet the needs of the present study. They have developed their scale to assess attitudes towards multiple role planning among the sample of US female high school students and female undergraduates. Since the current study aims to measure future plans to balance multiple roles among male and female Sri Lankan undergraduates the previous scale items had to modify according to the context and purpose of the current study. Respondents were asked to consider the level of intention to perform different adaptive behaviors. Items were answered on the five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never do this) to 5 (strongly anticipate doing this).

¹ Additionally, the factor analysis suggested two underlying factors for outcome expectations as POE (four items) and NOE (four items). Therefore, two separate scales were created since the inter-correlation between POE and NOE was low ($r = -0.150$).

B.2.5 Perceived Social Pressure

To measure perceived social influence/pressure, a ten-items scale was developed based on the items used in past literature for measuring verbal persuasion (Anderson and Betz, 2001; Lent, et al., 2017) and subjective norms (Al-Swidi, et al., 2014). The questionnaire items were carefully written according to the Sri Lankan culture. Participants were asked to indicate the extent of their agreement or disagreement with the statements on the five-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

All the study variables were created by modifying available literature since measures available were not fitted to the studying condition especially for the Sri Lankan context and cultural setting.

B.3 Demographic Analysis

B.3.1 Sample Characteristics

The mean age of the participants was 22.3 years (ranging from 18 to 26, SD=1.35), and the majority was female (68.3%). Participants spanned all four undergraduate years roughly in similar amounts. The majority of them were receiving a scholarship (financial support). In Sri Lanka public primary, secondary and tertiary education (undergraduate education in state universities) are free for all citizens.

Apart this benefit, three types of financial assistance are available for undergraduates in Sri Lanka; *Mahapola* scholarship, Bursary, and Endowed scholarships. *Mahapola* scholarship is given to selected state university undergraduates as one of the main available higher education scholarships. These scholarships are awarded by the

Mahapola Trust Fund; a governmental authority and the process is principally handled by the University Grants Commission and the criteria are decided by them. Bursary and Endowed scholarships are controlled by the University Grants Commission of Sri Lanka and respective state universities.

In this survey, many of the participants are unemployed, while 5.6% of undergraduates engaged in some kind of paid employment. It is very common that students do part-time jobs while studying in foreign universities, but in Sri Lankan universities part-time jobs are not promoted. According to the informal discussions had with respondents, they have mentioned that many of them are doing some private tuition classes for high school students to earn some extra money. Frequencies and percentages of the demographic variables are included in Table B.1.

Table B.1: Demographic Information

Variable	Category	Percentage %
Gender	Female	58.9
	Male	41.1
Age	< 21	19
	21-40	69.6
	41-60	11.4
Marital status	Married	35.1
	Unmarried	62.7
	Divorced/widow	2.2
Educational level	Up to G.C.E. O/L	41.8
	Up to G.C.E. A/L	45.1
	Diploma	6.5
	Graduate	4.3
	Professional Qualification	2.2
Professional level	Management/Executive	3.2
	Supervisory	18.0
	Operational	77.8
Change Experience at the current organization	Yes	86.9
	No	13.1

B.3.2 Marriage, Parenting, and Work Expectations

With the purpose of directing participants towards the intended aim of the survey and to provide context to responses, five items asked them to indicate their intention to become a partner and a parent in the future. Further, five items provided to select the most suitable statement which describes their future plans in combining career with family responsibilities. Those who were only willing to have partners and kids in future were directed to above statements. Finally, two items provided to mention whether participants are influenced by the people around them.

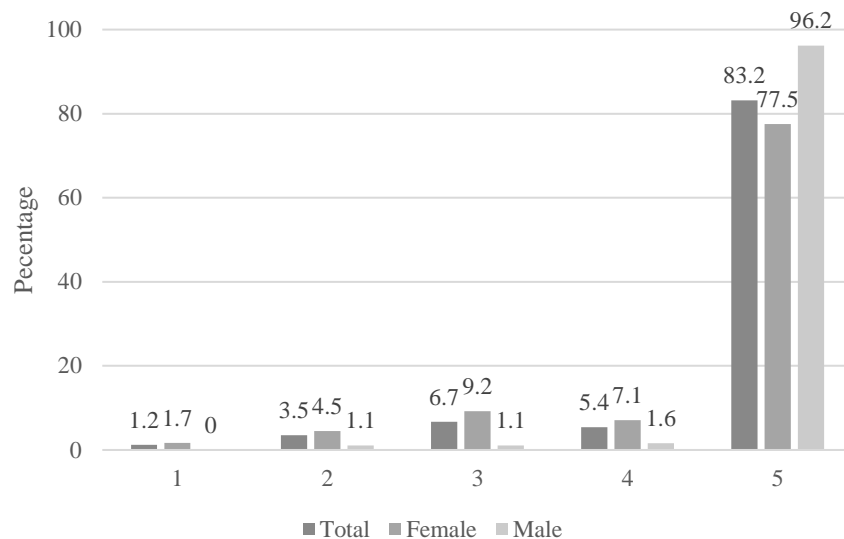
Table B.2: Future Work and Family Role Intentions

