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Master thesis Human Resource Studies

# Work-home conflict and turnover intentions among parents

*The effects of the utilization of work-home arrangements and a supportive environment*

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Author: Iris E.M. van Noort (135600)  
[I.E.M.vanNoort@uvt.nl](mailto:I.E.M.vanNoort@uvt.nl)  
Nijverstraat 18-20  
5041 AH, Tilburg

Master Thesis Human Resource studies  
University of Tilburg  
Faculty of Social and Behavioural Sciences

Supervisor: Dr. M.L. van Engen  
Second assessor: Dr. J.S.E. Dijkers  
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## **Preface**

“Keeping the balance right”, that is what I prefer when participating in the labour market and that is exactly why the subject of Work-Life Balance interested me so much to write my Master Thesis about it. So far, I have been confronted with achieving what can be called a ‘study-life balance’, which I consider as a whole new interesting research area. The decision to pursue my goal of obtaining a Master degree resulted in moving to Tilburg two years ago. This required me to find a new balance between my study, new and old friends, parents, sister and other family, sport and maintaining a healthy lifestyle in general. Honestly, finding this balance was not always that easy. However, I have learnt and experienced a lot in the last couple of years and I anticipate looking back at this period with a big smile on my face.

There are several people I would like to thank for their help during the process of writing this master thesis. First of all, I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Marloes van Engen who supported and inspired me with her enthusiasm, extensive know-how and helpful comments. Furthermore I would like to thank my second assessor Dr. Josje Dijkers for her feedback and useful remarks which resulted into new insights. I also would like to thank my group members for their support during the last six months. And, last but not least, I would like to thank my friends, parents and boyfriend for their mental support and their unconditional faith in me.

I definitely enjoyed writing this thesis, and I certainly hope that everybody will enjoy reading it too.

## **Abstract**

Balancing work and family life has become an important issue for families nowadays. This has been recognized by employers as well, since a growing number of organizations offer so-called work-home arrangements to help their employees in managing both their work- and family demands. This study examined if working parents who experience increased levels of work-home conflict actually make more use of these work-home arrangements and if this utilization in turn would result in having fewer turnover intentions. The role of having perceptions of a supportive environment is explored in this respect as well. Furthermore, the impact of life-cycle stage, and especially parenting stage, is assessed in order to unravel any differences among parents situated in the early parenting stage (i.e. with young pre-school children), compared to parents in the middle and late parenting stage (i.e. with older and school-aged children). This cross-sectional study had an existing dataset at its disposal. The sample consisted of 707 working parents whose data, gathered through a questionnaire, were used to analyse the different assumptions made by the researcher. In line with previous research, this study shows a positive relation between work-home conflict and turnover intentions, indicating once more the important need for organizations to deal with these feelings among their employees. Of the several interesting results, one striking finding is that having a supportive environment in itself is the best predictor for the intention to remain working among working parents, compared to the actual utilization of work-home arrangements. With regard to the different parenting stages it was found, among other things, that parents who experience increased levels of work-home conflict actually make use of more (flexible) work-home arrangements when they are situated in the late and middle parenting stage respectively, reflecting the various needs of parents during the life course. After describing the limitations and possible interesting entries for future research, the practical implications of his research are discussed.

**Keywords:** work-home conflict; utilization of work-home arrangements; life-cycle stage; parents; turnover intentions; supportive environment.

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## Introduction

How to balance work- and private life? This topic has received a lot of attention since drastic changes have emerged in the composition of the labour market during the last decades. In the Netherlands (the country for which this study presents its findings) for instance, the number of women participating in the labour market has increased from 34% in 1985 to 62% in 2008 (Kösters, den Boer & Lodder, 2009). Since most of these women work part-time (i.e. 75% in 2006 compared to 33% in the European Union, Statistics Netherlands [CBS], 2006), the Netherlands are known for its 'one-and-a-half'-earner model. In the last 15 years this number of couples, in which the men work full-time and the women part-time, has increased from 27% in 1992 to 45% in 2007 (CBS, 2009a). At the same time this resulted in a decrease in the traditional type of family structure in which the men are the breadwinners: from 49% in 1992 to 27% in 2007 (CBS, 2009a).

All these changes have been related to problems for employees in juggling both their work and family demands. This seems especially true for working parents who often fulfil multiple roles simultaneously, such as being an employee, a parent and often a spouse as well. This conclusion is reinforced by the fact that 40% of employed parents in the Netherlands reported that they felt that work interferes with their family life (Geurts, Kompier, Roxburgh & Houtman, 2003).

Experiencing problems in performing home duties because of work demands, is referred to as work-home conflict (hereafter WHC). A theory which could explain why parents experience such a high percentage of WHC is the concept of life-cycle stage (Aldous, 1978). This concept considers the variations in work- and family- role demands that people will face during the life course (Aldous, 1978). Since working parents seem to be highly sensitive to experiences of WHC, this study will focus on three parenting stages as dimensions of the life-cycle stage concept. It will be examined if the proposed relations in this study, which are related to WHC, will be different for parents in different parenting stages.

Helping employees in achieving a better work-life balance could be beneficial for organizations. Previous literature provides ample evidence that feelings of WHC relate to, for example, increased turnover intentions (Glass & Estes, 1997; Allen, Herst, Bruck & Sutton, 2000). Since turnover costs are a substantial cost of doing business (Cascio & Boudreau, 2008) avoiding turnover could be conceptualized as increasing revenues (Kelly, Kossek, Hammer, Durham, Bray, Chermack, Murphy and Kaskubar, 2008) which makes research on this topic interesting for organizations. One way in which organizations can help their employees in balancing their work and private life more effectively, is by offering work-home arrangements (hereafter WHAs) such as flexible working times (i.e. variability in starting and finishing times), working part-time, working from home occasionally, telecommuting (i.e. working at or nearby home to avoid commuter traffic), parental leave, financial support for childcare costs, etc. (den Dulk & Peper, 2007; Kossek, Lewis & Hammer, 2010; Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999). To date, most studies have investigated if WHAs reduce feelings of WHC (Hammer, Neal, Newsom, Brockwood & Colton, 2005, Brough, O'Driscoll & Kalliath, 2005; Dijkers, Geurts, den Dulk, Peper & Kompier, 2004, Allen, 2001). The reversed relationship, however, is rarely investigated. Therefore, this study will examine if working

parents who experience increased levels of WHC actually will make use of more WHAs, and, if making use of these arrangements in turn will result in having fewer turnover intentions.

Offering WHAs is becoming more common among organizations. However, there seems to be a gap between the availability and the actual utilization of these arrangements. The literature indicates that the organizational culture plays an important role in this respect (Bernard & Phillips, 2007; Darcy & McCarthy, 2007; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007; Bond, 2004; Dikkers, et al., 2004). Hence, this study will investigate if perceptions of a supportive environment, including perceptions of supervisors' and colleagues' support with regard to work-life issues, will stimulate working parents who experience WHC in making use of WHAs. Subsequently, it will be examined if these perceptions in itself will result in having fewer turnover intentions and if so, which kind of support (supervisor or colleague) can be considered as most important.

The above elucidation leads to the following research question: *Does the actual utilization of WHAs result in having fewer turnover intentions among working parents who experience WHC, and what role does having perceptions of a supportive environment play in this respect?*

Additionally, as stated earlier on, for the relations that include WHC it will be examined if the effects are different for parents in various parenting stages.

This cross-sectional study contributes to the literature since there is very little research that investigated the relation between WHC and the utilization of WHAs (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Although the causal direction between variables in a cross-sectional research design is impossible to verify (Dikkers et al., 2004), this research is innovative by looking at WHC from another point of view; as a predictor of the use of WHAs. It also adds to the debate by examining specific relations for working parents in various parenting stages. Moreover, this study will focus on the actual utilization of WHAs while, to date, more attention has been given to the availability of these arrangements (Hammer et al., 2005; Kelly et al., 2008). In this way, the results of this paper have scientific relevance. The social relevance of this study is that the anticipated results can be beneficial for organizations, especially when evidence for reduced turnover intentions is found.

The aim of this study is therefore to find out if organizations should direct their efforts at expending their array of WHAs, and/or to create a (or improve the) supportive environment to reduce the turnover intentions among their employees who are parents as well. Since certain relations will be tested for parents within different parenting stages, it becomes possible to specify the results for specific groups of employees which could provide organizations with practical information.

In the upcoming paragraphs a theoretical framework will follow in which the hypotheses of this paper will be explained in connection with the existing literature. After the clarification of the methods used, the results of this research will be presented. This will be followed by a conclusion and discussion after which the limitations, together with recommendations for future research, and the practical implications of this study will be mentioned. At the very end there will be an overview of the literature used.

## Theoretical framework

### *WHC and life-cycle stage*

People often fulfil multiple roles in their life, such as the role of student, employee, parent, spouse, etc. Some roles are carried out simultaneously, for example an employee who is a parent and a spouse as well. Combining these roles can be problematic and could lead to experiencing conflict, especially when performing one role goes at the expense of another role. The theoretical framework for most research on this kind of conflict, often referred to as work-home conflict (WHC), is established by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985). They defined WHC as “A form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (1985, p. 77). It is widely acknowledged that WHC is a bi-directional construct (Darcy & McCarthy, 2007; Hill, 2005). In other words, work can interfere with family life (work-home conflict, e.g. when working overtime prevent a parent from spending time at home with the family) and family life can interfere with work (home- work conflict, hereafter HWC, e.g. when having a sick child at home prevents attendance at work) (Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1997 and 1992). Next to this negative side of WHC, there is also evidence for a more positive approach in which one can speak of work-family enhancement or enrichment (Geurts, Taris, Kompier, Dijkers, van Hooff & Kinnunen, 2005). In this case, one can experience positive spill over effects from one role to another. For example, when a person is better able to keep appointments at home because his job requires this as well (work- home enhancement) and when a person manage his time at work more efficiently because he has to do that at home as well (home- work enhancement) (Geurts et al., 2005). Despite the consistent support for this bi-directional nature of WHC, there is evidence that individuals experience WHC much more frequently than HWC (Frone et al., 1992; Carlson & Frone, 2003) and that the negative influences from work are more prevalent than the positive influences from work (Demerouti, Geurts & Kompier, 2004). For this reason negative WHC has been chosen as the main interest of this study.

This study aims at examining the impact of life-cycle stage and especially parenting stage, on experiences of WHC. The concept of life-cycle stage states that there are variations in the work- and family- role demands that a person encounter during the life course (Aldous, 1987). According to Higgins, Duxbury and Lee (1994) there are many studies that found associations between life-cycle stage and WHC. Cooke and Rousseau (1984) for example showed that when one’s obligations to the family expand through marriage and the arrival of children, experiences of WHC will increase. Others have demonstrated that in the peak parenting years (i.e. when parents have two or more preschool children) the interrole conflict between competing demands of work and family is the highest (Blanchard-Fields, Chen & Hebert, 1997). Moreover, the study by Staines and O’Connor (1980) revealed that parents with children under the age of six experienced the highest levels of WHC, followed by parents with children between 6 and 18 years (school-age children) and with non-parents experiencing the least amount of WHC. The research by Darcy and McCarthy

(2007) and Higgins et al. (1994) both state that it also has been argued that many of these conflicts will decrease as the age of the youngest child increases.

Since the literature indicates that children of varying ages place different types of demands on working parents (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Hill, Jacob, Shannon, Brennan & Blanchard, 2008), with younger children (i.e. preschool children) typically requiring more time and energy demands (Young, Baltes & Pratt, 2007; Kelly & Voydanoff, 1985), this study will divide the parenting stage into three sub stages according to the age of the youngest child. These three sub parenting stages will be: 1) the early parenting stage (with the youngest child being four or less years of age), 2) the middle parenting stage (with the youngest child aged between five and 12) and 3) the late parenting stage (with the youngest child between 13 and 18 years of age). These age categories are somewhat different from those used by other authors to reflect the Dutch institutional context with regard to the school system. Since most children in the Netherlands go to primary school by the age of four, but are obliged to do so when they turn five, the parents of these pre-school children are represented by the early parenting stage. Next, because the primary school has a duration of minimal eight years, the middle parenting stage reflect those parents whose children are aged between five and twelve. Finally, the late parenting stage embodies parents with children attending secondary school, which has a length of five to six years. Based on this distinction it is likely that the parents within each stage have some commonalities with regard to the family responsibilities they are faced with. With these slightly deviating age categories, it will be examined if parents in these different parenting stages experience more or less WHC as opposed to the other parenting stages. Since the literature states that parents with young pre-school children (i.e. the early parenting stage) experience the highest levels of WHC, and that these feelings will diminish when the age of the youngest child increases, it will be examined if parents in the early parenting stage experience more WHC than parents in the middle and late parenting stage.

In sum, the focus of this research is on negative work-home conflict (WHC) and on examining the impact of the different parenting stages (as dimensions of the life-cycle stage) on experiences of WHC. This study will continue to maintain these three parenting stages in the analysis of other relationships connected to WHC to see if the effects are different for parents with children of varying ages. At this moment, the following hypothesis can be described:

1. *Working parents in the early parenting stage experience more WHC than working parents in the middle and late parenting stage.*

#### *WHC associated with turnover intentions*

Since combining multiple roles can lead to experiences of WHC, it can be assumed that people want to minimize these negative feelings. For employees this could result in having turnover intentions which “encompasses thoughts about, and/or intention of, quitting one’s job” (Netemeyer, Brashear-Alejandro & Boles, 2004, p. 50). The literature indeed consistently shows a positive relation between WHC and turnover intentions, indicating that employees who experience higher levels of WHC are more likely to report turnover intentions (e.g. Kelly et al., 2008; Haar, 2004; Allen

et al., 2000, Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). Although it could be argued that turnover intentions are distinct from actual turnover, the literature provides some evidence proving the contrary. The theory of attitudes of Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), for example, states that “the best single predictor of an individual’s behaviour will be a measure of his intention to perform that behaviour” (p.369). Furthermore, Steel and Ovalle (1984) found a weighted average correlation of .50 between turnover intentions and actual employee turnover. Since the cost associated with turnover can be substantial (i.e. in terms of organizational investments made in selection, training and promotion but also replacement costs), avoiding turnover could be conceptualized as increasing revenues (Kelly et al., 2008). As stated earlier, this makes research on this topic interesting for organizations. Therefore this study will examine if this positive relation between WHC and having turnover intentions still holds true, with the overarching aim to present employers with convincing results about the importance of providing interventions that can help diminish these WHC experiences among their employees.

Another reason to investigate this more than once proven relationship is to explore whether it is different for parents in various parenting stages. Could it be, for example, that parents who experience WHC have more turnover intentions when they are situated in the early parenting stage as opposed to parents in the late parenting stage? As stated above, previous research has demonstrated that when work interferes with family life, employees will have more intentions to quit their job. Furthermore, there are indications that especially young pre-school children require more time and energy demands. Therefore, it could be assumed that when parents experience WHC because, for example, their jobs require working overtime regularly, this could be experienced as more disrupting when those parents have pre-school children at home who typically require more parental time and energy than older children. This combination of experiencing WHC and having young children to take care of, in turn, could lead to having more turnover intentions among working parents in this early parenting stage. Hence, the following hypotheses are formulated:

- 2a. *The more WHC working parents experience, the more intentions they have to leave the organization.*
- 2b. *Experiencing WHC has a greater effect on turnover intentions for working parents in the early parenting stage than for working parents in the middle and late parenting stage.*

#### *WHC associated with the use of WHAs*

One way to reduce feelings of WHC that was indicated earlier on was leaving the organization. Another, and possibly less rigorous decision, could be to make use of the available WHAs within the organization, such as the possibility to work from home occasionally, flexible start- and finish times, unpaid leave, teleworking, etc. Organizations offer these kinds of WHAs to help its employees combining their work- and private lives more effectively (den Dulk & Peper, 2007; Kossek et al., 2010; Thompson et al., 1999). However, despite general expectations that employees who experience WHC will make use of WHAs in order to make their lives more manageable (Kelly et al., 2008) little research has examined this association. Previous research has concentrated

primarily on the reversed relationship, namely if WHAs reduces WHC. In addition, more attention has been given to the availability of WHAs than to their actual use (Kelly et al., 2008). However, the availability of WHAs does not mean that employees actually use them (den Dulk & Peper, 2007; Dikkers et al., 2004; Dikkers, Geurts, den Dulk, Peper, Taris & Kompier, 2007) or that it improves the balance between their work and private life, thereby reducing WHC (Bond, 2004).

The scarce amount of research that has investigated the effects of WHC on the actual utilization of WHAs shows inconsistent findings (Kelly et al., 2008). Batt and Valcour (2003) for example stated that employees, who use multiple WHAs, probably have the highest family demands and therefore experience more WHC in the first place. However, Hammer et al. (2005) tested in their longitudinal study if WHC resulted in the use of WHAs and did not find a significant relation. Therefore the question that remains unanswered is if working parents perceive making use of WHAs as a solution to their problems created by the inability of balancing work and home demands. Thus, although it seems rather obvious to state that employees who experience WHC are exactly those who make use of WHAs (Dikkers et al., 2007), there is little research that has proven this assumption to be correct. Hence, it will be examined if a positive relation exists between experiences of WHC and the utilization of WHAs.

