

The mediating role of family-work conflict on the relationship between family and work
domain variables and employment trade-offs

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
under the Executive Committee of the Graduate School of
Arts and Sciences

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

2012

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ABSTRACT

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Employment trade-offs are defined as the sacrifices that employees make in their job because of their family/dependent care responsibilities (Mennino & Brayfield, 2002). They represent an employee's decision to restrict their work responsibilities and devote their time and attention to their family when time and attention cannot be given to both their work and family responsibilities. Research on employment trade-offs has been primarily theoretical and qualitative, with the few empirical studies primarily examining demographic and attitudinal correlates to an employee's decision to participate in employment trade-offs without considering the mediating mechanisms between these variables and employment trade-offs.

This dissertation extended the literature on employment trade-offs by examining family-work conflict as a mediator of the relationship between family and work domain variables and an employee's decision to engage in employment trade-offs among Federal government employees. This study also investigated the relationship of participating in employment trade-offs to workplace withdrawal behaviors, family-friendly benefit utilization, and turnover intentions. The family domain variables include dependent care responsibilities and childcare characteristics, while the work domain variables include organizational supports. The 2006 Federal Employee Dependent Care Survey (U. S. Office of Personnel Management, 2006) was analyzed and hypotheses were tested using both multiple regression and logistic regression analyses.

The results showed that family-work conflict partially mediated the relationship between the variables of type of care responsibilities, perceived job schedule flexibility, childcare arrangement satisfaction, childcare quality, and childcare costs and employment trade-offs. Multigenerational caregiving responsibilities, number of dependents, and supervisor support were not related to family-work conflict and no mediation effect for family-work conflict was established between these variables and employment trade-offs. Analyses also found that family-work conflict was positively related to employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization. In addition, employment trade-offs were positively related to workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization, suggesting that individuals do implement a variety of family adaptive strategies to manage competing work and family demands. Finally, employment trade-offs were found to be positively related to turnover intentions. Contributions to the work-family literature, implications for practice, future research directions, and limitations of the study are discussed.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the following people whose support made this dissertation possible. In particular, I am indebted to Lorian Roberson, who graciously accepted responsibility for serving as my dissertation sponsor and for challenging me to think critically as I developed my research ideas. Your insightful comments, constructive feedback, and quick turnaround times on drafts were greatly appreciated and instrumental to my completion of the dissertation.

I am grateful to Caryn Block. Her guidance and mentoring has been an important component to my academic success, dedicating her time and energy to my development as a researcher. Words cannot express my gratitude for all the support given over the years and for always making yourself available to discuss whatever is on my mind. To Dr. Pat Raskin, thank you for sharing with me your unique perspectives and enthusiasm for work-family issues over the years. I would also like to thank the rest of my committee members, Dr. George Gushue and Dr. Larry Heuer, whose insights and recommendations improved my dissertation significantly.

I am also thankful to have had the opportunity to work with Dr. Warner Burke who taught me so much about applied consulting research and is a role model for students striving to become scholar-practitioners. I would also like to thank Dr. Kimberly Wells, not only for her efforts in providing me with access to the data used in this dissertation, but for sharing her passion for work-family issues with me as well.

Additionally, I would like to thank my fellow graduate students and colleagues who made my time in graduate school so enjoyable and memorable. In particular, I am especially thankful to Sandy Koch and Gwen Seidman for their support over the years.

Finally, I could not have completed this dissertation without the support of my family, my parents, Alberto and Graciela Liberman, and my brothers, Alejandro and Enrique. Thank you for your patience with me, for your support, for your words of encouragement, and for providing me with every opportunity to succeed as I pursued my goals throughout the doctoral program.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Societal changes in family structures and in the demographic composition of the workforce during the past few decades have had major implications for both family and workplace domains (Boris & Lewis, 2006; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Halpern, 2005; Offerman & Gowing, 1990; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002; Perry-Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000; Sutton & Noe, 2005). The increased participation of women in the workforce and the growing numbers of dual-earner and single-parent households has reduced the traditional family household (described as a married single-earner male with a non-employed wife and children) to a minority group (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2003; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Furthermore, statistics show that many Americans are balancing multigenerational caretaking responsibilities for both their children and their parents (Belden, Russonello, & Stewart, 2001; Durity, 1991; National Alliance for Caregiving and AARP study, 2009; Neal & Hammer, 2007; Pew Research Center, 2005; Pierret, 2006). Labeled as the “sandwich generation”, these employees are sandwiched between the simultaneous demands of providing care for both their children and their aging parents (Hammer & Neal, 2002; Ingersoll-Dayton, Neal, & Hammer, 2001; Nichols & Junk, 1997). Moreover, a growing share of families face caregiving obligations to either a child or adult with a chronic illness or disability (Stewart, 2009; U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2008). These changes in family structure and workforce demographics have forced employees to balance dual demands from both the work and family domains.