Intention	Total Sample		Females		Males	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Expectations to form a long-term relationship						
Yes	636	87.1	446	90.1	190	82.6
No	17	2.3	9	1.8	8	3.5
Undecided/don't know	12	9.9	40	8.1	32	13.9
Expectation to become a parent at the future						
Yes	620	85.5	426	86.1	194	84.3
No	17	2.3	11	2.2	6	2.6
Undecided/don't know	87	12	57	11.5	30	13

Note: N-frequency, %- percentage

Most participants (87.1 %) indicated that they would commit to marry or build a long-term relationship with a partner in the future as shown in Table B.2. The mean age of planned time for marriage was 29.3 years. This is very common among youth to be late for getting marry due to engaging in higher education and sole involvement in career advancement during their young age. Of participants in committed relationships, the majority (85.5%) anticipated becoming a parent at the mean age of 32.4 years, and the

mean desired number of children was 2. With respect to information present in Table B.2, Female students were more anticipated to build up a long-term relationship in the future and to be a parent than male students.



Note: 1. No job after the marriage, 2. Continue the job until having kids, no jobs after that, 3. Start to do a job after kids complete early years, 4. After becoming a parent doing only part-time jobs, 5. I will balance career and family demands with minimum conflicts

Figure B.1: Emerging Adults' Future Expectations on Career and Family Life

Figure B.1 shows the responses for the statements which describes the future plan to have both career and children. Most of the respondents planned to have a balanced career and family life in the future (83.2%). Some female students (9.2%) anticipated to be with children during their early years of life and then start to do a job. Relatively same proportion of young females planned to do part-time jobs after having children, but the possibility is doubtful since the availability of part-time jobs in Sri Lanka is very limited.

When respondents were asked whether they are perceived any influence on planning the future combination of career and family, most of them agreed while female showed a higher agreement than females. That is totally normal in Sri Lanka because of

the culturally sanctioned household duties and childcare responsibilities on females (see Table B.3). Further, both males and females consider what others think about their future expectations on handling work and non-work role demands.

Table B.3: Perceived Social Influence on Future Work and Family Role Planning

Intention	Total Sample		Females		Males	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Is there any influence of others on your future plans						
Yes	407	64.8	292	66.5	115	60.8
No	48	7.6	19	6.6	19	10.1
Sometimes	173	27.5	118	26.9	55	29.1
Consider what others are thinking when you are planning future						
Yes	468	74.4	341	77.7	129	66.8
No	32	5.1	18	4.1	14	0.4
Sometimes	129	20.5	80	18.2	47	25.8

Note: N-frequency, %- percentage

B.4 Sample of the Questionnaire

The Role of Pressure on Multiple Role Balance Expectations Graduate School of Science and Engineering, Saga University, Japan (All the information contained in this questionnaire is strictly confidential)
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1. **මූලික තොරතුරු/ Demographics** (කරුණාකර අදාළ පිළිතුර රවුම්කරන්න /Please circle the correct answer)

a.	ස්ත්‍රී/පුරුෂ භාවය Gender	ස්ත්‍රී Female	පුරුෂ Male										
b.	අධ්‍යයන වර්ෂය Academic year	1 st year	2 nd year	3 rd year	4 th year								
c.	වයස /Age	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	
d.	අධ්‍යයන පීඨය Faculty				e.	ඔබ යම් ශිෂ්‍යාධාරයක් ලබන්නෙක්ද? Do you receive any scholarship?				ඔව් Yes	නැත No		
f.	ඔබගේ වර්තමාන සේවනීයත්වය Current employment status	දැනට රැකියාවක් නොකරමි Unemployed	පාර්ට්ටයිම් රැකියාවක් කරමි Part time employee	ස්ථිර රැකියාවක් කරමි Permeant employee	මගේම ව්‍යාපාරයක් පවත්වාගෙන යමි Self-employed								
g.	ඔබේ පියාගේ ඉහළම අධ්‍යාපනික මට්ටම Father's highest educational qualification	අ.පො.ස සා/පෙළ G.C.E O/L	අ.පො.ස උ/පෙළ G.C.E A/L	ප්‍රථම උපාධි / ඩිප්ලෝමා Bachelor's degree/ professional diploma				පශ්චාත් උපාධි Post graduate Degree					
h.	ඔබේ මවගේ ඉහළම අධ්‍යාපනික මට්ටම Mother's highest educational qualification	අ.පො.ස සා/පෙළ G.C.E O/L	අ.පො.ස උ/පෙළ G.C.E A/L	ප්‍රථම උපාධි / ඩිප්ලෝමා Bachelor's degree/ professional diploma				පශ්චාත් උපාධි Post graduate Degree					