In addition, it will be explored if this relationship is different for working parents in various parenting stages as well. As stated above, it is suggested that the children of parents in the early parenting stage claim more time and energy than the children of parents in the other two parenting stages. Consequently, it seems conceivable that the urge to reduce the feelings of WHC will manifest itself in making use of more WHAs especially among parents in this early parenting stage. These assumptions are expressed in the following hypotheses:

- 3a. *The more WHC working parents experience, the more they will actually make use of WHAs.*
- 3b. *Experiencing WHC has a greater effect on the utilization of WHAs for working parents in the early parenting stage than for working parents in the middle and late parenting stage.*

#### *WHC and the utilization of WHAs moderated by supportive environment*

Despite an increasing number of organizations offering WHAs, it seems that there are many employees who do not actually make use of them. The literature suggests that this phenomenon can be explained by the organisational culture, especially when it lacks support for employees' work-home balance (Darcy & McCarthy, 2007; den Dulk & Peper, 2007; Dikkers et al., 2004; Dikkers et al., 2007, Thompson et al., 1999). Work-home culture can be defined as "the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and private lives" (Thompson et al., 1999, p. 394). , The work-home culture (hereafter supportive environment) of an organization can impose a barrier to the utilization of these arrangements. For example, the amount of time visibly spent at work is in some organisational cultures regarded as an indication of the effort and career dedication of an employee (Lewis & Taylor, 1996 as cited in Dikkers et al., 2004; Perlow, 1995). According to

Thompson et al. (1999) this kind of underlying assumptions make it difficult for employees to deal with family responsibilities during work hours since this requires them to take time off. Therefore, it appears that offering WHAs alone is not enough. An unsupportive environment, with regard to work-family issues, can prevent employees from actually making use of these arrangements and to benefit from them in terms of reduced WHC (Eaton, 2003). This results in the following assumption being made;

4. *Experiencing WHC has a greater effect on the utilization of WHAs for working parents who experience a more supportive environment than for working parents who experience a less supportive environment.*

#### *Supportive environment associated with turnover intentions*

The organizational culture with regard to work-life issues seems to play an important role in the literature on WHC and the usage of WHAs. Since this study expects that using more WHAs will result in having fewer turnover intentions, it would be interesting to investigate if having a supportive environment by itself will have the same effect. Multiple studies indeed showed that supervisor's support is related to turnover intentions (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Anderson, Coffey and Byerly, 2002; Thompson et al., 1999). However, studies about the effect of colleagues' support on turnover intentions are scarcer and more often linked to the usage of WHAs (Dijkers et al., 2004; Dijkers et al. 2007). Yet, it could be expected that employees who perceive their direct colleagues to be supportive with regard to their work- and private life issues, will have a more positive perception of their work environment and therefore could have fewer intentions to leave the organization. Therefore it is assumed that there is a negative relation between perceptions of a supportive environment and turnover intentions. Additionally it will be examined, if this presumption is confirmed, which kind of support (from supervisor or colleagues) is experienced as most important in this respect. For now, the following hypothesis is formulated

5. *The more supportive the environment is perceived by working parents, the fewer intentions they have to leave the organization.*

#### *Utilization of WHAs associated with turnover intentions*

Making use of WHAs was one possible solution mentioned earlier which could help employees by reducing negative feelings associated with the inability to balance between both work and life demands. But do employees who actually make use of such arrangements indeed feel better? Do they for example have fewer intentions to quit their job? Literature on the direct relationship between the utilization of WHAs and turnover is, however, limited (Kelly et al., 2008). One exception is the study by Grover and Crooker (1995) who found that employees indicated significantly fewer intentions to leave the organization when they had access to WHAs. However, they concluded that employees had fewer turnover intentions even if they did not use these arrangements themselves.

From an organizational perspective, WHAs are believed to be beneficial essentially because they reduce costs associated with a decrease in turnover (Kelly et al., 2008). Therefore, in line with this expectation, it is assumed that there is a negative relation between using WHAs and having turnover intentions. An applicable theory in this respect, which supports the former line of reasoning, is the social exchange theory. This theory postulates, in general, that employees adjust their behaviours and attitudes as a response to their employers' commitment to them (Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). More specifically, previous research suggested that when an organization directs beneficial actions towards their employees, these employees in turn feel an obligation to reciprocate in beneficial ways, which could manifest itself in enhanced loyalty and commitment to the organization (Wayne et al., 1997; Hutchinson, 1997; Roehling, Roehling & Moen, 2001). Since organizations, as stated earlier, offer WHAs to help their employees in balancing their work- and private lives more effectively, this sign of concern about one's work- and private life issues can be viewed as a form of commitment from one's employer. Hence, it seems feasible that employees who make use of these arrangements are therefore likely to reciprocate. This could result in having fewer turnover intentions due to, for example, increased commitment to the organization. Moreover, it could be suggested that the more WHAs are being used, the stronger this effect will be. This elucidation leads to the following hypothesis:

- 6) *The more use working parents make of WHAs, the fewer intentions they have to leave the organization.*

#### *WHC and turnover intentions mediated by the utilization of WHAs*

One of the most important questions in this study concerns the mediating effect of the utilization of WHAs. Since it seems proven that when employees experience WHC they will have more turnover intentions, the question remains if this relationship will be different when the use of WHAs is taken into account. In other words, is it true that when working parents experience WHC they will have fewer intentions to leave the organization when they actually make use of WHAs then when the utilization of WHAs is not considered? Indirectly this could answer the question if working parents actually perceive making use of WHAs as a solution to their problems in balancing their work and home demands. This leads to the following hypothesis:

- 7) *WHC has an indirect negative effect on turnover intentions through the utilization of WHAs.*

#### **Conceptual model**

All the variables and relations that will be investigated in this study are summarized in Figure 1.

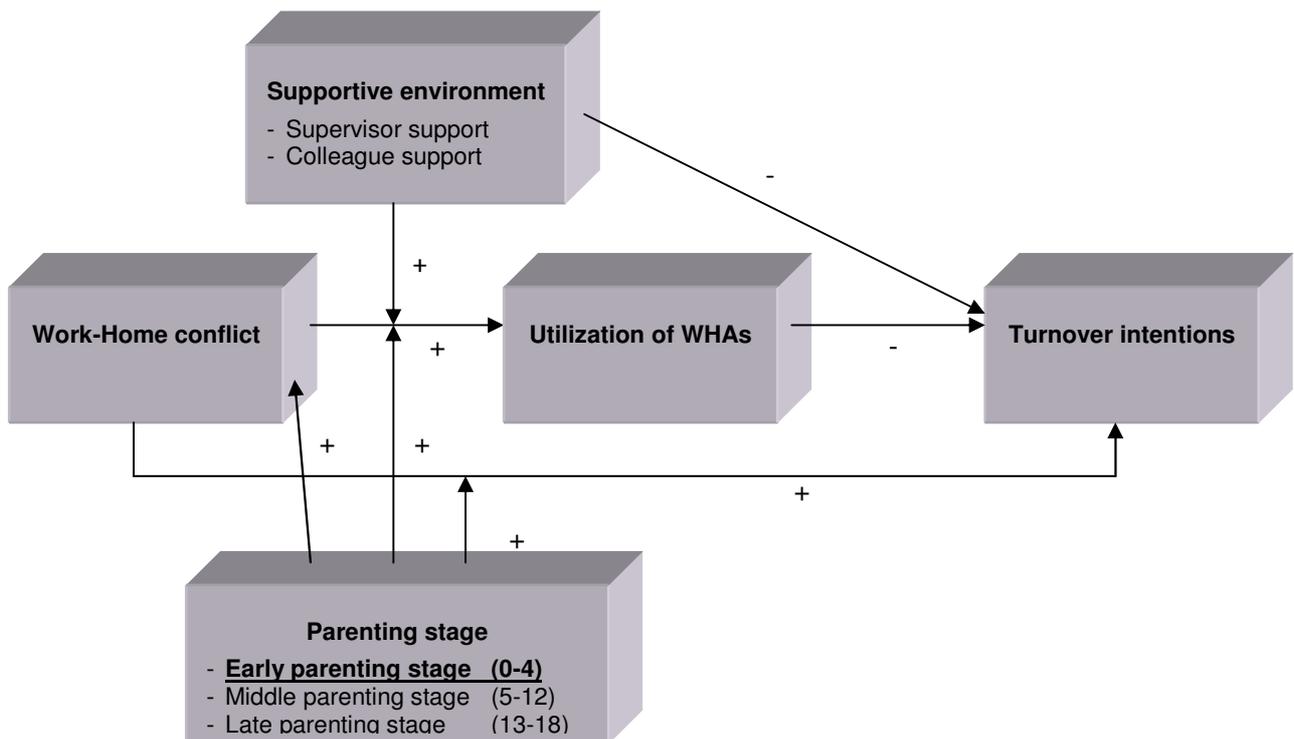


Figure 1: Representation of the conceptual model used in this study

## Methods

### *Population and sample*

The sample of this research consisted of working parents in the Netherlands. First, a convenience sample was performed since the sampling frame was unknown ( $N = 489$ ). Afterwards a stratified sample-design was executed to improve the representativeness of the sample ( $N = 240$ ). There were two requirements for parents to participate: 1) their youngest child had to be under the age of eighteen, and 2) the parents had to have a paid job (without restrictions about the types of job or the number of hours worked). The sample consisted of 729 respondents in total, of which 707 met the before mentioned requirements. Of these working parents 366 were female (51.8%) and 341 were men. The vast majority of the respondents (77.3%) were married or lived together with his or her partner (22.1%). The age of the respondents ranged between 22 and 64 years, with an average age of 42 years ( $SD = 8.000$ ). 45.1% of the respondents were highly educated (HBO, University), followed by 40.0% for MBO, Havo, VWO, HBS and MMS, 14.7% for VMBO, LBO, LTS and Mavo and 0.3% who finished elementary school only. Figure 2 depicts a summary of the demographic information with regard to the whole sample and for the three parenting stages as well.

	<i>Full sample</i>		<i>Early parenting stage (0-4)</i>		<i>Middle parenting stage (5-12)</i>		<i>Late parenting stage (13-18)</i>	
Sample size	N = 707	100%	N = 282	39.9%	N = 250	35.5%	N = 174	24.6%
Men	N = 341	48.2%	N = 134	47.5%	N = 122	48.8%	N = 84	48.3%
Women	N = 366	51.8%	N = 148	52.5%	N = 128	51.2%	N = 90	51.7%
Mean age overall	42		36		44		51	
Mean age men	43		38		46		52	
Mean age women	42		35		43		51	
Living status								
Single	N = 9	1.3%	N = 6	2.2%	N = 2	0.8%	N = 1	0.6%
Divorced	N = 12	1.7%	N = 1	0.4%	N = 4	1.6%	N = 6	3.4%
Living with partner	N = 156	22.1%	N = 103	36.5%	N = 41	16.4%	N = 12	6.9%
Married	N = 544	77.3%	N = 179	64.2%	N = 207	82.8%	N = 158	90.8%
Educational background								
Primary school	N = 2	0.3%	N = 1	0.4%	N = 1	0.4%	N = 0	0%
VMBO, LBO, LTS, Mavo	N = 103	14.6%	N = 28	9.9%	N = 44	17.6%	N = 31	17.8%
MBO, Havo, VWO, HBS, MMS	N = 281	39.7%	N = 99	35.1%	N = 102	40.8%	N = 80	46.0%
HBO, University	N = 317	44.8%	N = 152	53.9%	N = 102	40.8%	N = 62	35.6%
Not mentioned	N = 4	0.6%	N = 2	0.7%	N = 1	0.4%	N = 1	0.6%
Hours spent at work (men)								
Contract	37.3		37.8		36.3		38.0	
Actual	41.1		41.8		40.2		41.6	
Hours spent at work (women)								
Contract	23.1		24.0		22.7		22.0	
Actual	24.7		24.9		24.8		24.3	

Figure 2: Demographic information about the total sample and for each of the three parenting stages.

### Procedure

For this study an existing dataset was used. Data was partly collected in the fall of 2008 and in the spring of 2009 by, respectively, bachelor and premaster students of the Tilburg University in the Netherlands. These students, who participated in a research practicum to get familiar with doing research themselves, had to distribute questionnaires to at least four working couples with children (i.e. eight parents) via their own network. Each questionnaire was accompanied with a cover letter, which stated that, among other things, this was a research of the Tilburg University and that anonymity was guaranteed. The respondents returned the questionnaire by e-mail or by a closed envelope which was enclosed. Additional data was collected in the summer of 2009 by three master students in order to improve the representatives of the sample, reflecting the Dutch population of working parents. For this purpose, working parents in

underrepresented branches were approached following the same data collection procedure as the bachelor and premaster students. Both waves of data were merged into one dataset that is used for this study.

### *Measurements*

*Negative work-home conflict* was measured using eight items derived from the SWING-questionnaire developed by Geurts et al. (2005). These items assess whether home demands are negatively influenced by the work demands of the respondents. An example question was: "How often does it happen that you find it difficult to fulfil your domestic obligations because you are constantly thinking about your job?" The response scale existed of a four point Likert-type scale (1= never, 4= always). Geurts et al. (2005) indicated that these eight items measure one construct (i.e. negative work-home conflict). To test if these items measured the same construct in this sample too, a Principal Components Analysis (hereafter PCA) was performed. The results revealed a one factor solution with an eigenvalue above 1, explaining 45.48% of the variance. As can be seen in Table 1 in Appendix B, all items loaded strongly on this one factor only. Concerning the reliability of this eight- item scale, Geurts et al. (2005) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .85. In the current study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .82. Since scales with an alpha of .70 are acknowledged to be reliable (Nunnally, 1978), this scale can be considered as such.

*Supportive environment* was measured through the accumulation of two subscales of the work-home culture scale of Dikkers et al. (2007). These subscales, *supervisor's* and *colleague's support* were originally developed by Dikkers et al (2004). In this study, the overall variable *supportive environment* was used in the analyses. However, for certain additional analyses the distinction between the two subscales was made to identify which kind of support had the strongest effect. The subscale *supervisor's support* consists of three items. An example item is: "My supervisor supports employees who (temporarily) want to reduce their working hours for private reasons." Respondents answered on a five point Likert-scale ranging from "totally disagree" (=1) to "totally agree" (=5), with higher scores indicating higher levels of support. The subscale *colleague's support* contained of four items of which an example question was: "My colleagues help me out when I am (temporarily) preoccupied with my care responsibilities." Again, answers ranged from "totally disagree" (=1) to "totally agree" (=5), with higher scores indicating higher levels of support. As a result, the overall variable *supportive environment* consisted of a total of seven items.

To verify whether *supervisor's support* and *colleague's support* were two separate constructs, necessary for the additional analyses mentioned earlier on, a PCA was executed. PCA and Catell's scree test, however, revealed only one component, with an eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 55.27% of the variance. Although these results did not support the existence of two separate constructs, it did support the notion that these seven items in total measured the overall variable *supportive environment*. The reliability analysis found a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .85 (Table 2, Appendix B), suggesting a very good internal consistency (Nunnally, 1978).

Nevertheless, this study wants to additionally investigate which of the two kinds of support has the

greatest effect on the actual up take of WHAs by working parents and their turnover intentions. Hence, despite the fact that *supervisor's support* and *colleague's support* did not seem to be two distinct constructs, they still will be considered as such. Support for this decision is given by the reliability of the two separate subscales. According to Dikkers et al. (2007), both subscales have a good internal consistency, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .82 for supervisor's support and .76 for colleague's support. In the current study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient were .84 and .79 respectively.

In order to test hypothesis 4, a cut-off point of the variable supportive environment was required. The median (3.71) was chosen as an appropriate point to separate the working parents in the sample into two categories, namely parents who perceive a 1) less supportive environment (0 through 3.71) and those who perceive a 2) more supportive environment (3.72 through 5). Additionally, a dummy variable was created with *less supportive environment* as the reference group.

*Utilization of WHAs* was assessed by asking respondents which of the 17 indicated arrangements they used. These 17 arrangements included: (a) extended maternal leave, (b) extended parental leave, (c) extended paternity leave, (d) additional financial childcare support (by employer), (e) childcare within the organization, (f) childcare mediation by the organization, (g) working from home, (h) teleworking, (i) duo jobs, (j) 4x9 workweeks, (k) flexible start- and finish times, (l) block hours (obligated presence within previously determined times, with more flexibility beyond these times), (m) unpaid leave, (n) build up leave, (o) sabbatical leave, (p) life-course saving, and (q) return agreement (agreement to be hired after contract termination because of childcare). Respondents could answer whether or not (yes or no) they used these arrangements at that moment or whether these arrangements were not applicable to them (n/a). The total number of yes responses constituted the measure and the score could range from zero (none of the arrangements are used) to 17 (all arrangements are used).

For explorative purposes, these WHAs will sometimes be divided in *care related* and *flexible* arrangements. Based on descriptive analysis, revealing which arrangements were used the most by working parents in this research sample, four arrangements were selected to reflect each of these two types of arrangements; *care related* arrangements existed of extended maternal leave, extended parental leave, additional financial childcare support (by employer) and childcare within the organization; and *flexible* arrangements consisted of working from home, teleworking, flexible start- and finish times and block hours (obligated presence within previously determined times, with more flexibility beyond these times).

*Turnover intention* was tested using a three-item scale developed by Valentine, Greller and Richtermeyer (2006). These items determine to which extent respondents are thinking about leaving the organization. An example item was: "I expect to be with another company soon." The response scale existed of a five point Likert-scale ranging from "totally disagree" (=1) to "totally agree" (=5), with higher averaged values indicating increased turnover intentions. Valentine et al. (2006) reported that these three items measure one construct (i.e. turnover intentions). Again, it

was tested if this was true for the current sample as well. PCA and Catell's scree test revealed one factor solution with an eigenvalue above 1, explaining 80.53% of the variance (Table 3, Appendix B). According to Valentine et al. (2005), this scale has good internal consistency, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient reported of .90. In the current study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .87, which can be considered reliable since it surpasses the minimum value of .70 (Nunnally, 1978).

*Parenting stage* was assessed by categorizing the respondents according to the age of their youngest resident child. The question "If you have (resident) children, please write down their age" consisted of two answering categories of which one specifically focused on the age of the youngest resident child. This question was therefore used to measure the age of the youngest resident child. However, this continuous variable needed to be converted into categories reflecting the three different parenting stages. Therefore the use of dummy variables was required. The age categories used were 0-4, 5-12 and 13-18, representing the early, middle and late parenting stage respectively. According to Keith (2006) there is a need to create as many dummy variables as there are categories, minus 1. Since three categories were distinguished, two dummy variables were needed: one for the middle parenting stage (i.e. the age category 5-12), this dummy gave values of 1 to respondents with children in this age category and zeros to the contrasting categories; and one for the late parenting stage (i.e. the age category 13-18), again, giving values of 1 to respondents with children in this age category and zeros to the contrasting categories. The age category 0-4 acted as the control group, assigning zeros for both dummy variables. This resulted in three groups of parents, in different parenting stages, for which the different relations, concerning WHC, the use of WHAs and turnover intentions, were explored. As mentioned earlier on, these age categories slightly deviate from those used by other authors who generally made a distinction between the ages of 0-5, 6-12 and 13-18 (Higgins et al., 1994; Darcy & McCarthy, 2007). The reason for this divergence is based on the Dutch institutional context in which the school system and the compulsory education law differ with other countries. The main difference between the Netherlands and, for example the USA, is the age at which children attend school. Whereas children in the USA are generally obligated to go to school at the age of six, most children in the Netherlands go to school by the age of four (and are obliged to do so within the first month after turning five). This causes a shift in the amount of years a child spends at home before attending school and/or in which the working parents have to arrange childcare themselves.