Due to the competing demands between work and family, interference between the work and family domains often occurs, resulting in work-family conflict. Work-family conflict is defined as a form of interrole conflict in which the demands from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible with each other (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Such conflict occurs when the responsibilities in one domain (work or family) makes performing the responsibilities of the other domain (work or family) more difficult, thereby preventing the individual from meeting their obligations in the domain. Work-family conflict is bidirectional with the conflict between work and family being able to originate in either domain (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; Kelloway, Gottlieb & Barham, 1999; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). When conflict arises from work demands interfering with family-related responsibilities, the conflict is referred to as either *work-family conflict* (WFC) or *work interference with family* (WIF). In contrast, when conflict arises from family demands interfering with work-related responsibilities, the conflict is referred to as either *family-work conflict* (FWC) or *family interference with work* (FIW)¹.

Statistics show that both men and women experience high levels of work-family conflict, with one national study showing that 70% of employees reported that they don't have a healthy balance between their work and personal lives (Galinsky, Aumann & Bond, 2011; Lockwood, 2003). Perhaps as a reflection of the difficulty Americans face

¹ The terms work-family conflict (WFC) and work interference with family (WIF) are often used by researchers synonymously. This also occurs with the terms family-work conflict (FWC) and family interference with work (FIW). This dissertation primarily uses the terms work-family conflict and family-work conflict but when work interference with family or family interference with work is mentioned, they are synonyms of work-family conflict and family-work conflict, respectively.

managing their responsibilities between the work and family domains, the Department of Labor is calling work-family balance one of the three major challenges facing American workers and organizations in the 21st century (U. S. Department of Labor, 1999).

Additionally, in her presidential address to the American Psychological Association, Halpern (2005) stated that managing competing work and family demands is currently a major issue for today's workforce that has implications for employees' well-being. The issue of managing the conflicts that arise between the work and family domains has recently received national attention with the Obama administration having hosted the first White House Forum on Workplace Flexibility to discuss the importance of creating workplace practices that allows the American workforce to meet the demands of their jobs without sacrificing the needs of their families (Aumann & Galinsky, 2011).

Work-family researchers have noted that studies investigating work-family conflict tend to focus on examining work's interference with the family role while the influences that the family exerts in interfering with work obligations have generally been neglected (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001; Cohen, 1997; Crouter, 1984; Eby et al., 2005; Kanter, 1977; Netemeyer et al., 1996; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000; Voydanoff, 2005a; Wiley, 1987). These researchers have argued that evaluating the effects of family-related variables on the work domain is a necessity since family demands can influence workplace attitudes and behaviors, thereby having implications for organizations in regards to morale and productivity (Crouter, 1984; Kanter, 1977). Voydanoff (2005a) maintained that it is important to examine family-work conflict to further develop more comprehensive theories of linkages between work and family domains as well as expand our understanding of how to reduce work-family conflicts among employees.

Research has explored the strategies made by employees to reduce the conflict they experience from their family obligations interfering with their professional and/or workplace obligations. These “family adaptive strategies” have been defined as the actions or decisions that individuals implement to reduce the role strain associated with experiencing conflict between the work and family domains so that they can meet their families’ needs and goals (Barnett, 1998; Moen & Wethington, 1992; Voydanoff, 2002). Given the constraints that employees face when family demands interfere with work demands, a specific response to family-work conflict is to participate in employment trade-offs. Employment trade-offs are a unique family adaptive strategy which are defined as the sacrifices that employees make in their jobs because of their family/dependent care responsibilities (Mennino & Brayfield, 2002). They represent an employee’s decision to restrict their work responsibilities and devote their time and attention to their family when time and attention cannot be given to both their work and family responsibilities. Examples of employment trade-offs include turning down a promotion, asking for a decrease in work responsibilities, requesting for a decrease in work-related travel, and postponing training and development opportunities because of one’s family responsibilities². Research has shown that engaging in employment trade-offs is a common response in dealing with family-work conflict (Becker & Moen, 1999;