2. **අනාගත විවාහ /මව්පියන් වීමේ සහ රැකියා අපේක්ෂාවන්/ Marriage, Parenting and Work Expectations**

a.	අනාගතයේදී යම් නැතැත්තෙකු /නැතැත්තියක සමඟ විවාහ වීමට ඔබ බලාපොරොත්තු වෙනවාද? Do you expect to marry or form a long-term partnership with another person at some point in the future?	ඔව් Yes	නැත No	නිර්ණයක් නැත Do not know
b.	“ඔව්” නම් ඔබ එසේ කිරීමට බලාපොරොත්තු වන වයස If `Yes`, Planned marriage age (please write)			
c.	අනාගතයේදී මවක/ පියෙකු වීමට ඔබ බලාපොරොත්තු වෙනවාද ? Do you expect to become a parent in the future?	ඔව් Yes	නැත No	නිර්ණයක් නැත Do not know

d.	“ඔව්” නම් ඔබ එසේ කිරීමට බලාපොරොත්තු වන වයස If `Yes`, Planned age to be a parent (Please Write)	
e.	අපේක්ෂිත දරුවන් සංඛ්‍යාව Desired number of children (Please Write)	

g.	ඔබේ අනාගත වෘත්තීය ජීවිතය හා අනෙකුත් ඔබට වැදගත් වන දේ (ස්වාමියා/භාර්යාව, දරුවන්, යහළුවන් හා කැමති දේවල්) තුළින් පවත්වාගෙන යාමේ අභිමතාර්ථ හා අපේක්ෂාවන් කෙරෙහි ඔබේ ජීවිතයට වැදගත් වන පුද්ගලයන්ගෙන් / ඔවුන්ගේ අදහස් හා මතිමතාන්තර වල බලපෑමක් තිබේ යැයි ඔබ සිතනවාද? Do you think that there is an impact of what people who are important to you/ there ideas and opinions on your plans and/or expectations for how you will balance your career with everything else that will be important to you (spouse, children, family, friends, non-work interests)	ඔව් Yes	නැත No	සමහර විට Some times
h.	සාමාන්‍යයෙන්, ඔබ යම් දෙයක් සැලසුම් කිරීමේදී හා තීරණය කිරීමේදී ඔබට සමීප පුද්ගලයන් ඒ ගැන සිතන ආකාරය ගැන සලකා බලනවාද? In general, do you consider what people who close to you think, when you are planning or deciding something?	ඔව් Yes	නැත No	සමහර විට Some times

f. ඉහත “C” ප්‍රශ්නය සඳහා ඔබගේ පිළිතුර “ඔව්” නම් පහත කිහිපම ප්‍රකාශය ඔබගේ අනාගත පවුල් / රැකියා ජීවිතය වඩාත්ම හොඳින් විස්තර කරයිද? (✓) If your answer is `Yes` for the question C, select the situation that best describes your future career and family life (✓)		
i.	විවාහයෙන් පසුව රැකියා කිරීමක් නැත No more job after my marriage	
ii.	විවාහයෙන් පසුව දරුවන් ලැබෙන තුරු රැකියාව කලත්, ඉන් පසුව රැකියාවෙන් ඉවත් වී පූර්ණකාලීනව දරුවන්ගේ හා පවුලේ අවශ්‍යතාවයන් වෙනුවෙන් කැපවෙමි Will continue my job after marriage until I become a parent, no job hereafter unless it necessary	
iii.	දරුවන් ලැබීමෙන් පසුව රැකියාවක් කිරීම නවතා, දරුවන්ගේ මුල් අවුරුදු කිහිපය දරුවන් සමග ගතකර, නැවත වෘත්තීය ජීවිතය ආරම්භ කරමි I will terminate my job after I become a parent. Then start my career again, after spending full time with my children during their early years	
iv.	දරුවන් ලැබීමෙන් පසුව පූර්ණකාලීන රැකියාවක් කිරීම නවතා, දරුවන් සමග වැඩි කාලයක් ගතකිරීමට හැකිවන පරිදි අර්ධකාලීන රැකියාවක නිරතවෙමි. I will terminate my job after I become a parent. Then start a part time occupation, which allows me to spend more time with children	
v.	රැකියාවේ හා පවුලේ වැඩකටයුතු වලට අවම බාධාවක් ඇතිවන පරිදි පවුලේ හා රැකියාවේ වගකීම්/යුතුකම් සමබරව කරගෙන යාමට උත්සාහ කරමි I will balance both work and family activities simultaneously with minimal interruptions from work for parenting and vice versa	

3. බාහිර සමාජ බලපෑම ඔබට දැනෙන ආකාරය/ Perceived Social Pressure

පහත සඳහන් ප්‍රකාශන වලට ඔබ කොතරම් දුරකට එකඟවන්නේද/එකඟනොවන්නේද යනවග අදාළ පිළිතුරු රවුම් කිරීමෙන් සඳහන්කරන්න.