#### *Control variables*

To test the model on outside influences, the following control variables were used; gender and educational level. Gender is used as a control variable since previous research has shown that men and women differ in their intentions to quit, with women having more turnover intentions than men (Batt & Valcour, 2003). In addition, the literature also reveals differences in the use of WHAs among men and women, indicating that women utilize these arrangements more often than men do (Hill, et al., 2008; den Dulk & Peper, 2007; Dijkers et al., 2004). The question 'Are you a ...' with answering categories (1) male and (2) female was used to assess the gender of the respondents.

Previous research has shown that the educational level of employees has an effect on their turnover intentions; employees who are higher educated are more likely to quit (Blomme, van Rheede & Tromp, 2010; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008). Moreover, educational level also has an effect on the utilization of WHAs. It seems that higher educated employees use more WHAs (CBS, 2009b). Educational level was measured by the question 'What is your highest achieved education?' with answering categories (1) primary school, (2) VMBO, LBO, LTS, Mavo, (3) MBO, Havo, VWO, HBS, MMS and (4) HBO, University.

### *Analyses*

Before the execution of the PCAs and reliability analyses, the data was checked for outliers and missing values by making use of the statistical analyzing program SPSS. The outliers that did occur were restored after verifying the original answers given in the specific questionnaires. Descriptive analyses were performed to detect the percentages of missing values and revealed no extremely high numbers of unexpected missing data for the research variables. For the statistical analyses, the option pairwise exclusion was used to deal with these missing values. With this option, cases are excluded only if they have missing data that is required for the specific analysis (Pallant, 2007). Furthermore, the assumption of normality was tested and indicated that the scores were reasonably normal. To test the hypotheses of this study, multiple regression analyses have been used. For the hypotheses with an interaction effect (hypotheses 2b, 3b and 4), sequential regression analyses were used. With this type of regression analysis the variables are entered into the regression equation one at a time, in some order determined in advance by the researcher. In all analyses the independent variables were entered in the first model; the control variables in the second model, and; the interaction variables in the third model.

## **Results**

### **Descriptive analysis**

The means, standard deviations and correlations of the research variables in this study, are provided in Table 1. Table 1 shows that when the environment is considered more supportive, the lower the feelings of WHC are ( $r=-.20$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). The sub dimensions of this variable, supervisor's and colleague's support, also significantly and negatively correlate with feelings of WHC. On average, the respondents reported their colleagues as moderately more supportive ( $M=3.74$ ,  $SD=.73$ ) than their supervisors ( $M=3.54$ ,  $SD=.90$ ). Not surprisingly, supervisor and colleague support correlate significantly with each other ( $r=.59$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). This finding was expected since the PCA performed already showed their relatedness. Since the correlation of .59 seemed quite high,

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Negative WHC <sup>a</sup>	1.867	.443										
2. Utilization WHAs <sup>a</sup>	1.402	1.405	.074									
3. Supportive environment <sup>a</sup>	3.650	.718	-.196**	.026								
4. Supervisor support <sup>a</sup>	3.537	.903	-.210**	.063	.882**							
5. Colleague support <sup>a</sup>	3.737	.729	-.137**	-.015	.900**	.588**						
6. Turnover intentions <sup>a</sup>	2.180	1.124	.187**	.067	-.213**	-.247**	-.143**					
7. Early Parenting stage (N) =	282		.057	.011	.084*	.117**	.036	.069				
8. Middle parenting stage (N) =	250		-.052	.022	-.069	-.085*	-.040	-.032	-.604**			
9. Late parenting stage (N) =	174		-.007	-.038	-.018	-.038	.004	-.042	-.466**	-.423**		
10. Gender <sup>b</sup>	-	-	-.060	-.102*	.121**	.078*	.141**	-.088*	.010	-.010	-.001	
11. Educational level	3.300	.721	.211**	.263*	-.036	-.017	-.038	.135**	.156**	-.075*	-.094*	-.059

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

<sup>a</sup> Higher values reflect a greater degree of the variable

<sup>b</sup> Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

the assumption of collinearity was checked<sup>1</sup>. Collinearity occurs when there are several independent variables that more or less measure the same construct and therefore correlate at a high level with one another (i.e. they overlap (almost) completely). When ignored, this can result in misleading regression results (Keith, 2006). According to Pallant (2007), one way to spot the possibility of collinearity is to assess the tolerance- and Variance inflation factor (hereafter VIF)-values, which can be analysed in SPSS by performing collinearity diagnostics on the used research variables. 'Tolerance is an indicator of how much of the variability of the specified independent is not explained by other independent variables in the model...' (Pallant, 2007, p.156). One can speak of collinearity if the tolerance-value is less than .10 and if VIF-values exceed 10 (Pallant, 2007). Keith (2006) states a more rigid cut-off, namely VIF-values larger than 6 or 7, signal the presence of collinearity. Results show a tolerance value of .65, exceeding the minimum of .10 sufficiently, and a VIF-value of 1.53, which is well below the required value of 10 according to Pallant (2007) and also well below the value of 6 or 7 stated by Keith (2006). These results indicated that the collinearity assumption was not violated. However, suppression effects could also form a problem (see further).

Furthermore, Table 1 shows a significant positive correlation between turnover intentions and WHC ( $r=.19, p<0.01$ ) and significant negative correlations between turnover intentions and perceptions of a supportive environment ( $r=-.21, p<0.01$ ); supervisor support ( $r=-.25, p<0.01$ ); and colleague support ( $r=-.14, p<0.010$ ). However, no significant correlation was found between turnover intentions and the utilization of WHAs ( $r=.07, p=0.12$ ).

<sup>1</sup> N.b. Obviously, supervisor's and colleague's support also correlated highly with supportive environment, .882\*\* and .900\*\* respectively, since the 'overall' variable supportive environment consists of an accumulation of these two 'sub' dimensions. Because the 'overall' and 'sub' dimensions are not taken together in the analyses, but separately, testing the assumption of collinearity was considered unnecessary.

In contrast with the expectations, no significant correlation was found between the number of used WHAs and WHC ( $r=-.07$ ,  $p=0.18$ ). Unfortunately, these results imply that increased feelings of WHC will not lead to the use of more WHAs.

Women were found to use significantly less WHAs ( $t(541) = -2.39$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and had fewer turnover intentions than men ( $t(692) = -2.33$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). These results deviate from those found in earlier research (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Dikkers et al., 2004; den Dulk & Peper, 2007). Likewise, a positive correlation was found between educational level and the utilization of WHAs ( $r=.26$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) and turnover intentions ( $r=.14$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). These findings are in line with previous research (Blomme et al., 2010; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008; CBS, 2009b). An interesting finding was the positive relationship between educational level and feelings of WHC, indicating that the more educated working parents are, the more WHC they will experience ( $r=.21$ ,  $p<0.01$ ).

With regard to the parenting stages, Table 1 shows two significant correlations for the early parenting stage, namely with supportive environment ( $r=.08$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and supervisor support ( $r=.12$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). The middle parenting stage only correlates significantly, though negatively, with supervisor support ( $r=-.09$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). All these three parenting stages correlate significantly and negatively with each other since they are created as categories from a continuous variable (age of youngest resident child).

## Regression analyses

### *Parenting stage and WHC*

Hypothesis 1 predicted that parents in the early parenting stage experience more WHC than parents in the middle and late parenting stage. To test this hypothesis a multiple regression analysis was used. First, the two dummy variables (with the early parenting stage as reference group)<sup>2</sup> were entered as independent variables and WHC as the dependent variable. This model explained 0.4% of the variance in WHC and indicated a non-significant relationship,  $F(2, 683) = 1.27$ ,  $p=.28$  (Table 2). After adding the control variables gender and educational level as independent variables, the second model explained significantly more variance in WHC, namely 4.8% in total. However, the individual effects of the two parenting stages were non-significant. Therefore it must be concluded that there are no differences in the experiences of WHC for working parents in different parenting stages<sup>3</sup>. Hence, hypothesis 1 is rejected.

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<sup>2</sup> Since the middle and late parenting stage will be included together in the analyses, no conclusions can be drawn about the possible differences between these two stages. Therefore, in the examination of the upcoming hypotheses, additional analyses were performed in which the middle parenting stage acted as reference group. The findings are reported in a footnote. Since the main focus of this study is upon the comparison between the middle and late parenting stage as opposed to the early one, these additional analyses can be viewed as an attempt to broaden our understanding of the effects for different parenting stages. Hence, no further attention will be given to explain the differences between these two parenting stages if they occur.

<sup>3</sup> The additional analysis, in which the middle parenting stage was used as reference group, revealed no significant differences between the middle and late parenting stage for experiences of WHC (Table 2a, Appendix C).

Table 2: Multiple regression predicting WHC, standardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
Dum_Middle parenting stage	-.067	-.039
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.035	-.004
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.048
Educational level		.205***
R <sup>2</sup>	.004	.048
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.004	.044***
F	1.265	8.579***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

### *WHC and turnover intentions*

To test hypothesis 2a, the more WHC working parents experience, the more turnover intentions they will have, negative WHC was entered as independent variable and turnover intentions as dependent variable in step 1. This model explained 3.5% variance in turnover intentions and indicated a significant (positive) relationship,  $F(1, 676) = 24.38, p < .001$  (Table 3). After the addition of the control variables, the second model explained 5.0% of the variance in turnover intentions and also indicated a significant relationship,  $F(3, 674) = 11.76, p < .001$ . These results confirmed hypothesis 2a.

Table 3: Multiple regression predicting turnover intentions, standardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
WHC	.187**	.162***
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.073
Educational level		.097*
R <sup>2</sup>	.035	.050
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.035***	.015**
F	24.382***	11.756***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

### *WHC and turnover intentions: The moderating effect of parenting stage*

Hypothesis 2b predicted that experiences of WHC have a greater effect on turnover intentions for working parents in the early parenting stage as opposed to working parents in the middle and late parenting stage. To test the interaction effect of parenting stage, sequential regression analysis was used. In the first step WHC and the two dummy variables (with the early parenting stage as reference group) were entered as independent variables and explained 3.8% of

the variance in turnover intentions (Table 4). In this first model, only the individual effect of WHC was significant, which is in line with the results of hypothesis 2a. The second model explained 5.2% of the variance and indicated a significant relationship ( $F(5, 672) = 7.37, p < .001$ ). Both control variables, which were entered in this second model, were found to be significant. Finally, the interaction variables were entered in the third model. However, they did not have a significant influence on turnover intentions. Since the effect of WHC on having turnover intentions seemed to be the same for all parents, regardless of the parenting stage they are situated in, hypothesis 2a is rejected<sup>4</sup>.

Table 4: Multiple regression predicting turnover intentions, unstandardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
WHC	.466***	.409***	.614***
Dum_Middle parenting stage	-.114	-.091	.662
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.160	-.128	.620
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.165	-.167*
Educational level		.140*	.153*
Dum_Age5tm12*WHC			-.400
Dum_Age13tm18*WHC			-.399
R <sup>2</sup>	.038	.052	.058
$\Delta R^2$	.038***	.014**	.125
F	8.977***	7.366***	5.875***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

### *WHC and the utilization of WHAs*

Hypothesis 3a stated that the more WHC working parents experience, the more they actually will make use of WHAs. However, the first model in which the utilization of WHAs was entered as the dependent variable and WHC as the independent variable explained 0.5% of the variance and indicated only a marginal significant relationship,  $F(1, 530) = 2.91, p = .09$  (Table 5). After the addition of the control variables, the second model explained significantly more variance in the utilization of WHAs. Nevertheless, the individual effect of WHC changed from being marginally significant to completely non-significant ( $\beta = .02, p = .73$ ). By studying the individual effects, both control variables were found to influence the use of WHAs: educational level had the strongest effect ( $\beta = .25, p < .001$ ) followed by gender ( $\beta = -.09, p < .05$ ). Therefore, no support was found for hypothesis 3a; higher levels of WHC do not lead to the use of more WHAs.

<sup>4</sup> The additional analysis performed in order to reveal any possible differences between the middle and late parenting stage, revealed no significant difference between these two parenting stages on turnover intentions (Table 4a, Appendix C).

Table 5: Multiple regression predicting utilization of WHAs, standardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
WHC	.074	.015
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.086*
Educational level		.254***
R <sup>2</sup>	.005	.077
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.005	.071***
F	2.906	14.646***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Since previous research often distinguishes these arrangements in *care related arrangements* (e.g. arrangement which enables employees to fulfil their care-giving responsibilities, including parental leave and subsidized childcare) and *flexible arrangements* (e.g. arrangements which provide employees more flexibility to arrange their working times and/or working place, including flexible starting and finishing times and teleworking) (Dijkers et al., 2004; Dijkers et al., 2007; Batt & Valcour, 2003), post hoc analyses were performed to see if different results arose by making this distinction. Nonetheless, the two multiple regression analyses revealed no significant relations (Table 5a and 5b, Appendix C).

#### *WHC and the utilization of WHAs: The moderating effect of parenting stage*

To test if the relation between experiences of WHC and the utilization of WHAs was different for parents in the early parenting stage (hypothesis 3b), WHC and the two dummy variables (with the early parenting stage as reference group) were entered as independent variables in step 1 of the sequential regression analysis. This first model explained 0.7% of the variance in the utilization of WHAs, and was non-significant (Table 6). After adding the control variables, the second model explained 7.8% variance and indicated a significant relationship ( $F(5, 526) = 8.96, p < .001$ ). The third model, in which the interaction variables were entered, explained 9.7% of the variance in which both interaction variables had a significant influence on the utilization of WHAs. In contrast with the expectations, and as can be seen in Figure 3, the effect seemed stronger for working parents in the late parenting stage (followed by the middle parenting stage). Therefore, no support was found for hypothesis 3b<sup>5</sup>.

To explore if these results differ when the WHAs were divided into *care related* and *flexible* arrangements, additional sequential regression analyses were executed. The first model, in which the two dummy variables and WHC were entered as predictors, explained 2.5% in the use of *care related* arrangements and indicated a significant relation (Table 6b, Appendix C). Both the middle

<sup>5</sup> No significant differences between the middle and late parenting stage were found when the former stage was used as reference group (Table 6a, Appendix C).

and late parenting stage had a significant *negative* effect upon the use of care related arrangements, indicating that both stages used significantly less of these arrangements than working parents in the early parenting stage. After controlling for gender and educational level, the second model explained 3.1% variance and also indicated a significant relation. In this second model the middle and late parenting stage still used significantly less care related arrangements than working parents in the early parenting stage. The third model did not explain any additional variance in the use of care related arrangements; the individual effects of the middle and late parenting stage disappeared and the two interaction terms were non-significant as well. Consequently, it must be concluded that the effect of WHC on the use of care-related arrangements is the same for all parents, regardless of the parenting stage they are situated in<sup>6</sup>.

The sequential regression analysis with the *flexible* arrangements as dependent variable found no significant additional explained variance after the addition of the interaction variables as well (Table 6c, Appendix C). The results did indicate that working parents in the middle parenting stage used significantly more flexible arrangements than working parents in the early parenting stage, even after controlling for gender and educational level<sup>7</sup>.

Table 6: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of WHAs, unstandardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	1	2	3
WHC	.236	.053	-.389*
Dum_Middle parenting stage	.034	.126	-1.298*
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.106	.014	-1.859**
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.241*	-.238*
Educational level		.502***	.474***
Dum_Middle parenting stage*WHC			.752*
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			1.001**
R <sup>2</sup>	.007	.078	.097
$\Delta R^2$	.007	.072***	.018**
F	1.235	8.961***	8.021***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

<sup>6</sup> The analysis performed with the middle parenting stage as reference group showed that the effect of WHC on the utilization of *care related* arrangements did not differ for parents in the middle and late parenting stages as well. However, after controlling for gender and educational level, it seemed that the early parenting stage used significantly more care related arrangements than the middle parenting stage. The late parenting stage, however, did not significantly differ in the use of care related WHAs compared to the middle parenting stage (Table 6d, Appendix C).

<sup>7</sup> The additional analysis did not reveal any difference between experiences of WHC and the use of *flexible* WHAs for the middle and late parenting stage. However, in line with previous results, it seemed that parents in the early parenting stage used significantly less flexible arrangements than parents in the middle parenting stage (even after controlling for gender and educational level). The late parenting stage, on the other hand, did not differ in the use of flexible arrangements compared to the middle parenting stage (Table 6e, Appendix C).