² The central focus of this dissertation is around the mediating role of family-work conflict on the relationship between family and work domain variables on employment trade-offs. While employment trade-offs refer to the sacrifices that individuals make in their jobs because of their family responsibilities, it is important to note that trade-offs are bi-directional with family trade-offs defined as the compromises that individuals make in their family lives because of their job responsibilities. Examples of family trade-offs include missing a family gathering or holiday or being unable to care for a sick dependent because of one’s job responsibilities. The 2006 Federal Employee Dependent Care Survey from which this dissertation is based on did not collect any data on family trade-offs. For this reason, this dissertation explores the processes through which family and work domain variables influence employment trade-offs and not family trade-offs.

Haddock, Zimmerman, Ziemba, & Current, 2001; Haddock, Zimmerman, Ziemba, & Lyness, 2006; Mickel & Dallimore, 2009; Voydanoff, 2002). When a worker is experiencing high levels of family-work conflict, participating in an employment trade-off such as turning down a promotion because of one's dependent care responsibilities allows the worker to be able to better meet their families' needs and goals since the level of family-work conflict they are experiencing due to having fewer work obligations has been reduced.

As the few number of studies on family adaptive strategies have been primarily qualitative or strictly theoretical, there has been a gap in the literature to empirically examine how a variety of family and work domain variables operate to influence the utilization of strategies such as employment trade-offs in order to reduce family-work conflict (Mickel & Dallimore, 2009). Measures of family-work conflict utilized in research have often been rather broad and have focused on assessing employees' perceptions of whether their family responsibilities have placed demands on their work roles, neglecting to ask how family demands have restricted employees' ability to perform their work-related duties. In contrast, employment trade-offs directly measure the specific concessions that an individual makes in their job as a direct result of their family responsibilities (e.g., sacrificing a promotion at work because of caregiving responsibilities) so that we can see in what ways family demands interfere with work demands. Also, because measures of family-work conflict often gauge only the individual perceptions that family pressures have placed on their work roles, these measures do not assess how many employment trade-offs are made in the workplace. For example, do employees who turn down a job promotion also reduce their work responsibilities or ask

for a decrease in work-related travel? It is important to assess the frequency with which employees report employment trade-offs so that organizations may better understand how family demands interfere with a variety of work demands in organizations.

Similar to the research on family adaptive strategies, the research on employment trade-offs has been primarily theoretical and qualitative, with the few empirical studies primarily examining the antecedents to an employee's decision to participate in employment trade-offs. Researchers have focused largely on demographic and attitudinal variables in predicting employment trade-offs such as gender, gender ideology, religion, age, education level, household income, marital status, presence of children in the household, employment status, supervisory status, hours worked, occupation type, and household type as antecedents to employment trade-offs (Ammons & Edgell, 2007; Maume, 2006; Mennino & Brayfield, 2002; Milkie & Peltola, 1999). These antecedents demonstrate many of the individual difference variables that affect the number of employment trade-offs an individual experiences.

Boyar, Maertz, Pearson, and Keough (2003) note that work-family researchers have yet to fully investigate the family domain antecedents of conflict, with the majority of scholarly attention being paid to work domain variables. Previous family-work conflict studies have typically centered on examining only one type of caregiving responsibility (either childcare or eldercare), while the employment trade-offs literature has not considered taking both caregiving responsibilities together, the factors associated with caregiving arrangements (e.g., costs associated with dependent care and the perceived quality of their dependent care provider), or the experiences of caring for a dependent with a chronic illness or disability into account as predictors of employment trade-offs.

Research has shown that multiple caregiving roles can be difficult for individuals and families to manage (Neal, Chapman, Ingersoll-Dayton, & Emlen, 1993; Nichols & Junk, 1997). Additionally, providing dependent care to an individual with a disability or chronic condition increases work-family conflict (Neal et al., 1993; Roundtree & Lynch, 2006; Stewart, 2009). It is important to investigate how four different groups of employees: employees with dependent children, employees with adult dependent care responsibilities, employees with combined child and adult care needs, and employee who are providing care to dependents with a chronic illness or disability experience employment trade-offs in order to further understand how individuals with diverse dependent care responsibilities balance work and family together.