Please answer each question to indicate the extent which you agree or disagree with the following statements

*මෙතැන් පටන්, යම් තැනැත්තෙකු/තැනැත්තියක තම ජීවිත කාලය තුළ නිරූපණය කරන විවිධ භූමිකාවන් වන භාර්යාව / ස්වාමිපුරුෂයා, මව/පියා, යහළුවා සහ සේවක / සේවිකා යන භූමිකාවන් “බහුභූමිකාවන්” යනුවෙන් හදුන්වනු ලබයි.

*Hereafter, the term `Multiple roles` refers to major life roles that individuals may engage during their lifetimes (i.e., wife/ husband, parent, friend, and worker).

1.ඉතා තදින් එකඟ නොවෙමි/ Strongly disagree

2. එකඟ නොවෙමි / Disagree

3. මධ්‍යස්ථයි/ Neural

4.එකඟ වෙමි/ Agree

5. ඉතා තදින් එකඟ වෙමි/ Strongly agree

a.	සාමාන්‍යයෙන් මම කරන්නේ මට වැදගත්වන පුද්ගලයන් මා කළ යුතුයි කියා සිතන දේය. In general, I want to do what persons who are important to me think I should do	1	2	3	4	5
b.	මම අනාගතයේදී වෘත්තීය ජීවිතයක් ගත කරන අතරම විවාහ ජීවිතයක්, දරුවන් හැදීම හා සමාජ ජීවිතයක් ගතකළ යුතු බව මගේ දෙමාපියන්ගේ අදහසයි. My parents think that I should become a career person as well as a wife/husband, parent and a social creature	1	2	3	4	5
c.	තම ජීවිතයේ “බහුභූමිකාවන්” සාර්ථකව ,සමබරව පවත්වාගෙනයන අය පිළිබඳව මට වැදගත්වන පුද්ගලයන් තුළ ඇත්තේ යහපත් ධනවාදී ආකල්පයකි. People who are important to me always appreciate people who are handling multiple roles in their lives	1	2	3	4	5
d.	මගේ පවුලට සමීප පුද්ගලයන් මා හැසිරී යුතුයැයි සිතන ආකාරයට, මම අනාගත ජීවිතයේ “බහුභූමිකාවන්” පවත්වාගෙන යනු දැකීම මගේ පවුලේ අයගේ අපේක්ෂාවයි When it comes to balancing multiple roles in future, our family wants me to do, what the people who are close to our family thinks I should do	1	2	3	4	5
e.	මම නිරන්තරයෙන් අගයකරන අදහස් දරන පුද්ගලයන් සිතනුයේ යමකු එක් භූමිකාවක් තුළ පමණක් නොව බහු භූමිකාවන් තුළ සාර්ථක විය යුතු බවයි People whose advices and opinions I admire always, prefer not to success in one life role but in several roles	1	2	3	4	5
f.	බහුභූමිකාවන් තුළ කටයුතු කිරීමේ ප්‍රතිඵල පිළිබඳව මගේ පවුලට සම්පතමයන් දරනුයේ ධනවාදී ආකල්පයකි People who are close to my family have positive thoughts about the results of handling multiple roles	1	2	3	4	5
g.	මට ඉතා හිතවත් ගුරුවරුන් හා ආචාර්යවරුන් අපේක්ෂා කරන්නේ මම වෘත්තීමය වශයෙන් හා පවුල් ජීවිතයේද සාර්ථකවනු දැකීමය My teachers, lectures who are very close to me want me to be success in my career as well as family life	1	2	3	4	5

h.	මගේ පවුලට සමීප බොහෝ දෙනා දැනටමත් ඔවුන්ගේ ජීවිතවල බහු භූමිකාවන් වල නිරතවන්නෝ වෙති Many people close to our family already engage in multiple roles in their lives	1	2	3	4	5
i.	මගේ සමීපතම යහළුවන් අනාගතයේදී “බහුභූමිකාවන්” නිරූපණය කිරීමට ඉතා උනන්දුවෙන් හා ආශාවෙන් සිටිති Close friends of mine are very eager to play different roles in their future	1	2	3	4	5
j.	මගේ පවුලේ අයට අවශ්‍යවන්නේ, පවුලට සමීප පුද්ගලයන් සාමාන්‍යයෙන් ඔවුන්ගේ ජීවිතවල භූමිකාවන් හසුරුවන ආකාරයට මමත් අනාගතයේදී හැසිරෙන අයුරු දැකීමයි When it comes to balancing multiple roles in future, my family want me to follow what others close to us usually do	1	2	3	4	5