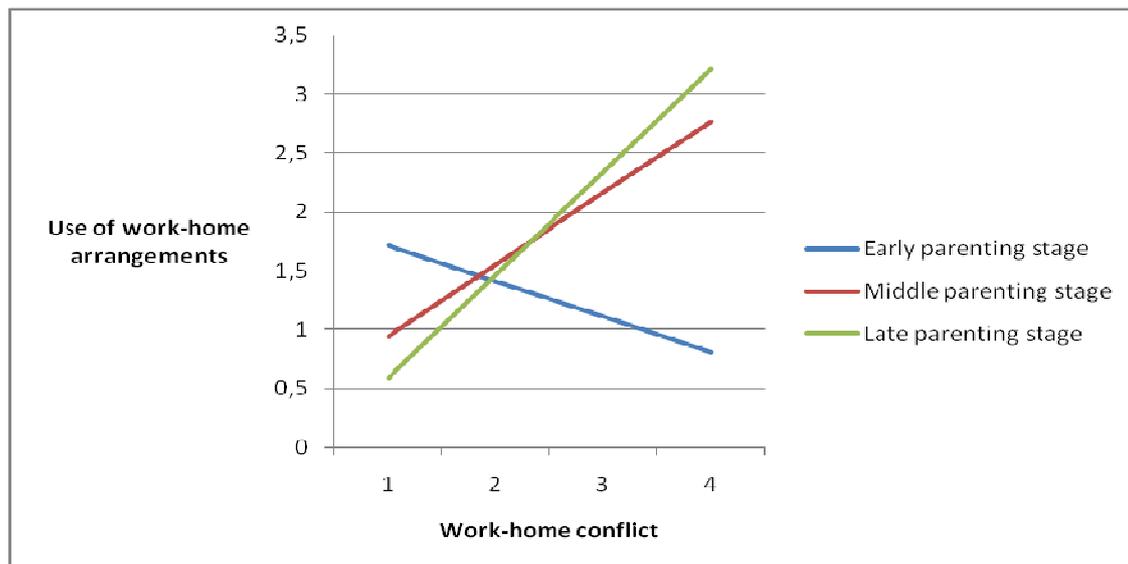


Figure 3: Interaction between the parenting stages and WHC on the use of WHAs

#### *WHC and the utilization of WHAs: The moderating effect of supportive environment*

Sequential regression was used to examine the interaction effect in hypothesis 4 (the relationship between WHC and the utilization of WHAs will be stronger for working parents who experience a more supportive environment than for working parents who experience a less supportive environment). In the first step WHC and the dummy variable for supportive environment (with less supportive environment as reference group) were entered as independent variables and the utilization of WHAs as dependent variable. This model explained 1.6% of variance and indicated a significant relationship (Table 7). After adding the control variables in the second step, the model explained significantly more variance. Finally, the interaction effect of WHC and supportive environment was entered in step 3. Model 3 explained 9.5% of variance ( $F(5, 465) = 9.76, p < .001$ ). Although the predictive value of support increased considerably when the interaction effect was entered (from  $\beta = .33, p < .05$  to  $\beta = 1.21, p < .05$ ), the individual effect of the interaction variable did not reach adequate significance levels ( $\beta = -.48, p = .10$ ). Hence, no support was found for hypothesis 4. However, after closer examination it seemed that perceptions of having a supportive environment in itself did have a significant positive effect upon the utilization of WHAs. Hence it seems that the addition of WHC causes deviating effects. To further investigate this unexpected finding, the relation between WHC and supportive environment was explored. The results demonstrated a negative relationship between these two variables; the more WHC working parents experience, the lower their perceptions of a supportive environment are; and, the more supportive the environment is perceived by working parents, the less WHC they have (Table 7a).

As was stated earlier on, the separate effects of supervisor and colleague support would only be explored if the main effect of supportive environments was found to be significant. Since this latter condition was not met, no additional analysis was performed to verify the separate effects of supervisor and colleague support.

Additional analyses, in which the distinction was made between *care related* and *flexible* arrangements, revealed no deviating results for care related WHAs (Table 7b, Appendix C). On the other hand, a more surprising and certainly unexpected finding was related to the use of flexible WHAs. Sequential regression analysis revealed that working parents who experience WHC use *fewer* flexible WHAs when they perceive their environment as *more* supportive (Table 7c). Figure 4 shows that when feelings of WHC increase, working parents' use of flexible WHAs decrease when they perceive their environment as more supportive.

Table 7: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of WHAs, unstandardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
WHC	.295*	.114	.313
Dum_Supportive environment <sup>a</sup>	.294*	.327*	1.208*
Gender <sup>b</sup>		-.290*	-.289*
Educational level		.491***	.489***
Dum_Supportive environment*WHC			-.480
R <sup>2</sup>	.016	.090	.095
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.016*	.074***	.005
F	3.801*	11.465***	9.757***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup> Supportive environment was coded 0 (less supportive environment) and 1 (more supportive environment)

<sup>b</sup> Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 7a: Multiple regression predicting 1) WHC and 2) Supportive environment, standardized coefficients

<i>1) Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>2) Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
Dum_Supp. environment <sup>a</sup>	-.183***	-.174***	WHC	-.183***	-.178***
Gender <sup>b</sup>		-.021	Gender		.144***
Educational level		.205***	Educational level		.020
R <sup>2</sup>	.033	.076	R <sup>2</sup>	.033	.054
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.033***	.043***	Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.033***	.021**
F	20.612***	16.369***	F	20.612***	11.344***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup> Supportive environment was coded 0 (less supportive environment) and 1 (more supportive environment)

<sup>b</sup> Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 7c: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of *flexible WHAs*, unstandardized coefficients

Model	1	2	3
WHC	.166	.012	.188
Dum_Supportive environment <sup>a</sup>	.143	.179	.957*
Gender <sup>b</sup>		-.301**	-.300**
Educational level		.413***	.411***
Dum_Supportive environment*WHC			-.424*
R <sup>2</sup>	.008	.105	.113
$\Delta R^2$	.008	.098***	.007*
F	1.917	14.767***	12.705***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Supportive environment was coded 0 (less supportive environment) and 1 (more supportive environment)

<sup>b</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

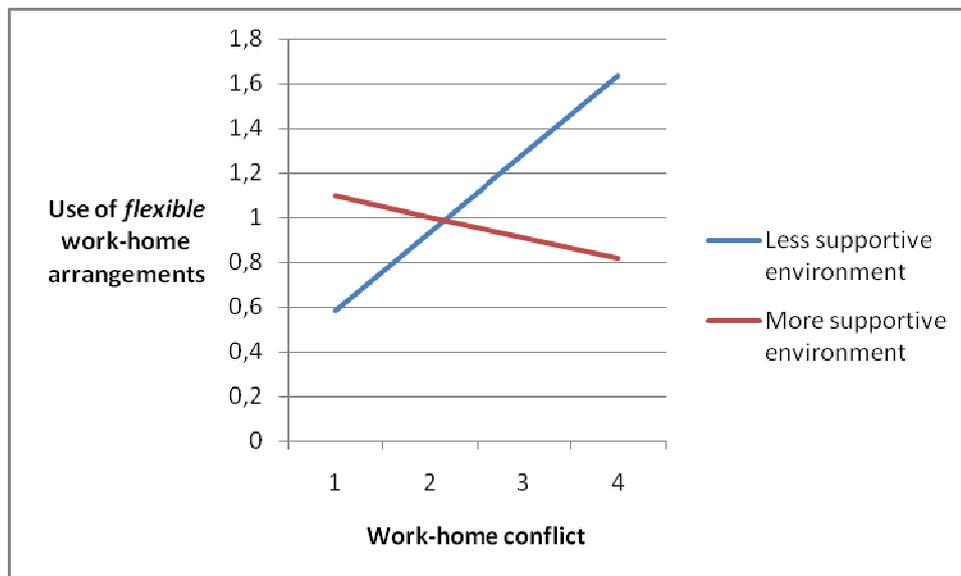


Figure 4: Interaction between perceptions of a supportive environment and WHC on the use of *flexible WHAs* among working parents

#### Supportive environment and turnover intentions

For examining the assumed negative relation between perceptions of a supportive environment and having turnover intentions (hypothesis 5), a multiple regression analysis was executed. Results showed that perceptions of a supportive environment explained 4.5% of the variance in turnover intentions and indicated a significant relationship (Table 8, left side). The second model, in which the control variables gender and educational level were added, also indicated a significant relationship. As expected, perceptions of a supportive environment had a significant negative effect upon turnover intentions ( $\beta = -.20$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Therefore, the assumption that the more supportive the environment is perceived by working parents the fewer turnover intentions they will have, is accepted.

It was stated earlier on, however, that when this hypothesis was proven to be correct, an additional analysis would be performed to assess which of the two types of support (supervisor's or colleague's support) would be considered as most important by working parents. Since the assumption of collinearity was not violated, as was stated earlier on, supervisor and colleague support were firstly entered together in the analysis. Table 8 (right side) shows that the model in which the control variables were included, explained an additional 2.1% of the variance in turnover intentions, with a total of 8.2%, and indicated a significant relation ( $F(4, 655) = 14.64, p < .001$ ). Nonetheless, only supervisor support had a significant negative effect upon turnover intentions ( $\beta = -.25, p < .001$ ). Remarkably, colleague support appeared to have a positive and non-significant relation with turnover intentions. This conspicuous finding was considered to be a reason to analyse both types of support separately from each other. These findings demonstrated that when supervisor support was entered as single dependent variable (i.e. next to the control variables), it had a significant negative relationship with turnover intentions ( $\beta = -.24, p < .001$ ). Furthermore, in the analysis with colleague support as independent variable, there was also a significant negative relation found with turnover intentions after controlling for gender and educational level ( $\beta = -.13, p < .001$ ). These mixed findings quite possibly suggested the presence of a suppression effect in which the predictive value of colleague support is absorbed by supervisor support since these two types of support are highly correlated (see Table 1). Nevertheless, the aim of this supplementary analysis was to reveal which kind of support had the strongest effect upon turnover intentions. Drawing conclusions of this sort requires the inclusion of both types of support in the analysis. Thus, although supervisor's support had the only significant effect, implying a stronger effect on turnover intentions than colleague support, this conclusion must be interpreted with caution since a suppression effect may have influenced this finding.

Table 8: Multiple regression predicting turnover intentions, standardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
Supportive environment	-.213***	-.202***	Supervisor's support	-.248***	-.250***
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.056	Colleague's support	.003	.017
Educational level		.125**	Gender		-.063
			Educational level		.128**
R <sup>2</sup>	.045	.065	R <sup>2</sup>	.061	.082
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.045***	.019**	Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.061***	.021**
F	31.066***	15.054***	F	21.293***	14.644***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

### *The utilization of WHAs and turnover intentions*

Hypothesis 6 assumed that when working parents make more use of WHAs, they would have fewer intentions to leave the organization. Multiple regression analysis showed that the actual

use of WHAs explained 0.4% of the variance in turnover intentions and indicated a non-significant relationship (Table 9). After adding the control variables, the individual effect of the utilization of WHAs was still insignificant ( $\beta = .026, p = .56$ ). However, this second model explained significantly more variance in turnover intentions ( $F = (3, 535) = 4.65, p < .010$ ). Educational level was found to influence turnover intentions ( $\beta = .12, p < .010$ ), indicating that the higher the educational level of working parents is, the more turnover intentions they will have. These results did not provide support for hypothesis 6 and had to be rejected for this reason<sup>8</sup>.

Table 9: Multiple regression predicting turnover intentions, standardized coefficients

Model	1	2
Utilization of WHAs	.067	.026
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.078
Educational level		.124**
R <sup>2</sup>	.004	.025
$\Delta R^2$	.004	.021**
F	2.387	4.645**

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

#### *Indirect effect of the utilization of WHAs*

In order to test hypothesis 7, if the utilization of WHAs mediated the relationship between WHC and turnover intentions, path analysis was considered as the appropriate analysis to be used. However, a prerequisite for analyzing the possible significance of an indirect effect is that both direct effects (i.e. the effect of the independent variable on the mediator and the effect of the mediator on the outcome variable) should be significant (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Since the direct effect of WHC on the use of WHAs (hypothesis 3a) as well as the direct effect of the use of WHAs on turnover intentions (hypothesis 6) were not significant, this criterion was not met. Hence, the indirect effect of WHC on turnover intentions through the use of WHAs must be considered insignificant. Therefore, hypothesis 7 has been rejected.

#### **Additional analyses**

Two remarkable findings, which should not be left unnoticed, were that women used significantly less WHAs and had significantly less turnover intentions in comparison with men (Table 1). Since these findings counter speak with previous research, it was found worthwhile

<sup>8</sup> A further analysis was executed to unravel any differences in these results when the distinction between *care* and *flexible arrangements* was taken into account. Nevertheless, no significant relationship was found for care related arrangements (Table 9a, Appendix C). The flexible arrangements, on the other hand, did have, in contrast with expectations, a *positive* significant influence on turnover intentions. However, after controlling for gender and educational level this effect disappeared (Table 9b, Appendix C).

attempting to recover the possible causes for these findings. The first step that was considered necessary was to find out the main differences between the working fathers and mothers in the sample. After closer examination it seemed that women worked significantly less than the working fathers ( $F(2, 689) = 371.94, p < .001$ ). As Figure 5 demonstrates, the number of women that work part-time (35 or less hours a week) is even higher compared to the number of men that work full-time (36 or more hours a week). These results are close in line with what is known as the 'one-and-a-half'- earner model (den Dulk & Peper, 2007; van Gils & Kraaykamp, 2008) in which the men work full-time and the women part-time.

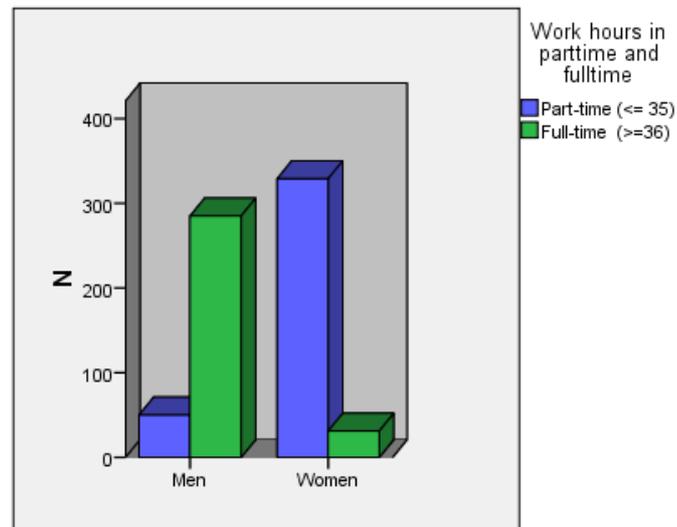


Figure 5: Diagram representing the division between males and females and the number of hours spent at work

Because it could be assumed that when women work part-time they possibly use less WHAs than when they would work full-time, this could have influenced the results of this study so far. As a result, supplementary analyses were performed to investigate if the number of hours that working fathers and mothers spent at work (as stated in their contract) predicted the use of WHAs. The outcome of the performed multiple regression revealed that there is a significant relationship between the number of hours that working parents spent at work (as stated in their contract) and the use of WHAs ( $F(1, 532) = 4.99, p < .05$ ). However, after adding the control variables, this effect disappeared ( $\beta = .01, p = .89$ ) (Table 10a, Appendix C).

Furthermore, it was investigated if the number of hours spent at work could help explain why the working mothers in this sample had significantly less turnover intentions as well. As expected, it seemed that the turnover intentions of working parents increased when they spent more hours at work. Even after the addition of the control variables this relationship remained significant ( $F(3, 679) = 8.10, p < .01$ ) (Table 10b, Appendix C). Hence, it could be assumed that the mothers in this sample have fewer turnover intentions because they work significantly less than the fathers.

These differences between the working mothers and fathers in the sample led to the decision to analyse the model separately for both sexes in order to detect if any differences in the findings so far occurred. Next, only the deviating findings will be presented.

For the sample with the working fathers, the single finding that departed from the analysis in which both sexes were included was related to hypothesis 3b. To recapitulate, this hypothesis predicted that the effect of WHC on the use of WHAs was stronger for working parents in the early parenting stage than for working parents in the middle and late parenting stage. This hypothesis was earlier rejected since the effect revealed to be stronger for parents in the late (followed by the middle) parenting stage. Results of the renewed multiple regression analysis showed that this effect was only significant for working fathers in the late parenting stage<sup>9</sup> in comparison with the early parenting stage (Table 11, Figure 6).

When the distinction between care related and flexible WHAs was taken into account, sequential regression analyses showed no deviating significant effects for care related WHAs (Table 11b, Appendix C). However, when the use of flexible WHAs was entered as dependent variable, the results revealed that working fathers who experience WHC make more use of these flexible arrangements when they are situated in the late parenting stage<sup>10</sup> as opposed to the early parenting stage (Table 11c and figure 6b, Appendix C).

Table 11: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of WHAs among working fathers, unstandardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
WHC	.031	.015	-.034
Dum_Middle parenting stage	.098	.225	-.364
Dum_Late parenting stage	.114	.176	-2.536*
Educational level		.566***	.530***
Dum_Middle parenting stage*WHC			.288
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			1.438**
R <sup>2</sup>	.006	.081	.106
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.006	.075***	.026*
F	.514	5.549***	4.985***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>9</sup> Sequential regression analysis, with the middle parenting stage as reference group, revealed that working fathers in the late parenting stage also use significantly more WHAs when they experience WHC in comparison with the middle parenting stage (Table 11a, Appendix C).

<sup>10</sup> Sequential regression analysis, with the middle parenting stage as reference group, revealed that working fathers in the late parenting stage use significantly more care related (Table 11d, Appendix C) and flexible (Table 11e, Appendix C) WHAs when they experience WHC in comparison with working fathers in the middle parenting stage.

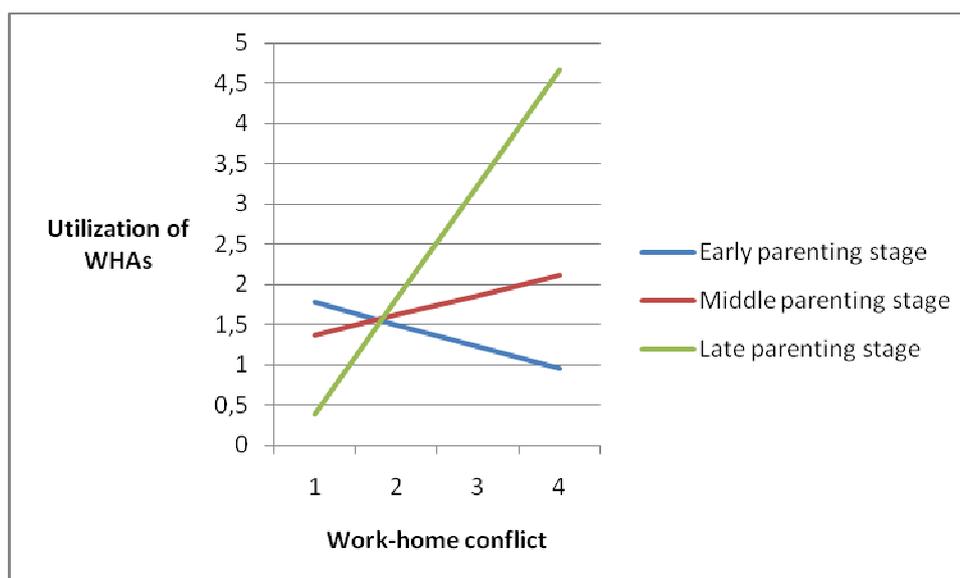


Figure 6: Interaction between the parenting stages and WHC on the use of WHAs among working fathers

For working mothers there were two contrasting findings. The first, also related to hypothesis 3b, was that the effect of WHC on the use of WHAs was different for working mothers in the middle and late parenting stage (Table 12). Although these results seemed to be in line with those for the sample with both sexes included, the effect was, however, stronger for the middle parenting stage followed by the late parenting stage<sup>11</sup> (Figure 7).

In brief, the effect of WHC on the utilization of WHAs is for working fathers only significant when they are situated in the late parenting stage, while for women the effect is significant for both the middle and late parenting stage, but the strongest for the middle parenting stage.

Table 12: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of WHAs among working mothers, unstandardized coefficients

Model	1	2	3
WHC	.021	-.001	-.072*
Dum_Middle parenting stage	-.031	.038	-2.226**
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.307	-.148	-1.719*
Educational level		.426***	.405***
Dum_Middle parenting stage*WHC			1.226**
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			.846*
R <sup>2</sup>	.013	.060	.095
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.013	.047***	.035**
F	1.192	4.325**	4.674***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>11</sup> Sequential regression analysis, with the middle parenting stage as reference group, revealed no significant difference between the late and middle parenting stage. In line with previous findings, mothers in the early parenting used significantly less WHAs when they experienced WHC compared to parents in the middle parenting stage (Table 12a, Appendix C).

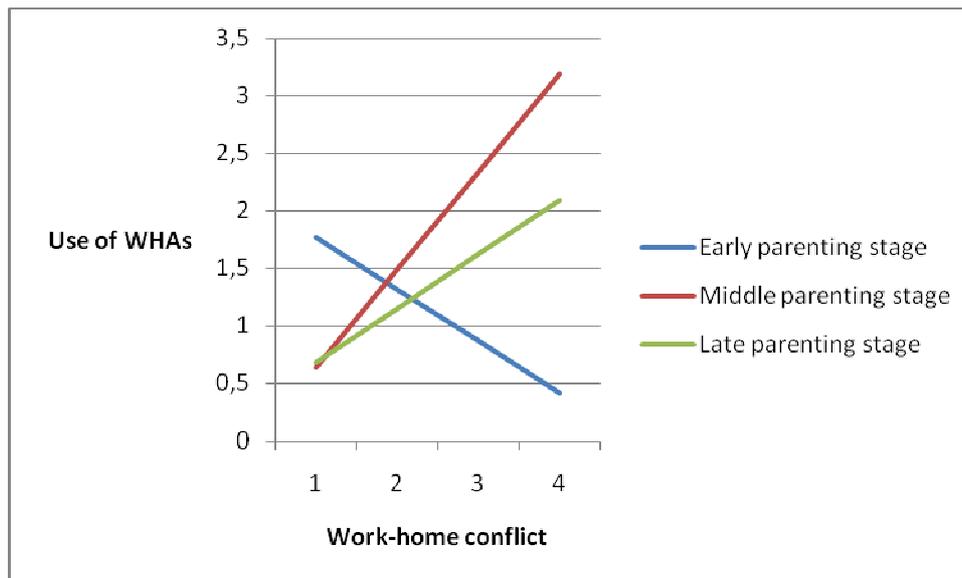


Figure 7: Interaction between the parenting stages and WHC on the use of WHAs among working mothers

The sequential regression analyses in which the WHAs were distinguished between care and flex related WHAs, demonstrated no significant effects for care related WHAs among working mothers, which is in line with the earlier findings for working fathers (Table 12b, Appendix C). For the utilization of flexible arrangements on the other hand, the results suggested that working mothers in the middle parenting stage who experience WHC, make more use of flexible arrangements than working mothers in the early parenting stage<sup>12</sup> (Table 12c and Figure 7a, Appendix C).

The second and last difference for working mothers turned out to be associated with hypothesis 2b (experiencing WHC has a greater effect on turnover intentions for working parents in the early parenting stage than for working parents in the middle and late parenting stage). Results of the renewed sequential regression analysis revealed that this effect was significant for working mothers in the late parenting stage (Table 13), implying that working mothers who experience WHC have *fewer* turnover intentions when they have children in the age category 13 up to 18 compared to parents with children in the age of 0-4<sup>13</sup> (Figure 8). This finding is in contrast with previous findings where no differences were found between the effects of WHC on turnover intentions for different parenting stages.

<sup>12</sup> Sequential regression analysis, with the middle parenting stage as reference group, revealed no differences between the late and middle parenting stage with regard to the use of care related (Table 12d, Appendix C) and flexible related WHAs. In line with previous results, the mothers in the early parenting stage used significantly less flexible WHAs when they experienced WHC compared to the middle parenting stage (Table 12e, Appendix D).

<sup>13</sup> By comparing the early and late parenting stage with the middle parenting stage, sequential regression analysis showed that working mothers in the late parenting stage, who experienced WHC, had also significant fewer turnover intentions than working mothers in the middle parenting stage (Table 13a, Appendix C).

Table 13: Multiple regression predicting turnover intentions among working mothers, unstandardized coefficients

Model	1	2	3
WHC	1.479***	1.323**	2.166***
Dum_Middle parenting stage	-.009	.052	2.451
Dum_Late parenting stage	.121	.262	3.844*
Educational level		.377	.408
Dum_Middle parenting stage*WHC			-1.286
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			-1.942*
R <sup>2</sup>	.041	.047	.059
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.041**	.006	.012
F	4.958**	4.248**	3.590**

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

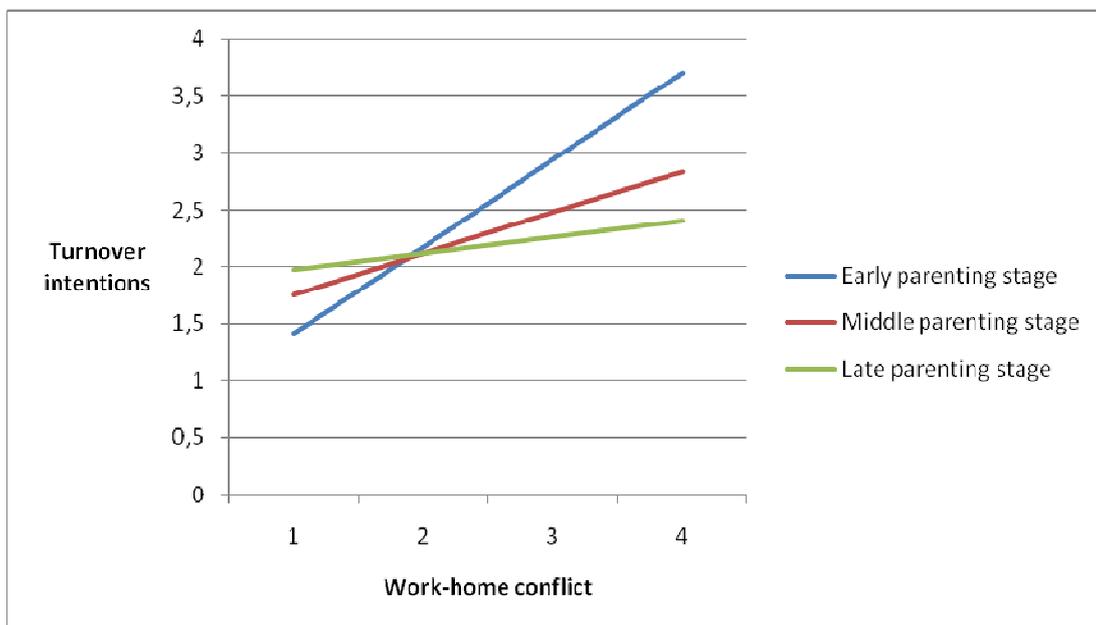


Figure 8: Interaction between the parenting stages and WHC on turnover intentions among working mothers

### Conceptual model: A summary

A summary of the findings are depicted in Figure 9. This figure shows the conceptual model that guided this study. Beta-values are given for the direct relationships and the B-values for the interaction effects<sup>14</sup>.

<sup>14</sup> The same figure has been made for the analyses with the middle parenting stage as reference group and can be found in Appendix C (Figure 8a).

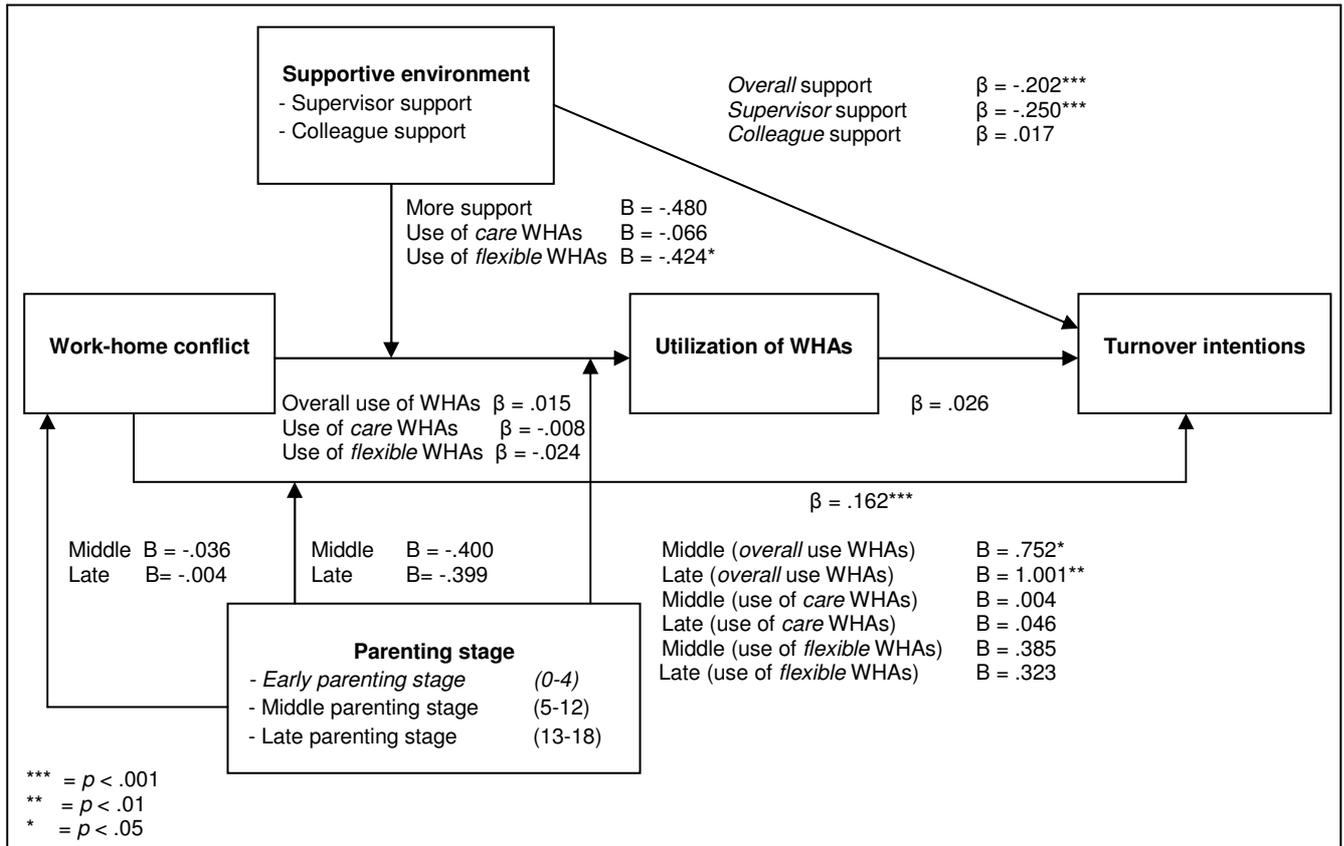


Figure 9: Conceptual model with Beta-values for the direct relationships and B-values for the interaction effects (early parenting stage as reference group).

## Conclusion and discussion

The purpose of this study is to examine if working parents who experience increased levels of WHC actually make use of more WHAs and if this utilization in turn leads to having fewer turnover intentions. Next, it is assessed, for the relations related to WHC, if the effects were different for parents in various parenting stages. Furthermore, the impact of having a supportive environment is explored. The sample consisted of 707 working parents whose data, gathered through a questionnaire, were used to analyse the different assumptions made by the researcher. This study produced several interesting and sometimes unexpected results. In line with previous research, the results supported the existence of a positive relation between WHC and turnover intentions. This study therefore once again emphasizes the important need for organizations to deal with these feelings among their employees, especially since previous research revealed that 40% of the employed parents in the Netherlands experience this type of conflict. One of the most striking finding is that having a supportive environment in itself is the best predictor for the intention to remain working among working parents, compared to the actual utilization of WHAs. With regard to the various parenting stages, the results demonstrated that parents who experience increased levels of WHC use more (flexible) WHAs when they are situated in the late and middle parenting

stage respectively, reflecting the various needs of employed parents during the life course. These, and the other results, are discussed below.

### *Parenting stage and WHC*

Contrary to previous research, this study was not able to confirm the expectation that working parents with pre-school children (early parenting stage) experience more WHC than working parents with older children (middle and late parenting stage). One possible explanation for this finding may be related to the number of women working part-time in the research sample. As mentioned earlier on, the Netherlands is known for its 'one-and-a-half'- earner model in which men work full-time and women part-time (den Dulk & Peper, 2007; van Gils & Kraaykamp, 2008). The high amount of women working part-time is a specific feature of the Dutch labour market; 75% of the women worked part-time compared to 33% in the European Union in 2007 (CBS, 2006). Additionally, since only 10% of the couples who have children work full-time in the Netherlands, compared to 30-40% in surrounding countries, it can be concluded that Dutch couples do not prefer working full-time by both spouses (van Gils & Kraaykamp, 2008). Previous research has indicated that the interest in the use of part-time employment was the highest among married mothers with young children (Wharton & Blair-Loy, 2002) and that women use part-time work more often during the life stages in which the children are in the home (Hill et al., 2008). Furthermore, Higgins, Duxbury and Johnson (2000) revealed within their study that people who worked part-time experienced significant lower levels of WHC than those who worked full-time. A reasonable explanation for this finding could be, as indicated by Allen (2001), that employees who work part-time experience greater control with regard to managing their work and non-work activities, which enable them to achieve an adequate work-family balance, resulting in experiencing lower levels of WHC. In brief, a conceivable explanation for the rejection of hypothesis 1 could be related to the predominantly number of mothers with young pre-school children in the sample who worked part-time; compared to the other two parenting stages, the number of part-time working mothers was the highest in the early parenting stage (41.2%). Working part-time places these mothers in a better position to balance their work and family demands. Consequently, this could have possible positive spill over effects upon their husbands, who in turn, by benefitting of this achieved balance, have fewer WHC feelings themselves.

Another explanation could be associated with the fact that the current study is executed in the Netherlands where, in comparison with other countries, substantial government policies are directed towards the combination between work and family care (Remery, van Doorne-Huiskes & Schippers, 2003). As Remery et al. (2003) state in their study, "this means that employers in The Netherlands are faced . . . with legal obligations to establish at least minimal arrangements to meet the needs of employees who have to combine work and care at home." (p.456). In contrast, work-family balance issues in the United States for example, are considered to be primarily a private matter which should be resolved by the individuals and families themselves (Edlund, 2007).

Therefore, the governmental policies in the Netherlands are likely to place Dutch working parents in a better position to balance work- and family demands than working parents in other countries.

#### *WHC and turnover intentions*

As was expected, the results of this study show that when working parents experience more WHC, they have more turnover intentions. This result support existing research (e.g. Kelly et al., 2008; Allen et al., 2000, Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). Since the literature has provided evidence for a positive relation between having turnover intentions and actual turnover, this finding once again emphasizes the importance for employers to direct their efforts in reducing these negative WHC feelings among their employees.

This relation, however, is not stronger for working parents in the early parenting stage. While previous research suggested that especially young pre-school children require the most time and energy demands, this does seem to make these parents more likely to have more turnover intentions when they experience WHC. Concluding however, that this relation is the same for all parents regardless of the parenting stage they are in, is not legitimate. It appears that working mothers in the late parenting stage, who experience WHC, have *fewer* turnover intentions compared with mothers in the early (and middle) parenting stage. Previous research has indicated that children of different ages place different demands on working parents (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Hill et al., 2008) and that especially younger children require the most time and energy demands (Young et al., 2007; Kelly & Voydanoff, 1985). Although children in the age of 13-18 require other demands than, for example, pre-school children, they are at an age where they, presumably, can take care of themselves to a greater extent as opposed to when they were younger (e.g. they, in general, can go to school and back home by themselves, entertain themselves during breaks and provide themselves with food). This decrease in necessary and often time constrained care responsibilities (e.g. picking the child up from school) could feasible result in fewer competing work and family demands among working mothers in this late parenting stage. Despite the fact that this study did not find any differences between the parenting stage one is situated in and experiences of WHC, it can be assumed that this reasoning could contribute to the finding that the effect of WHC on having turnover intentions is weaker for working mothers in the late parenting stage.

Another feasible explanation could be related to the negative relation that previous research found between age and turnover (e.g. Ng & Feldman, 2009). In their meta-analysis Ng and Feldman (2009) summarize diverse reasons for the differences in turnover rates among younger and older employees. One is related to the different needs of older workers as opposed to younger workers: while younger workers are more motivated to fulfil growth needs, older workers are more oriented towards maintaining the status quo. Another reason Ng and Feldman (2009) mention is associated with age discrimination in the market place which places these employees in a less favourable position to switch jobs. These reasons make older employees less likely to leave the organization to seek for alternative employment. As stated earlier, the average age of the working mothers in the late parenting stage is 51. They therefore are assumed to have other needs

and preferences than for example the mothers in the early parenting stage with an average age of 35. Therefore it could be conceivable that although these elderly working mothers experience WHC, their different needs and preferences make them less likely to leave the organization. Since previous research suggests that women perceive themselves less probable in finding good employment opportunities on the labour market than men (Mano- Negrin, 2003), this could additionally prevent these women from having the intention to quit their job. This reasoning could also contribute to the explanation why this effect was not found for working fathers.