4. ඔබට දැනෙන පරිදි, අනාගතයේදී පහත සඳහන් කර ඇති අවස්ථාවන්ට මුහුණදීමට ඔබට ඇති හැකියාව පිළිබඳව ඔබ තුළ ඇති විශ්වාසය කෙබඳුද? /Multiple role balance self-efficacy

- 1- කිසිදු විශ්වාසයක් නොමැත/ No Confidence
- 2-ඉතා සුළු විශ්වාසයක් ඇත / Very Little Confidence
- 3-තරමක් දුරට විශ්වාසයක් ඇත / Some Confidence
- 4- බොහෝ විශ්වාසයක් ඇත/ Much Confidence
- 5-ඉතා විශාල විශ්වාසයක් ඇත / Very Much Confidence

How confident are you that you could...?						
a.	කාර්යාලයේ ඉතා දීර්ග හා වෙහෙසකර දවසක් අවසානයේ ඔබගේ පවුල සමඟ කාලය ගතකිරීමට හා පවුල වෙනුවෙන් වියයුතු යුතුකම් හා වගකීම් ඉටුකිරීම Spend time with and fulfil your family role effectively after a long and demanding day at work	1	2	3	4	5
b.	පවුලේ කොපමණ දුෂ්කරතාවයන් තිබුනත් ඔබගේ වෘත්තීමය අරමුණු සාර්ථකකර ගැනීම Succeed in your professional goals although there are many difficulties in your family	1	2	3	4	5
c.	තමන්ගේ ස්වාමියා/හාරියාව, දරුවන් සමඟ පමණක් රැඳී නොසිට යහළුවන් සමඟ සමාගමට ඉඩකඩ වෙන් කරගැනීම Make time to spend with friends instead of staying home with wife /husband or children	1	2	3	4	5
d.	රැකියාවේ යෙදෙන අවස්ථාවලදී නිවසේ වැඩකටයුතු වලට හා වගකීම් වලට වඩා රාජකාරීමය කටයුතු කිරීමට වැඩි අවධානයක් හා පරිශ්‍රමයක් දැරීම Focus attention and effort on work related tasks, rather than home related tasks and problems while I am at work	1	2	3	4	5
e.	මගේ ස්වාමියා/හාරියාව සමඟ පිටත රාත්‍රියක් ගතකිරීමට කාලය වෙන්කර ගැනීම Find time to have date nights with my wife/husband	1	2	3	4	5
f.	මටත්, මගේ ස්වාමියා/හාරියාවටත් රාත්‍රී ප්‍රමාදවන තුරු රැකියාවල යෙදීමට සිදුවී එදිනම දරුවන් බලාගන්නා අයත් ලෙඩ වූ විට ඒ සඳහා විකල්ප සැලැස්මක් සකසා ගැනීම Have a plan if my babysitter is sick on a day that both my husband/wife and I have to work until late	1	2	3	4	5