#### *WHC and the utilization of WHAs*

Although WHAs are offered to help employees in managing their lives more effectively, increased feelings of WHC do not seem to result in the actual utilization of more of these arrangements (care related or flexible) among working parents. One possible explanation for the absence of support for this assumption could be associated with the fear for career consequences when making use of WHAs. Previous research implied that taking advantage of WHAs, and thereby visibly displaying interest in family and personal life, may be seen as a lack of commitment to the organization (Allen & Russell, 1999). Furthermore, it was stated earlier that in some organizational cultures the amount of time employees visible spent at work is seen as an indicator of their dedication and career aspirations (Lewis & Taylor, 1996 as cited in Dikkers et al., 2004; Perlow, 1995), which in turn restrains employees from taking time off to deal with family problems. Previous research indicated that unsupportive organizational cultures (i.e. with regard to work- and family issues) like these prevent employees from using WHAs (e.g. Dikkers et al., 2004, Thompson et al., 1999). Hence, it could be possible that working parents who experience WHC do not make use of WHAs in order to alleviate their problems in balancing their work- and private lives, because the fear for negative career consequences overshadows the possible benefit that can be gained in terms of reduced WHC when they actually make use of them. Another reason could be related to the nature of the problems fostering WHC. If an employee for example experience problems in performing his or her job well, or has collaboration problems, using arrangements such as flexible start and finishing times would not help solving these problems.

Another conceivable explanation could, again, be related to the large number of part-time working mothers in the sample. Earlier it was already assumed that employees who work part-time would possibly make less use of WHAs such as flexible starting and finishing times, working from home and teleworking. The additional analyses performed revealed that the more hours working parents work, the more WHAs they use<sup>15</sup>. Since the women in the sample worked significantly less than the fathers, and because previous research indicated that employees who work part-time experience lower levels of WHC than employees who work full-time (Higgins et al., 2000), this could possibly explain why this hypothesis was not supported.

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<sup>15</sup> After controlling for educational level, however, this effect disappeared (Table 10a, Appendix C).

Surprisingly, while above it is concluded that increased feelings of WHC do not result in the use of (more) WHAs, it did seem that this relation differed significantly when the various parenting stages were taken into account. Contrary to what was expected, parents in the middle and late parenting stages, who experience WHC, use more WHAs in comparison with the early parenting stage. These findings are in contrast with previous research which demonstrated that parents of young children use WHAs more frequently than working parents with older children (e.g. den Dulk & Peper, 2007; Dijkers et al., 2004). By closer inspection, it seems that working fathers who experience WHC use more flexible WHAs when they are situated in the late parenting stage, while for women the same effect revealed to be true when they are in the middle (followed by the late) parenting stage. Care related WHAs, however, remained unaffected. A possible explanation for these remarkable findings could be related to the WHAs that are used in this study. First of all the data implies that care related WHAs were less frequently used than the flexible arrangements. This could feasible be explained by the fact that three out of the four care related WHAs are supplementary to what is legally arranged in The Netherlands. This, and the fact that working part-time is not included as a form of a flexible WHA, of which previous research implied that especially mothers with young children make use of (Hill et al., 2008; Wharton & Blair-Loy, 2002), could explain why parents in the early parenting stage, when they experience WHC, do not make use of more (care or flexible) WHAs.

The finding that the effect for mothers is the strongest when they are situated in the middle parenting stage and why for fathers this is true when they are in the late parenting stage seems explainable. Children of parents in the middle parenting stage are at an age whereby they go to (primary) school. Because these schools have fixed start and finishing times, it can be assumed that mothers need more flexibility with regard to their work, to be able to conform to these time slots. It could be argued, however, that working mothers also need work flexibility when they are in the early parenting stage since they can make use of child day care facilities (26% of the children up to the age of four went to day care facilities in 2007, CBS, 2009c). Although these kinds of facilities have fixed opening hours as well, most of them are opened for at least 10 hours a day, which enables parents with sufficient time to bring their child, and to pick him or her up at the end of the day. On the other hand, an ordinary school day has a duration of about six and a half hours, with often one day a week with only three and a half hours. Although there are also facilities for child care before and after these school hours, there is only a small amount of parents who make use of these facilities (7% for children between four and twelve in 2007, CBS, 2009c). These differences in opening hours (or, in other words, the hours in which parents can 'pass on' the child care responsibilities to others) could require more flexibility for working mothers in the middle parenting stage. The same reasoning could apply for working mothers in the late parenting stage who also, but to a lesser extent than the mothers in the middle parenting stage, use more flexible WHAs when they experience WHC. As was suggested earlier, the children of these mothers are presumably at an age at which they can, for example, go to school and back home by their selves. Hence, less flexibility is required from the mothers to take care of this commuting. The reason why

they still make more use of flexible WHAs could be related to the fact that supervision over these children is still needed. Making use of flexible WHAs allows them, for example, to start an hour later at work to provide their children with breakfast and to make sure they go to school.

In brief, the day care needs of school-aged children could be viewed as more variable than those of pre-school children. Fixed opening hours, as well as summer vacations, other school holidays, teacher conference days, etc., all require more flexibility of working mothers in the middle and late parenting stage with regard to their work to deal with this shift in day care needs. This in turn could explain why the mothers in these parenting stages use more flexible WHAs when they experience WHC as opposed to parents in the early parenting stage.

A possible reason which could elucidate why working fathers use more flexible WHAs when they experience WHC in the late parenting stage could be related with their age and career pattern. The career patterns of men can typically be characterized as an uninterrupted linear progression up through the organizational ranks, whereas the career patterns of women are often complex and characterized by interruptions (Lyness & Thompson, 2000). Hence, it could be assumed that working fathers in the late parenting stage, with an average age of 52 compared to an average age of 38 for men in the early parenting stage, have achieved certain career goals and enjoy a more senior position (e.g. with more discretion) at work. This could possibly reduce their fear for career consequences which in turn should stimulate their use of these flexible arrangements. On the other hand it is also possible that these more senior aged fathers, heading for their retirement, want to take a step back in terms of rigid work-hours and work-places. Making use of the flexible arrangements allows them to do so.

#### *Interaction effect of supportive environment*

The expectation that when working parents experience increased levels of WHC, they would be more likely to use (more) WHAs when they perceived their environment (supervisors and colleagues) as more supportive than when their perceptions of the environment were less supportive, was not confirmed. Closer examination of the results revealed that having perceptions of a more supportive environment in itself does have a positive effect on the utilization of WHAs, which is in line with previous research (i.e. Breaugh & Frye, 2008; Dikkers et al., 2007). Hence, it could be assumed that having perceptions of a more supportive environment with regard to work-life issues preponderate WHC in the stimulation to use WHAs. Concluding however that this relationship is the same for all parents, irrespective of the perceptions they have with regard to their environment, seemed premature since deviating effects occurred when the distinction between care related and flexible WHAs was taken into account. In direct contrast with what was expected, the results revealed that when working parents experience more WHC, they will use *fewer* flexible WHAs when they perceive their environment as *more* supportive. This surprising finding seems hard to explain. Yet, a possible explanation could be that having a supportive environment makes using flexible WHAs less necessary among working parents who experience WHC. These parents could consider, for example, being able to talk to one' supervisor or

colleagues about the problems they experience more alleviating than making use of formal flexible WHAs. Since their environment is responsive with regard to work-life issues, this can give them a certain feeling of reassurance. Furthermore, a supervisor who is more concerned about an employee and the problems he or she experiences, will possibly allow this employee sooner to take a couple of hours off to deal with these problems than a less supportive supervisor will do. In the former example, the need to make use of flexible WHAs is less necessary than when dealing with the supervisor in the latter example. This in turn could also explain why working parents who experience more WHC make use of more flexible WHAs when they have a less supportive environment. As indicated in the example above, these parents have to rely on these arrangements to handle their problems since their supervisors are less responsive to work-home issues.

These explanations seemingly contradict the conclusion that having perceptions of a more supportive environment has a positive effect upon the use of WHAs. However, this effect only occurred in the analysis without the division between care related and flexible WHAs. Furthermore, since the addition of the interaction variable did not caused a significant increase in explained variance, it must be concluded that the effect of WHC on the use of WHAs is the same for all parents, regardless of the perceptions they have toward their environment. Although, by making the distinction between care related and flexible WHAs, this effect seemed different with regard to the use of flexible WHAs, the positive effect of a supportive environment on the use of WHAs was not found in these analyses. Hence, the above given explanations could be assumed to reasonably explain this deviating result.

#### *Supportive environment and turnover intentions*

In line with the expectation, this study confirmed that the more supportive the environment is perceived by working parents, the fewer turnover intentions they have. This finding supports previous research (i.e. Anderson et al., 2002; Thompson et al., 1999). As stated earlier on, both colleagues' and supervisors' support seem to have a negative effect upon having turnover intentions. When added together in the analysis, the results indicated that only supervisor support has the former effect. Although suppression effects may have influenced this finding, it could be concluded, with some caution, that perceptions of having a supportive supervisor is the main predictor of having intentions to remain working among working parents. Hence, this study revealed that having a supportive environment in itself is considered more important than the actual uptake of WHAs to reduce turnover intentions among working parents. These findings imply that in order to decrease the turnover intentions among employees, organization should pursue creating a supportive environment, and especially should encourage direct supervisors to be supportive towards their subordinates' work and private lives.

*The utilization of WHAs and turnover intentions*

While previous research demonstrated that employees who had access to (flexible) WHAs indicated significantly fewer turnover intentions (i.e. Grover and Crooker, 1985; Batt & Valcour, 2003), this study, by focusing on the actual use of WHAs, did not find a significant reduction in turnover intentions. The assumption that employees would perceive WHAs as a form of commitment from their employer which, according to the social exchange theory, would make them more likely to reciprocate in beneficial ways (making them less likely to have turnover intentions), had to be rejected. One possible reason for this could be that making use of WHAs does not always result in an improved work-life balance. For example, while working from home occasionally can help save commuting time for that day, which could be spent on other non-work activities, benefitting from this arrangement can be prevented when a working parent has to take care of his or her (e.g. sick) pre-school child as well. While combining these two roles is made possible by working from home, it could also hinder performing the work that has to be done, which in turn could result in decreased productivity levels and/or increased stress levels. Working in dual jobs can also be counterproductive, especially when, for example, the collaboration between both employees is laborious and communication problems occur. Another example could be related to making use of the arrangement that enables employees to work with flexible start and finishing times. It is conceivable that when an employee starts his working days earlier than others, he or she can feel troubled to leave earlier too, especially when, for example, his or her colleagues are heavily occupied and/or his or her help or expertise is needed. These examples depict that although the intentions for using the arrangements could be to alleviate problems in combining work- and private lives, they unintentionally can impede this goal resulting in no decline in turnover intentions. Yet, a second thinkable cause for this finding may be associated with the purpose to which some working parents use these arrangements. Dikkers et al. (2004) suggested in their research that employees may use certain WHAs, for example working from home occasionally, to get the work done instead of achieving an improved work-life balance. Although their research investigated the effect of the utilization of WHAs upon experiences of WHC, the same could be true for this study. Hence, when a number of working parents used certain WHAs with intentions other than to make their work and private lives more manageable, this will distort the overall image that the use of WHAs will lead to having fewer turnover intentions.

*Mediating effect of the utilization of WHAs*

The actual use of WHAs is not found to mediate the relationship between experiences of WHC and having turnover intentions. The rationale behind this assumption was the expectation that working parents who experience WHC would make use of WHAs since these arrangements are offered to help them in seeking balance between work and family demands. Hence, it was believed that making use of these WHAs in turn would lead to a better work-life balance which would manifest itself in having fewer turnover intentions. However, it must be concluded that making use of WHAs (care related or flexible) does not help reducing the turnover intentions

among working parents who experience WHC. Possible reasons for the rejection of this assumption are described in detail above.

### **Limitations and directions for future research**

There are some limitations to the present study that should be considered when interpreting the results. First and obviously, the use of a cross-sectional design makes it infeasible to make any causal inferences about the relations among WHC, the use of WHAs and turnover intentions. Furthermore, in order to draw conclusions about, for example, the effectiveness of the utilization of WHAs in terms of reduced turnover intentions, this relationship requires examination over a period of time. For example, it could be possible that working parents who indicated making use of these arrangements did not use them long enough to experience a better work-life balance, and therefore had fewer turnover intentions at that same point in time. Since some arrangements, and especially care related arrangements such as extended maternal and parental leave, are only temporarily, it is also feasible that the respondents did not use these arrangements anymore when they filled out the questionnaire, yet, they could have had fewer turnover intentions as a result of using them. Furthermore, it is also imaginable that the effect of using WHAs diminishes over time. When one starts working one day a week at home to save commuting time for example, this could yield a sense of relief in the beginning and improve the work-life balance. When time passes on however, this benefit can become taken for granted allowing other problems to disturb this balance. In order to achieve a comprehensive understanding of the processes at work, it is advised for future research to use a longitudinal research design.

A second limitation is concerned with the reliance on self-reported data in this study. This might have resulted in overestimations of the observed relationships due to common method variance, which is variance caused by the measurement method rather than by the constructs in the study (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). One of the sources for common method variance indicated in the literature, and identified by Podsakoff et al. (2003), is related to having a common rater which could result in, among other things, social desirability. With regard to the scale measuring turnover intentions, for example, it is possible that respondents were lenient in answering these items because they feared retaliation by their employer when he or she would be provided with insight in these answers. Although it was guaranteed that the data would be handled with confidence and that only the researchers were provided with insight into the answers, the same could be true, to some extent, for the variable that intended to measure the perceptions of a supportive environment. Since the correlation matrix shows no extreme correlations (i.e. which, when otherwise, could not be logically explained) and the fact that this study confirmed the existence of some relationships while others were rejected, all pleads against the influence of common method variance.

A third limitation relates to the use of self-reports with regard to turnover intentions. Kelly et al. (2008) states that such self-reports comprise less convincing data than data on actual turnover.

This study did not have actual turnover rates at its disposal, however. Although previous literature provided evidence that intentions are a good predictor of actual behaviour, any conclusions drawn about actual turnover should be considered with some caution. Future longitudinal research is needed to reveal if increased feelings of WHC, and consequently having turnover intentions, results in employees actual quitting their jobs.

The fact that this study used the age of the youngest child to anchor the different parenting stages is considered as a fourth limitation. It is more than likely that the examined relationships in this study would be different for parents with children in several age categories. Future research could re-examine the proposed relations by using several family compositions with regard to the age of the children. In relation to the use of parenting stages, it should also be noted that this is only one dimension of the life-stage concept, as Blanchard-Fields et al. (1997) indicated as well. When other dimensions of life stage are examined (such as career stage) it could be that deviating results arise. Furthermore, it is possible that some of the findings with regard to the different parenting stages may also reflect cohort or generational differences rather than the influence of the specific stage (i.e. having a child with a certain age) itself. It is thinkable that parents in the late parenting group, with an average age of 51 (originating from the Baby-boom generation) have other career and work orientations which in turn could have an influence on the various results in this study (e.g. do these older parents equally value having a supportive environment as younger parents do in their intention to remain working?).

A fifth limitation is related to the focus solely on work interfering with family life (WHC). As was stated earlier on, it is widely acknowledged that WHC is a bi-directional construct in which it is also possible that family life interferes with work (i.e. HWC). Since it is feasible that the inclusion of this side of the work-home interface could result in other findings, it is advised for future research to include both WHC and HWC.

A sixth restriction is the exclusive focus on the perceptions of a *supportive* environment in relation to the use of WHAs, while previous research has identified negative aspects that could restrain employees from using these arrangements as well (Dikkers et al., 2007). Since this 'hindrance' dimension was not included, it was not possible to test whether, for example, the fear for career consequences would be perceived as a stronger discouragement for making use of WHAs than having perceptions of a less supportive environment. Hence, for the sake of completeness, it is recommended for future research to consider both the support and hindrance dimensions.

Another limitation is connected with the use of two subscales derived from the work-home culture scale of Dikkers et al. (2007) to measure supervisor and colleague support. Although they were used as two separate constructs in this study to unravel which type of support would have the strongest effect, the presence of suppressor effects could not be ruled out. Due to the similarities between the items that intent to measure these constructs, future research that wants to make a similar distinction between supervisor and colleague support, should be aware of this concern and possibly may want to decide to alter these items or to use other ones.

Furthermore, there are some limitations related to the sample method used for this study and the sample in itself. First, since the data for this study has been gathered by students of the Tilburg University, as part of a research practicum, a convenience sample has been used. Although afterwards a stratified sample design was executed to improve the representatives of the sample, it is, due to these sampling methods, hard to generalize the results to the population of working parents in the Netherlands as a whole. Moreover, since the questionnaires were spread throughout the networks of university students, who are likely to have higher educated friends, relatives, acquaintances and colleagues, the sample is overrepresented with highly educated parents which make generalizations also problematic. For future research it is therefore recommended to use random sampling. With this method there is a better variance between individual results within the sample and within the overall population which makes it less hard to generalize. Next, as stated, the sample itself consisted of parents only. Hence, comparisons between parents and non parents could not be made in this study. Furthermore, the questionnaires were filled out by both parents, resulting in couple-level data. Hence, the data cannot be considered as fully independent, which in turn could have influenced the results of this study. Future research should take notice of these concerns and could consider including both parents and non-parents, randomly assigned men and women and people with other marital statuses (e.g. single, widower, etc.).

Next to the recommendations for future research already made above, this study revealed some additional and noteworthy research entries. First, since educational level, as a control variable, showed more than once to be related to the various variables in this study, it seems interesting for future research to give this variable a more prominent role. One possibility could be to investigate various relations for respondents with different educational backgrounds. Secondly, there also seemed to be quite some differences between the mothers and fathers in this research. Hence, it is advised to include gender in the research model or to analyse future research models for men and women separately. Third, making a distinction between men and women seems also legitimate since most women work part-time in the Netherlands. As this study already questioned, it could be that excluding this fact may affect overall findings. Consequently, future research could also consider comparing part-time and full-time working mothers or women in general. Last but certainly not least, future research should continue to pursue unravelling the possible processes that could reverse the positive relation between WHC and turnover intention in a negative one. This study already demonstrated that the actual utilization of WHAs does not have this power.