g.	ස්වාමියා/භාර්යාව සමග අමනාපයක් ඇති වූ විටක ඔහු/ඇය සමග සුහද කතාබහක් ආරම්භ කිරීමට හැකිවීම Initiate a conversation with my husband/wife when I am upset with him/her	1	2	3	4	5
h.	රැකියාවේ වැඩකටයුතු බහුලව ඇතිවිටදී පවා පවුලේ සාමාජිකයන් සමග සතුටින් කාලය ගතකිරීමට හා ඒ වෙනුවෙන් කාලය වෙන්කිරීමට හැකිවීම Enjoy time at home with family, even though I have work to do	1	2	3	4	5
i.	මගේ දෙමාපියන් සමග කාලය ගතකිරීමට හා ඔවුන්ගේ අවශ්‍යතාවයන් වෙනුවෙන් වෙනෙසීමට හැකිවීම / Find time to be with my parents and attend to their requirements	1	2	3	4	5
j.	බලාපොරොත්තුවනු ලබන වැඩකටයුතු හා බාධාවීම් හසුරුවා ගැනීමට ඇති හැකියාව Handle unexpected tasks and interruptions that could occur at any time	1	2	3	4	5
k.	නිවසේ, පවුලේ හා රැකියාවේ මූලික වැඩකටයුතු සඳහා තමන්ගේම කාලරාමුවක් තුළ කටයුතු කිරීමට හැකිවීම/ Establish and meet personal deadlines on major home related tasks as well as work related tasks	1	2	3	4	5
l.	නිමකිරීමට ඇති වැඩකටයුතු වල ස්වභාවය හා ප්‍රමාණය මත තාත්වික අභිමතාර්ථ ඇතිකර ගැනීමට හැකිවීම/ Set realistic goals concerning the amount & kind of tasks to be completed	1	2	3	4	5
m.	කාර්යාලයේ, යහළුවන්ගේ හා පවුලේ සාමාජිකයන්ගේ අසාධාරණ ඉල්ලීම් ප්‍රතික්ෂේප කිරීමට හැකිවීම/ Refuse unreasonable requests from family members, friends and work place	1	2	3	4	5
n.	රැකියාවේ කිරීතිය, තනතුර, හා කාලය සම්බන්ධයෙන් ඇති තරගකාරී හැඟීම් පිළිබඳව ස්වාමියා/භාර්යාව සමග සාකච්ඡා කිරීමට හැකිවීම. / Discuss feelings of competition I might have with my wife/husband over career prestige, position and time	1	2	3	4	5
o.	කාර්යාලයේ වැඩ අධික වූ අවස්ථාවලදී පවුලේ සාමාජිකයන්, යහළුවන් සමග කලින් යොදාගත් වැඩසටහන් අවලංගු කිරීමට හැකිවීම. / Cancel plans I have with my wife/husband, children, friends etc. when I have a lot of work at office	1	2	3	4	5
p.	ස්වාමියා/භාර්යාව, දෙමව්පියන් හා සේවකයෙකු ලෙස කටයුතු කරන අතරම සමාජ කටයුතු සඳහා කාලය කලමනාකරණය කර ගැනීමට හැකිවීම./Manage time to attend social gatherings while playing many other roles as a parent, spouse worker and etc.	1	2	3	4	5
q.	පුද්ගලික නිදහස, විවේකය හා සතුට වෙනුවෙන් කාලය යොදාගැනීමට හැකිවීම. Devote time each week for personal relaxation or leisure activities.	1	2	3	4	5
r.	දරුවන්ට මාව අවශ්‍ය විටදී ඔවුන් ලඟ ඔවුන් වෙනුවෙන් රැදී සිටීමට හැකිවීම. Be nurturing and available to my children when they need me.	1	2	3	4	5
s.	මට අවශ්‍ය දෙයක් මිලට ගැනීමට/ මගේ රූපාලංකරණ කටයුතු සඳහා කාලය යෙදවීමට හැකිවීම. Make time to shop for myself or get my hair cut.	1	2	3	4	5

5. අනාගතයේදී විවිධ භූමිකාවන් (භාර්යාව / ස්වාමිපුරුෂයා, මව/පියා, යහළුවා සහ සේවක / සේවිකා) තුළ සමබරතාවයක් පවත්වාගැනීමෙන් අත්වන ප්‍රථිපල පිළිබඳ ඔබගේ අදහස / Outcome Expectations

Please indicate how likely you think that given outcomes would occur when you are going to manage multiple roles in future.

1. කොහෙත්ම ඉඩක් නැත/ Not at all
2. සැක සහිතයි /Unlikely
3. මධ්‍යස්ථයි /Average
4. ඉඩ ඇත/ Likely
5. විශාල ඉඩක් ඇත/ Very likely

a.	මට ඉතා අඩු නිදහසක් තිබිය හැක/ I would have less freedom	1	2	3	4	5
b.	මා ඉතා වෙහෙසට පත්විය හැකියි/ I would become exhausted	1	2	3	4	5
c.	කාර්යාලයේ ප්‍රධානින් , සහෝදර සේවකයන්,පවුලේ සමාජිකයින් සමග නිතර තර්ක විතර්ක හා ගැටුම් ඇති විය හැකියි / I may have many arguments and conflicts with family members, co- workers, bosses and etc.	1	2	3	4	5
d.	කාර්යාලයේ ප්‍රධානින් , සහෝදර සේවකයන්,පවුලේ සමාජිකයින් සහ මා අතර ඉතා උණුසුම් හා ආදරණීය සහසම්බන්ධයක් තිබිය හැකියි./ There will be warm and lovely relationship with my wife / husband, children, co- workers, bosses and etc.	1	2	3	4	5
e.	සියල්ල අවසානයේ විශාල ආත්මනෘප්තියක් මට ඇති වනු ඇත I would have self-satisfaction at the end	1	2	3	4	5
f.	මගේ වෘත්තීය ජීවිතය තුළ මට සාර්ථක විය හැකිය / I would be successful at my job	1	2	3	4	5
g.	අන් අයගේ පිළිගැනීමට මා ලක්විය හැකිය/ I would able to gain recognition from others	1	2	3	4	5
h.	මා අන් අයගේ විවේචනයට භාජනය විය හැකියි/ I would be criticized	1	2	3	4	5
i.	මට මගේ හැකියාවන්ගෙන් ප්‍රයෝජන ගැනීමට හැකියාව ලැබේ I would make use of my abilities	1	2	3	4	5
j.	මගේ නිසමත බරක් පටවා ඇති ලෙස මට හැඟෙනු ඇත / I may feel overloaded	1	2	3	4	5
k.	මගේ ආත්ම අභිමානය භීතවී යා හැකියි/ I may have low self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5
l.	මගේ උත්සාහයන් ගැන මට මහත් ආඩම්බරයක් දැනෙනු ඇත I would feel proud of my efforts	1	2	3	4	5
m.	මගේ කාර්යබහුලත්වය නිසා ජීවිතයේ නොයෙක් වටිනා අවස්ථාවන් මට මගහැරී ගියා සේ වරදකාරී හැඟීමක් යම් දිනක දැනෙනු ඇත / I would have feelings of guilt one day since I missed many valuable moments due to my busyness	1	2	3	4	5
n.	යම් දිනක මම පරිපූර්ණයැයි මට හැඟෙනු ඇත/ I would feel fulfilled one day	1	2	3	4	5
o.	මට සමාජයේ අන් අයගෙන් විශාල ධෛර්යයක් ලැබෙනු ඇත I would have social encouragement	1	2	3	4	5
p.	විවිධ භූමිකාවන් තුළ හැසිරෙමින්,ඒවා අතර මනා තුල්‍යයක් පවත්වා ගැනීමේදී මගේ පුද්ගලික නෘප්තිය නැති වී යාමෙන් මම හිස් මිනිසෙකු ලෙස දැනෙනු ඇත I would feel as I am a looser, since I might miss personal pleasure while engaging multiple roles	1	2	3	4	5