## **Practical implications**

Despite these limitations and suggestions for future research, the results of this study do have practical implications as well. There are several results that provide interesting insights for organizations. First, employers should be aware of the important role that perceptions of a supportive environment play in the intention to remain working among parents. Especially the role of supervisors seems to be pivotal in this respect. The fact that the utilization of WHAs (care

related or flexible) did not seem to reduce turnover intentions should help employers in their decision to direct their efforts at creating a (or improving the) supportive environment. Top management has to realize that showing interest and responsiveness to employees with regard to their work- and private life issues is beneficial for the organization as a whole too. They therefore should make supervisors conscious of the actions they can undertake to improve these perceptions and, in turn, should stimulate them to act upon it. This, however, by no means implies that WHAs should be written off as useless policies. The results do indicate that working mothers and fathers use these arrangements, especially flexible arrangements, at certain points in their lives when they experience WHC. Moreover, research has indicated that these arrangements are also essential benefits in attracting and retaining employees (Allen, 2001, Tower Perrin, 2006).

Furthermore, this study extends other research by focusing on specific groups of employees, namely working parents in various parenting stages. The examination of this distinction between parents disclosed diverse compelling insights. First of all, this research demonstrated that working parents do not differ in their experiences of WHC due to the age of their children, while previous research let us believe otherwise. Secondly, examining the effects for parents in different parenting stages prevented us from discarding the assumption that parents who experience increased levels of WHC make use of more WHAs. By exploring the hypotheses for working mothers and fathers as well, this study also found that working mothers who experience WHC have *fewer* turnover intentions when they have children in the age of 13-18. These findings reflect and emphasize the various needs of working parents during their life course. Organizations should acknowledge these diverse needs and take them into consideration by their attempt to reduce the feelings of WHC among their employees, for example by promoting the use of particular (flexible) WHAs among parents in specific parenting stages.

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## Appendix A: Scales

Since the questionnaire for this study was distributed in Dutch, the translation of all the items used can be found below. The items in Dutch are given in *italic*.

### Negative WHC

How often does it happen that...

(1=Never, 2=Sometimes, 3=Often, 4=always)

*Hoe vaak komt het voor dat...*

(1=Nooit, 2=Soms, 3=Vaak, 4=Altijd)

1	Your work schedule makes it difficult for you to fulfil your domestic obligations? <i>Uw werktijden het moeilijk maken om aan uw verplichtingen thuis te voldoen?</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2	You do not have the energy to engage in leisure activities with your spouse/family/friends because of your job? <i>U door uw werk geen energie heeft om met uw partner/familie/vrienden leuke dingen te doen?</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/>
3	You have to work so hard that you do not have time for any of your hobbies? <i>U zoveel werk te doen heeft dat u niet toekomt aan uw hobby's?</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/>
4	Your work obligations make it difficult for you to feel relaxed at home? <i>De eisen die uw werk aan u stelt het moeilijk maken u thuis ontspannen te voelen?</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/>
5	Your work takes up time that you would have liked to spend with your spouse/family/friends? <i>Uw werk tijd in beslag neemt die u liever aan uw partner/ familie/vrienden zou besteden?</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/>
6	You are irritable at home because your work is demanding? <i>U thuis geïrriteerd bent omdat uw werk veeleisend is?</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/>
7	You find it difficult to fulfil your domestic obligations because you are constantly thinking about your work? <i>U moeilijk aan uw verplichtingen thuis kunt voldoen, omdat u in gedachten met uw werk bezig bent?</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/>
8	You have to cancel appointments with your spouse/family/friends due to work-related commitments? <i>U afspraken met uw partner/familie/vrienden moet afzeggen vanwege werkgerelateerde verplichtingen?</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/>

### Supervisor's support

About the organization where you work

(1=Totally disagree, 2=Partial disagree, 3=Neither agree or disagree, 4=Partial agree, 5=Totally agree)

*Over de organisatie waar uw werkt*

(1=Helemaal mee oneens, 2=Gedeeltelijk mee oneens, 3=Niet eens/niet oneens, 4=Gedeeltelijk mee eens, 5=Helemaal mee eens)

1	My superior supports employees who want to switch to less demanding jobs for private reasons <i>Mijn direct leidinggevende steunt medewerkers die vanwege privéredenen naar minder zware functies over willen stappen</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2	My superior supports employees who (temporarily) want to reduce their working hours for private reasons <i>Mijn direct leidinggevende steunt medewerkers die vanwege privéredenen (tijdelijk) minder uren willen werken</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3	I am comfortable in discussing my private life with my superior <i>Ik kan met mijn direct leidinggevende goed praten over mijn privéleven</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>

### Colleague's support

About the organization where you work

(1=Totally disagree, 2=Partial disagree, 3=Neither agree or disagree, 4=Partial agree, 5=Totally agree)

*Over de organisatie waar uw werkt*

(1=Helemaal mee oneens, 2=Gedeeltelijk mee oneens, 3=Niet eens/niet oneens, 4=Gedeeltelijk mee eens, 5=Helemaal mee eens)

1	My colleagues support employees who want to switch to less demanding jobs for private reasons	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
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	<i>Mijn collega's steunen medewerkers die vanwege privéredenen naar minder zware functies over willen stappen</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2	My colleagues support employees who (temporarily) want to reduce their working hours for private reasons <i>Mijn collega's steunen medewerkers die vanwege privéredenen (tijdelijk) minder uren willen werken</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3	I am comfortable in discussing aspects of my private life with my colleagues <i>Ik kan met mijn collega's goed praten over mijn privéleven</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4	My colleagues help me out when I am (temporarily) preoccupied with my care responsibilities <i>Mijn collega's helpen me als ik het (tijdelijk) druk heb met mijn zorgtaken</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>

### Utilization of work-home arrangements

Do you make use of this arrangement at this moment?

(1=Yes, 2=No, 3=Not applicable)

*Maakt u op dit moment gebruik van deze regeling?*

*(1=Ja, 2=Nee, 3=Niet van toepassing)*

1	Extended <sup>1</sup> maternal leave <i>Ruimer<sup>1</sup> zwangerschaps- en bevallingsverlof</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
2	Extended <sup>1</sup> parental leave <i>Ruimer<sup>1</sup> ouderschapsverlof</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
3	Extended <sup>1</sup> paternity leave <i>Uitgebreid<sup>1</sup> kraamverlof vaders</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
4	Additional <sup>1</sup> financial childcare support <sup>2</sup> (by employer) <i>Extra<sup>1</sup> subsidie voor kinderopvang<sup>2</sup> (van de werkgever)</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
5	Childcare <sup>2</sup> within the organization <i>Aanbod kinderopvang<sup>2</sup> binnen de organisatie</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
6	Childcare <sup>2</sup> mediation by the organization <i>Bemiddeling kinderopvang<sup>2</sup> door de organisatie</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
7	Working from home <i>Thuiswerken</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
8	Teleworking <i>Telewerken</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
9	Duo jobs <i>Duo banen</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
10	4x9 workweeks <i>4x9 Werkweek</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
11	Flexible start- and finish times <i>Flexibele begin- en eindtijden</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
12	Block hours (obligated presence within previously determined times, with more flexibility beyond these times) <i>Bloktijden (=Verplichte aanwezigheid binnen bepaalde vooraf gestelde tijden, daar buiten flexibel)</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
13	Unpaid leave <i>Onbetaald verlof</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
14	Build up leave <i>Spaarverlof</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
15	Sabbatical leave <i>Sabbatical leave</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
16	Life-course saving <i>Levensloopregeling</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt
17	Return agreement (agreement to be hired after contract termination because of childcare) <i>Terugkeerregeling (=Na beëindiging dienstverband vanwege verzorging kind weer in dienst kunnen treden)</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> n/a <input type="checkbox"/> ja <input type="checkbox"/> nee <input type="checkbox"/> nvt

<sup>1</sup> : More than statutory obliged

<sup>1</sup> : Meer dan wettelijk

² : Daycare, before- or after school daycare, foster parents day care

² : Dagopvang, buitenschoolse opvang, gastouderopvang

### Turnover intentions

Satisfaction with work and organization

(1=Totally disagree, 2=Partial disagree, 3=Neither agree or disagree, 4=Partial agree, 5=Totally agree)

*Tevredenheid met werk en organisatie*

*(1=Helemaal mee oneens, 2=Gedeeltelijk mee oneens, 3=Niet eens/niet oneens, 4=Gedeeltelijk mee eens, 5=Helemaal mee eens)*

1	I think about moving to another company <i>Ik denk er wel eens over om van werkgever te veranderen</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2	I will leave the company in the next few years <i>Ik ben van plan om het komend jaar werk bij een andere organisatie te zoeken</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3	I expect to be with another company soon <i>Ik verwacht dat ik binnenkort bij een ander bedrijf werk</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/>

## Appendix B: Factor analyses

### Negative WHC

Table 1: **Work-home conflict**: Principal factor analysis

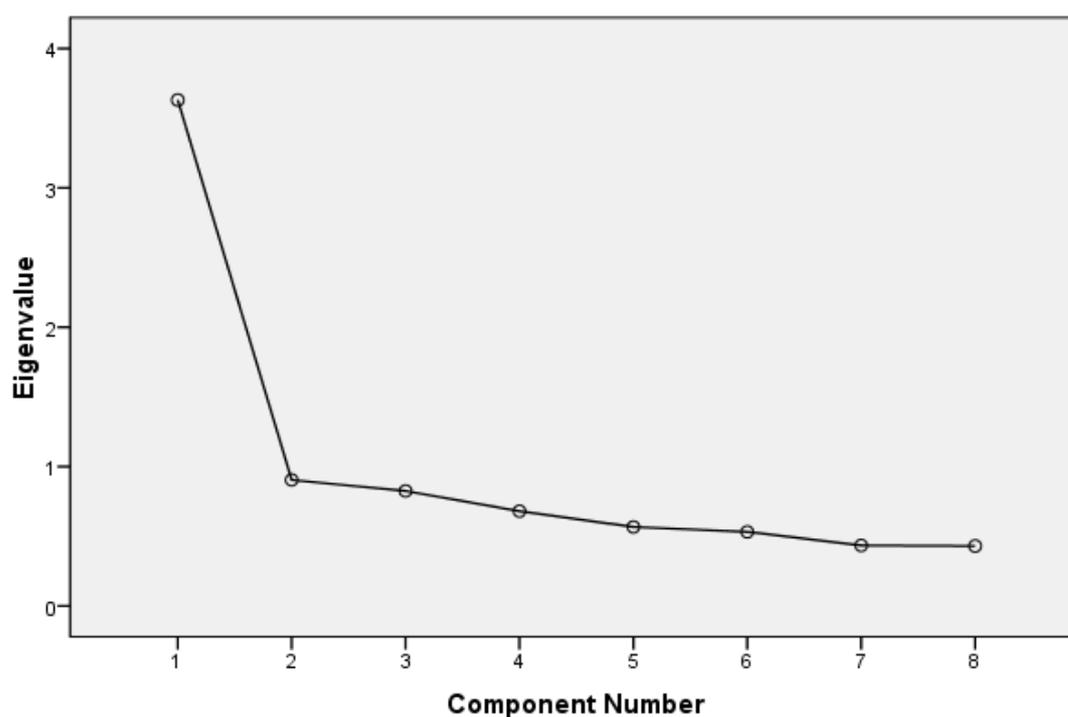
	Factor
	1
v155 de eisen die uw werk aan u stelt het moeilijk maken u thuis ontspannen te voelen?	,753
v168 u thuis geïrriteerd bent omdat uw werk veeleisend is?	,741
v169 u moeilijk aan uw verplichtingen thuis kunt voldoen, omdat u in gedachten met uw werk bezig bent?	,719
v152 u door uw werk geen energie heeft om met uw partner/familie/vrienden leuke dingen te doen?	,716
v151 uw werktijden het moeilijk maken om aan uw verplichtingen thuis te voldoen?	,636
v154 u zoveel werk te doen heeft dat u niet toekomt aan uw hobby's?	,632
v159 uw werk tijd in beslag neemt die u liever aan uw partner/ familie/vrienden zou besteden?	,607
v170 u afspraken met uw partner/familie/vrienden moet afzeggen vanwege werkgerelateerde verplichtingen?	,559
<i>Eigenvalues</i>	3.631
<i>Total variance explained</i>	45.384%
<i>Cronbachs alpha</i>	.822

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

(selection: eigenvalues > 1.00)

a. 1 components extracted.

Scree Plot



## Supportive environment

Table 2: **Supportive environment**: Principal factor analysis

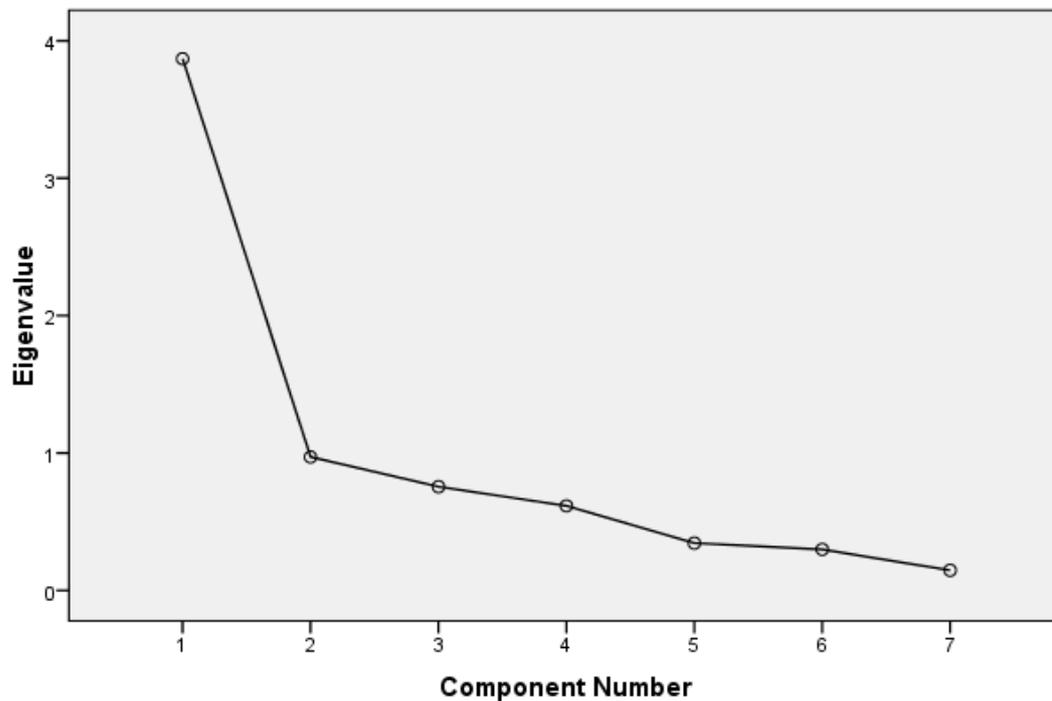
	Factor
	1
v232 Mijn direct leidinggevende steunt medewerkers die vanwege privéredenen naar minder zware functies over willen stappen	,842
v229 Mijn collega's steunen medewerkers die vanwege privéredenen (tijdelijk) minder uren willen werken	,807
v233 Mijn direct leidinggevende steunt medewerkers die vanwege privéredenen (tijdelijk) minder uren willen werken	,801
v228 Mijn collega's steunen medewerkers die vanwege privéredenen naar minder zware functies over willen stappen	,777
v230 Ik kan met mijn collega's goed praten over mijn privéleven	,695
v234 Ik kan met mijn direct leidinggevende goed praten over mijn privéleven	,660
v231 Mijn collega's helpen me als ik het (tijdelijk) druk heb met mijn zorgtaken	,587
<i>Eigenvalue</i>	3.869
<i>Total variance explained</i>	55.271
<i>Cronbachs alpha</i>	.855

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

(selection: eigenvalues > 1.00)

a. 1 components extracted.

### Scree Plot



## Turnover intentions

Table 3: **Turnover intentions**: Principal factor analysis

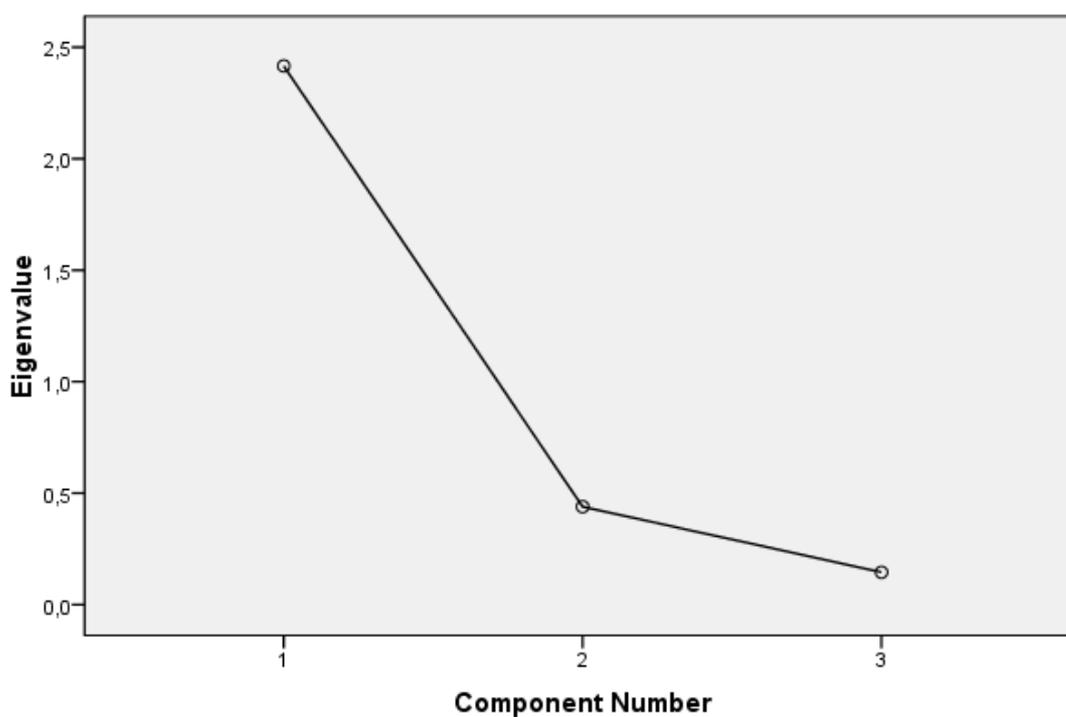
	Factor
	1
v121 Ik ben van plan om het komend jaar werk bij een andere organisatie te zoeken	,946
v122 Ik verwacht dat ik binnenkort bij een ander bedrijf werk	,907
v120 Ik denk er wel eens over om van werkgever te veranderen	,836
<i>Eigenvalue</i>	2.416
<i>Total variance explained</i>	80.529%
<i>Cronbachs alpha</i>	.873

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

(selection: eigenvalues > 1.00)

a. 1 components extracted.

**Scree Plot**



## Appendix C: Tables additional analysis

Table 2a: Multiple regression predicting WHC, standardized coefficients (reference group; *middle* parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	1	2
Dum_Early parenting stage	.068	.040
Dum_Late parenting stage	.025	.031
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.048
Educational level		.204***
R <sup>2</sup>	.004	.048
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.004	.044***
F	1.272	8.581***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 4a: Multiple regression predicting turnover intentions, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; *middle* parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	1	2	3
WHC	.466***	.409***	.491**
Dum_Early parenting stage	.115	.091	.166
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.046	-.037	.473
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.165	-.165
Educational level		.140*	.143*
Dum_Early parenting stage*WHC			-.041
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			-.277
R <sup>2</sup>	.038	.052	.054
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.038***	.014**	.002
F	8.982***	7.368***	5.434***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 5a: Multiple regression predicting utilization of *care* related WHAs, standardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	1	2
WHC	.014	-.008
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.004
Educational level		.103*
R <sup>2</sup>	.000	.010
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.000	.010*
F	.119	2.128

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 5b: Multiple regression predicting utilization of *flexible* WHAs, standardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
WHC	.057	-.010
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.129**
Educational level		.281***
R <sup>2</sup>	.003	.099
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.003	.096***
F	1.850	20.756***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 6a: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of WHAs, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; *middle* parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
WHC	.236	.053	.106
Dum_Early parenting stage	-.039	-.130	.520
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.143	-.114	-1.048
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.241*	-.243*
Educational level		.503***	.486***
Dum_Early parenting stage*WHC			-.346
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			.506
R <sup>2</sup>	.007	.079	.090
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.007	.072***	.011*
F	1.241	8.975***	7.363***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 6b: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of *care* WHAs, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; *early* parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
WHC	.005	-.010	-.022
Dum_Middle parenting stage	-.120**	-.112**	-.121
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.133**	-.122**	-.208
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.005	-.005
Educational level		.044	.043
Dum_Middle parenting stage*WHC			.004
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			.046
R <sup>2</sup>	.025	.031	.031
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.025**	.006	.000
F	5.129**	3.862**	2.790**

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 6c: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of *flexible* WHAs, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; **early** parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	1	2	3
WHC	.150	-.013	-.196
Dum_Middle parenting stage	.238*	.316**	-.408
Dum_Late parenting stage	.016	.120	-.487
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.269**	-.268**
Educational level		.437***	.425***
Dum_Middle parenting stage*WHC			.385
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			.323
R <sup>2</sup>	.014	.115	.121
$\Delta R^2$	.014*	.101***	.005
F	2.693*	14.737***	11.042***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

 Table 6d: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of *care* WHAs, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; **middle** parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	1	2	3
WHC	.005	-.010	-.045
Dum_Early parenting stage	.120**	.112**	.029
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.012	-.010	-.116
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.005	-.005
Educational level		.044	.044
Dum_Early parenting stage*WHC			.045
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			.058
R <sup>2</sup>	.025	.031	.032
$\Delta R^2$	.025**	.006	.001
F	5.134**	3.865**	2.811**

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 6e: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of *flexible* WHAs, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; *middle* parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
WHC	.151	-.012	-.007
Dum_Early parenting stage	-.243*	-.322**	-.160
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.224	-.199	-.489
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.269**	-.270**
Educational level		.437***	.432***
Dum_Early parenting stage*WHC			-.086
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			.158
R <sup>2</sup>	.014	.116	.117
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.014*	.101***	.002
F	2.782*	14.825***	10.711***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 7b: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of *care related* WHAs, unstandardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
WHC	.007	-.013	.014
Dum_Supportive environment <sup>a</sup>	-.029	-.030	.092
Gender <sup>b</sup>		.001	.001
Educational level		.057*	.056*
Dum_Supportive environment*WHC			-.066
R <sup>2</sup>	.001	.012	.013
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.001	.010	.001
F	.329	1.587	1.409

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Supportive environment was coded 0 (less supportive environment) and 1 (more supportive environment)

<sup>b</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 9a: Multiple regression predicting turnover intentions, standardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
Utilization of <i>care related</i> WHAs	.049	.035
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.080*
Educational level		.127**
R <sup>2</sup>	.002	.026
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.002	.024**
F	1.463	5.475**

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 9b: Multiple regression predicting turnover intentions, standardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
Utilization of <i>flexible</i> WHAs	.094*	.050
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.074
Educational level		.117**
R <sup>2</sup>	.009	.027
$\Delta R^2$	.009*	.018**
F	5.211*	5.346**

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 10a: Multiple regression predicting the use of WHAs, standardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
Numbers of hours spent at work (as stated in contract)	.096*	.009
Gender <sup>a</sup>		-.081
Educational level		.257*
R <sup>2</sup>	.009	.077
$\Delta R^2$	.009*	.067***
F	4.992*	14.663***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 10b: Multiple regression predicting turnover intentions, standardized coefficients

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
Numbers of hours spent at work (as stated in contract)	.141***	.143***
Gender <sup>a</sup>		.021
Educational level		.120**
R <sup>2</sup>	.020	.035
$\Delta R^2$	.020***	.015**
F	13.865***	8.097***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

<sup>a</sup>Gender was coded 0 (male) and 1 (female)

Table 11a: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of WHAs among working **fathers**, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; **middle** parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
WHC	.250	.121	-.712
Dum_Early parenting stage	-.096	-.223	-1.832
Dum_Late parenting stage	.018	-.048	-3.553**
Educational level		.566***	.558***
Dum_Early parenting stage*WHC			.859
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			1.885**
R <sup>2</sup>	.006	.081	.117
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.006	.075***	.036**
F	.512	5.544***	5.539***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

Table 11b: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of **care** related WHAs among working **fathers**, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; **early** parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
WHC	.036	.029	.030
Dum_Middle parenting stage	-.073	-.066	.157
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.068	-.064	-.344
Educational level		.032	.031
Dum_Middle parenting stage*WHC			-.121
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			.150
R <sup>2</sup>	.009	.012	.022
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.009	.003	.010
F	.892	.903	1.095

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

Table 11c: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of **flexible** WHAs among working **fathers**, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; **early** parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>
WHC	.109	-.006	-.232
Dum_Middle parenting stage	.091	.204	-.205
Dum_Late parenting stage	.021	.075	-1.401
Educational level		.504***	.484***
Dum_Middle parenting stage*WHC			.204
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			.782*
R <sup>2</sup>	.003	.106	.119
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.003	.103***	.013
F	.253	8.054***	6.077***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

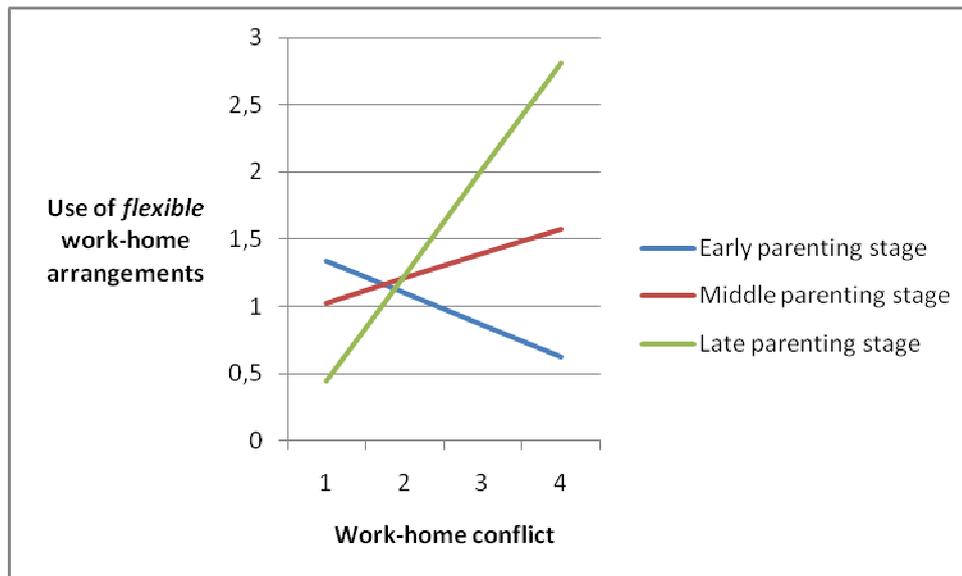


Figure 6b: Interaction between the parenting stages and WHC on the use of *flexible* WHAs among working *fathers*

Table 11d: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of *care* related WHAs among working *fathers*, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; *middle* parenting stage)

Model	1	2	3
WHC	.036	.029	-.154
Dum_Early parenting stage	.074	.067	-.357
Dum_Late parenting stage	.006	.002	-.607*
Educational level		.032	.033
Dum_Early parenting stage*WHC			.225
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			.327*
R <sup>2</sup>	.009	.012	.029
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.009	.003	.016
F	.903	.911	1.431

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

Table 11e: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of *flexible* WHAs among working *fathers*, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; *middle* parenting stage)

Model	1	2	3
WHC	.109	-.006	-.508
Dum_Early parenting stage	-.093	-.206	-1.232
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.071	-.130	-2.114*
Educational level		.504***	.502***
Dum_Early parenting stage*WHC			.547
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			1.067*
R <sup>2</sup>	.003	.106	.126
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.003	.103***	.020*
F	.257	8.062***	6.514***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

Table 12a: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of WHAs among working *mothers*, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; *middle* parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	1	2	3
WHC	.166	-.011	.652*
Dum_Early parenting stage	.024	-.046	2.245**
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.279	-.189	.519
Educational level		.427***	.408***
Dum_Early parenting stage*WHC			-1.242**
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			-.392
R <sup>2</sup>	.013	.061	.096
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.013	.047***	.035**
F	1.187	4.331**	4.725***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

Table 12b: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of *care* related WHAs among working *mothers*, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; *early* parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	1	2	3
WHC	-.025	-.049	-.075
Dum_Middle parenting stage	-.163**	-.154**	-.359
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.192***	-.170**	-.117
Educational level		.058	.057
Dum_Middle parenting stage*WHC			.112
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			-.030
R <sup>2</sup>	.054	.064	.069
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.054**	.010	.005
F	5.906**	5.314***	3.792**

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

Table 12c: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of *flexible* WHAs among working *mothers*, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; *early* parenting stage)

<i>Model</i>	1	2	3
WHC	.115	-.033	-.252
Dum_Middle parenting stage	.366**	.424**	-.784
Dum_Late parenting stage	.011	.144	-.033
Educational level		.357***	.349***
Dum_Middle parenting stage*WHC			.659*
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			.091
R <sup>2</sup>	.034	.094	.112
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.034*	.060***	.018
F	3.450*	7.495***	6.018***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

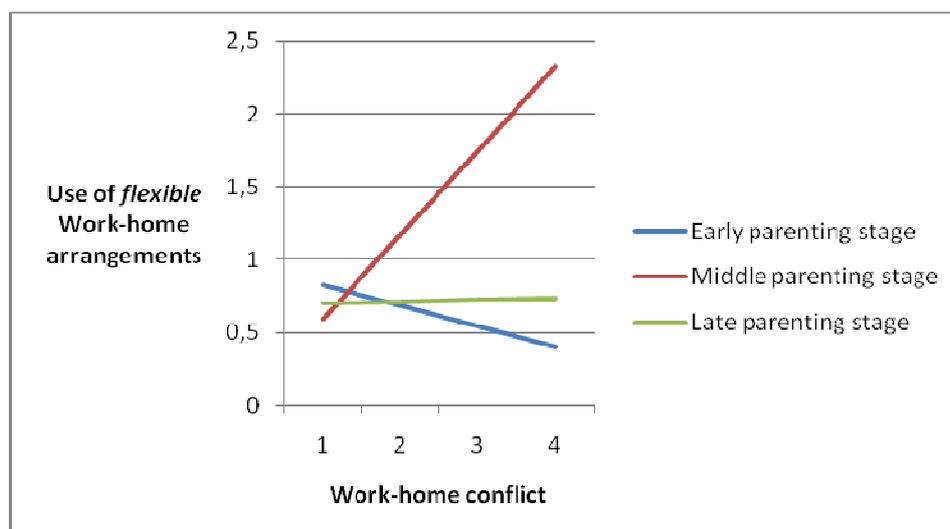

 Figure 7a: Interaction between the parenting stages and WHC on the use of *flexible* WHAs among working *mothers*

 Table 12d: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of *care* related WHAs among working *mothers*, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; *middle* parenting stage)

Model	1	2	3
WHC	-.024	-.048	.019
Dum_Early parenting stage	.163**	.153**	.292
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.029	-.016	.239
Educational level		.058	.058
Dum_Early parenting stage*WHC			-.075
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			-.141
R <sup>2</sup>	.053	.064	.067
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.053**	.010	.004
F	5.866**	5.284***	3.720**

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

 Table 12e: Multiple regression predicting the utilization of *flexible* WHAs among working *mothers*, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; *middle* parenting stage)

Model	1	2	3
WHC	.115	-.033	.389
Dum_Early parenting stage	-.375**	-.433**	.777
Dum_Late parenting stage	-.360*	-.284*	.649
Educational level		.358***	.350***
Dum_Early parenting stage*WHC			-.656*
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			-.514
R <sup>2</sup>	.036	.096	.113
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.036*	.060***	.017
F	3.587*	7.632***	6.064***

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

Table 13a: Multiple regression predicting turnover intentions among working *mothers*, unstandardized coefficients (reference group; *middle* parenting stage)

Model	1	2	3
WHC	.493***	.441**	.857***
Dum_Early parenting stage	.003	-.018	.922
Dum_Late parenting stage	.043	.070	1.476*
Educational level		.126	.122
Dum_Early parenting stage*WHC			-.509
Dum_Late parenting stage*WHC			-.773*
R <sup>2</sup>	.041	.047	.062
Δ R <sup>2</sup>	.041**	.006	.014
F	4.958**	4.248**	3.729**

Note. \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

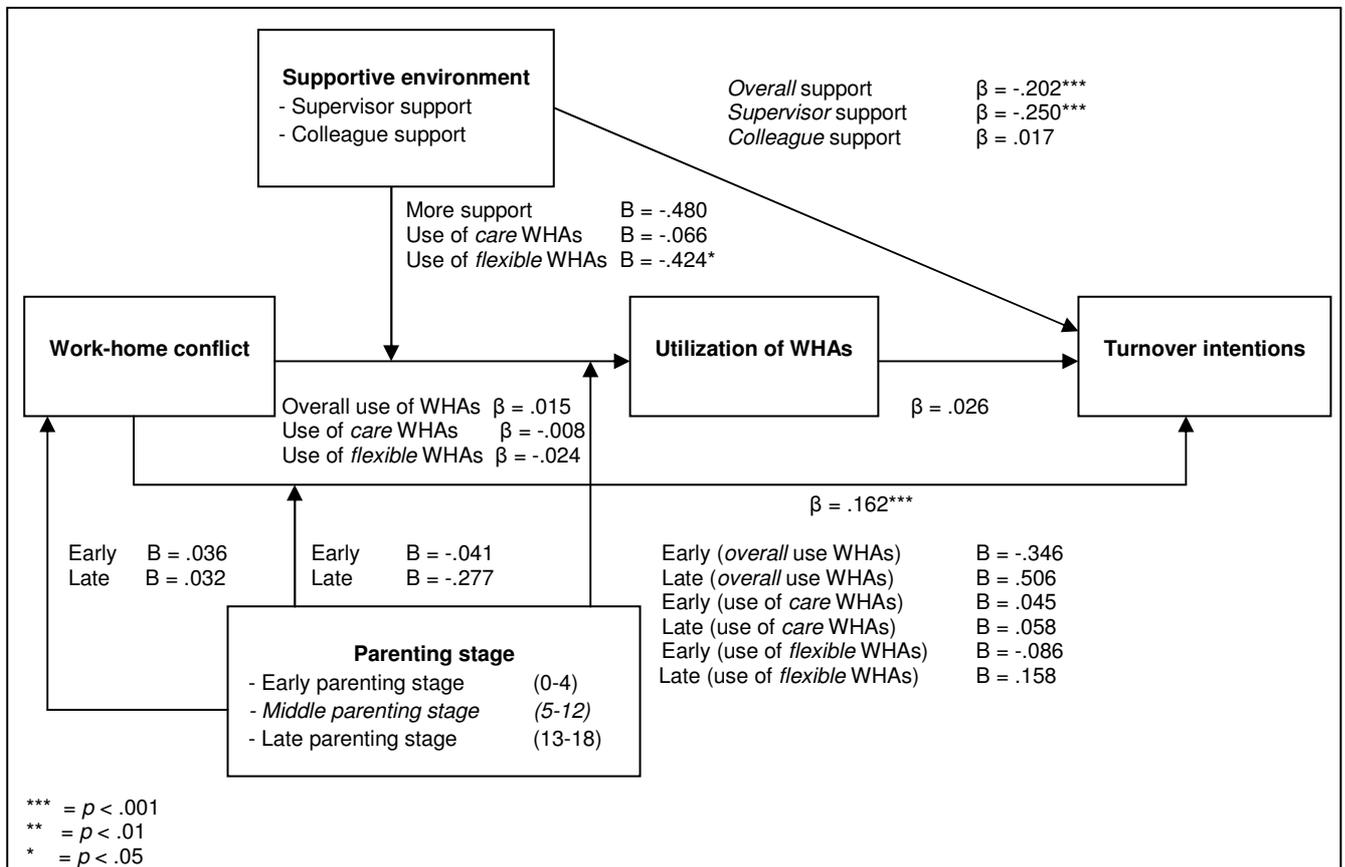


Figure 9a: Conceptual model with Beta-values for the direct relationships and B-values for the interaction effects (middle parenting stage as reference group).