6. අනාගතයේදී විවිධ භූමිකාවන් (භාර්යාව / ස්වාමිපුරුෂයා, මව/පියා, යහළුවා සහ සේවක / සේවිකා) සමබරව පවත්වාගෙන යාම සඳහා පහත සඳහන් ක්‍රියාමාර්ග ඔබ අනුගමනය කිරීමට බලාපොරොත්තුවන්නේ කුමන මට්ටමින්ද යනවග සඳහන් කරන්න / Multiple Role Balance Expectations

To what degree do you intend to do the following in future to keep the balance among different life roles

- 1 - කිසිවිටක කරන්නේ නැත / **Never do this**
- 2- සුළුවශයෙන් කිරීමට බලාපොරොත්තු වෙමි / **slightly anticipate doing**
- 3 - යම් තාක් දුරකට කිරීමට බලාපොරොත්තු වෙමි / **somewhat anticipate doing this**
- 4 - කිරීමට බලාපොරොත්තු වෙමි / **anticipate doing this**
- 5 - තදින් ක්‍රියා කිරීමට බලාපොරොත්තු වෙමි / **strongly anticipate doing this**

a.	අනාගතයේදී මම භාර්යාව / ස්වාමිපුරුෂයා, මව/පියා, යහළුවා සහ සේවක / සේවිකා ආදී බහුභූමිකාවන් නිරූපණය කිරීමට බලාපොරොත්තු වන අතරම ඒවා අතර මනා සමබරතාවයක් පවත්වාගෙන යාමි I will manage many life roles such as, a parent, a spouse a career person etc.in future and do it well	1	2	3	4	5
b.	බහුභූමිකාවන් කළමනාකරණයේදී වඩාත් නම්‍යශීලී සැලසුම් භාවිතයට ගැනීම I intend to come out with some flexible plans to managing multiple roles	1	2	3	4	5
c.	බහුභූමිකාවන් සමතුලනයේදී අවශ්‍ය උපායමාර්ග පිළිබඳව මගේ පවුලේ සාමාජිකයන් හා හිතවතුන් සමග සාකච්ඡා කිරීම Talk to friends and family about strategies for how to balance my multiple life roles	1	2	3	4	5
d.	බහුභූමිකාවන් කළමනාකරණයේදී, එක් සැලසුමකට සීමා වී නොසිට අමතර උපායමාර්ග කිහිපයක් පිළිබඳව සලකා බැලීම. When balancing multiple roles in life, I should consider several different strategies rather than fix in to one plan	1	2	3	4	5
e.	වෘත්තීයේ හා පවුලේ වගකීම් ඒකාබද්ධව ඉටුකිරී සඳහා අවශ්‍ය උපායමාර්ග තීරණය කිරීමේදී මගේ ස්වාමියා/ භාර්යාව සමග සාකච්ඡා කිරීම. I intend to discuss with my future wife/husband when it comes to deciding on strategies for combining career and family responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
f.	වෘත්තීමය හා පවුලේ වැඩකටයුතු සමබරව කරගෙනයාම සඳහා මට වඩාත්ම ගැලපෙන ක්‍රමෝපායන් පිළිබඳව ස්වාමියා/ භාර්යාවගේ අදහස් හා යෝජනා වලට අනුමතය. It is important to listen to my future wife`s/ husband`s ideas and suggestions about the best ways for me to balance my career and my family	1	2	3	4	5
g.	බහුභූමිකාවන් සමතුලනයේදී, අදාළ අවස්ථාවට අනුරූපව සැලසුම් හා උපායමාර්ග වරින් වර වෙනස්කිරීමට සිදුවීම When balancing multiple roles in life, I may have to change plans and strategies time to time as best fit with the situation	1	2	3	4	5
h.	අවසානයේ එක් එක් භූමිකාව තුළ මම සාක්ෂාත් කරගත යුත්තේ කුමක්ද යන්න පිළිබඳව පැහැදිලි චිත්‍රයක් ගොඩනගා ගැනීම I would develop a clear image of what I want to achieve in each role of my life	1	2	3	4	5

i.	අනාගතයේ නිරූපණය කරන විවිධ භූමිකා වලට අදාළ මට අනන්‍ය වූ වටිනාකම් පිළිබඳ හොඳ අවබෝධයක් ලබා ගැනීම I will try to understand my own values around each role which I am going to play in future	1	2	3	4	5
j.	මානසික ආතතිය හා ගැටුම් ඇතිවීම අවම කරගැනීම සඳහා වෘත්තීමය හා වෘත්තීමය නොවන භූමිකා වල වැඩකටයුතු සඳහා අභිමතාර්ථ හා ප්‍රමුකතා ඇතිකර ගැනීම I intend to set goals and priorities in both work and non-work roles to minimize stress and conflicts	1	2	3	4	5
k.	විවිධ භූමිකාවන් කළමනාකරණය කිරීම සඳහා නොයෙක් විකල්ප මාර්ග තෝරාගෙන සැලසුම් සහගතව සිටීම I plan to select many options of managing multiple roles` responsibilities, then I will able to do it all perfectly	1	2	3	4	5
l.	මගේ ජීවිතයේ බහුභූමිකාවන් තුලනය කිරීම සම්පන්නයෙන් මම වෙනත් කිසිම කෙනෙකුගෙන් උපදෙස් නොගනිමි. I don't get anybody else` advice on how to balance multiple roles in my life	1	2	3	4	5
m.	අනාගතය සැමවිටම අවිනිශ්චිත බැවින් ජීවිත භූමිකාවන්ගේ ඉල්ලුම සමග ගනුදෙනු කරන්නේ කෙසේද යන්න පිළිබඳව තීරණය කිරීමට උත්සහ නොකිරීම I may not try to decide how to deal with the demands of life roles since the future is so uncertain	1	2	3	4	5
n.	සාර්ථක පවුලකට අමතරව යාවජීව වෘත්තිය ජීවිතයක් ලබා ගැනීමට මම කැප වෙමි I would be committed to having a lifelong career in addition to raising a family	1	2	3	4	5
o.	මගේ මව/හිතවතුන් සිතන ආකාරය නොසලකා වඩාත්ම හොඳින් මගේ දරුවන්ට ගැලපෙන ළමා ආරක්ෂණ ක්‍රමයක් මම විසින්ම තීරණය කිරීම I intend to make my own decisions about the type of childcare that's best for my child(ren) regardless of what my mother or friends may think is right	1	2	3	4	5
p.	බහුභූමිකාවන් කළමනාකරණයේදී එන විදියකට මුහුණ දීම When managing multiple roles in future, I intend to "take it as it comes`	1	2	3	4	5
q.	බහුභූමිකාවන් සාර්ථකව තුලනයේ ප්‍රතිපල අතරින් ආත්මනෘප්තියට මුල්තැන ලබාදීම I intend to give priority to personal pleasure that results from balancing multiple roles successfully	1	2	3	4	5
r.	බහුභූමිකාවන් තුලනයේදී කල කළමනාකරණය පිළිබඳ දැඩි අවධානයක් යෙදීම I try to be conscious about managing time when balancing multiple roles	1	2	3	4	5
s.	මම ලෙහෙසියෙන් දෙයක් අතහැරන්නෙක් නොවෙමි. ඇත්තවශයෙන්ම එක් භූමිකාවකට කොටු වනව වඩා බහුභූමිකාවන් වල නිරතවීමට මට අවශ්‍යතාවයන් ඇත I'm not going to give up anything. I really want to play many roles rather than one	1	2	3	4	5
t.	බහුභූමිකාවන් සාර්ථකව තුලනයට බලපාන කරුණු අතරින් බහුතරයක් මගේ පාලනයෙන් තොර බැවින් ඒ ගැන මම වද විමෙන් තොරවීම I wouldn't worry about trying to balance multiple roles in my life, because so much depends on things that are out of my control	1	2	3	4	5

ස්තූතියි/Thank You !!!