The research on employment trade-offs has also neglected to study variables pertaining to the organizational environment such as supervisory support for meeting dependent care responsibilities and perceived schedule flexibility in one's job. Moreover, another area of research that has received little attention in the employment trade-offs literature are the consequences that result from making employment trade-offs. Only five studies have empirically examined whether there are consequences to participating in employment trade-offs, showing that employment trade-offs result in unfavorable perceptions of work-family balance, work opportunities, overall health, and self-esteem (Carr, 2002; Keene & Quadagno, 2004; Fredericksen-Goldensen & Scharlach, 2001; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Wierda-Boer, Gerris, & Vermulst, 2008). While individuals engage in employment trade-offs to reduce family-work conflict and increase their overall quality of life, the results of these five studies suggest that participation in employment trade-offs may result in negative consequences for the employee. This

counterintuitive finding may be explained by Mickel and Dallimore's (2009) assertion that experiencing stress and tension is commonly associated with trade-offs, especially when employees make significant trade-offs (such as turning down a promotion) which are likely to create high levels of stress and tension because of the potential consequences of such a decision to both the employee and the organization. This tension-centered approach to examining trade-offs between work and family maintains that even though a reduction in family-work conflict may occur from participating in employment trade-offs, workers cannot eliminate the tensions and stresses associated with managing their work and family responsibilities. Furthermore, Wierda-Boer et al. (2008) proposed that because adaptive strategies (including engaging in employment trade-offs) require a modification of personal goals which may be considered undesirable to the individual, this could undermine their work-family balance and lead to negative outcomes. Therefore, negative outcomes such as unfavorable work and non-work attitudes (e.g., perceived work-family balance, life and job satisfaction) may result from making employment trade-offs in addition to positive outcomes.

Numerous negative outcomes have been related to high levels of family-work conflict including reports of turnover intentions (Boyar et al., 2003; Haar, 2004; Karatepe & Baddar, 2006; Netemeyer et al., 1996; Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, & Luk, 2001). Intent to turnover is an important variable to pay attention to since this job attitude has been shown to be related to negative organizational outcomes including actual turnover, increased financial costs for the organization, and operation interruptions (Griffeth & Hom, 2001; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Maertz &

Campion, 1998; O'Connell & Kung, 2007). As a response to family-work conflict, participating in employment trade-offs may influence turnover intentions.

The purpose of this dissertation was to extend the literature on employment trade-offs by examining the mediating mechanism of family-work conflict on the relationship between family and work domain variables and an employee's decision to engage in employment trade-offs among Federal government employees. The family domain variables include dependent care responsibilities (caregiving responsibilities – childcare, eldercare, or both childcare and eldercare together, total number of dependents, type of care responsibilities - typical or exceptional), childcare characteristics (childcare arrangement satisfaction, childcare quality, and childcare costs) while the work domain variables include organizational supports (supervisor support for dependent care responsibilities, perceived job schedule flexibility). The consequences of employment trade-offs include turnover intentions.

Scholars in the area of work-family conflict have noted that the literature on employment trade-offs and family adaptive strategies has neglected to examine any mediation effects of how family and work domain variables influence participation in employment trade-offs and other family adaptive strategies (Voydanoff, 2002; Voydanoff, 2005b). No one has tested the mediating effect of family-work conflict perceptions between both the family and work domain variables of dependent care responsibilities, organizational supports, and childcare arrangements on employment trade-offs. This dissertation extended research by examining the mediating processes that link family and work domain variables with employment trade-offs. Furthermore, it is also important to investigate the relationship between employment trade-offs and other

family adaptive strategies. Two common family adaptive strategies that employees use when they perceive high levels of family-work conflict are workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization (Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003; Neal & Hammer, 2007; Voydanoff, 2002). While family adaptive strategies are often implemented by employees to reduce the conflict they experience from their family obligations interfering with their work obligations so that they can meet their families needs and goals (Barnett, 1998; Moen & Wethington, 1992; Voydanoff, 2002), based on the research showing that making employment trade-offs leads to low levels of perceived success in balancing work and family life (Keene & Quadagno, 2004; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Wierda-Boer et al., 2008), it may be that individuals who decide to engage in employment trade-offs may also decide to engage in additional family adaptive strategies as a way to improve managing the work-family interface. For employees who make employment trade-offs, do they also participate in other family adaptive strategies in order to further reduce their family-work conflict? Also, is the mediating mechanism by which family and work domain variables influence employment trade-offs similar to the mechanism by which these same domain variables impact workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization? The current study helps to fill these gaps in the work and family conflict literature.

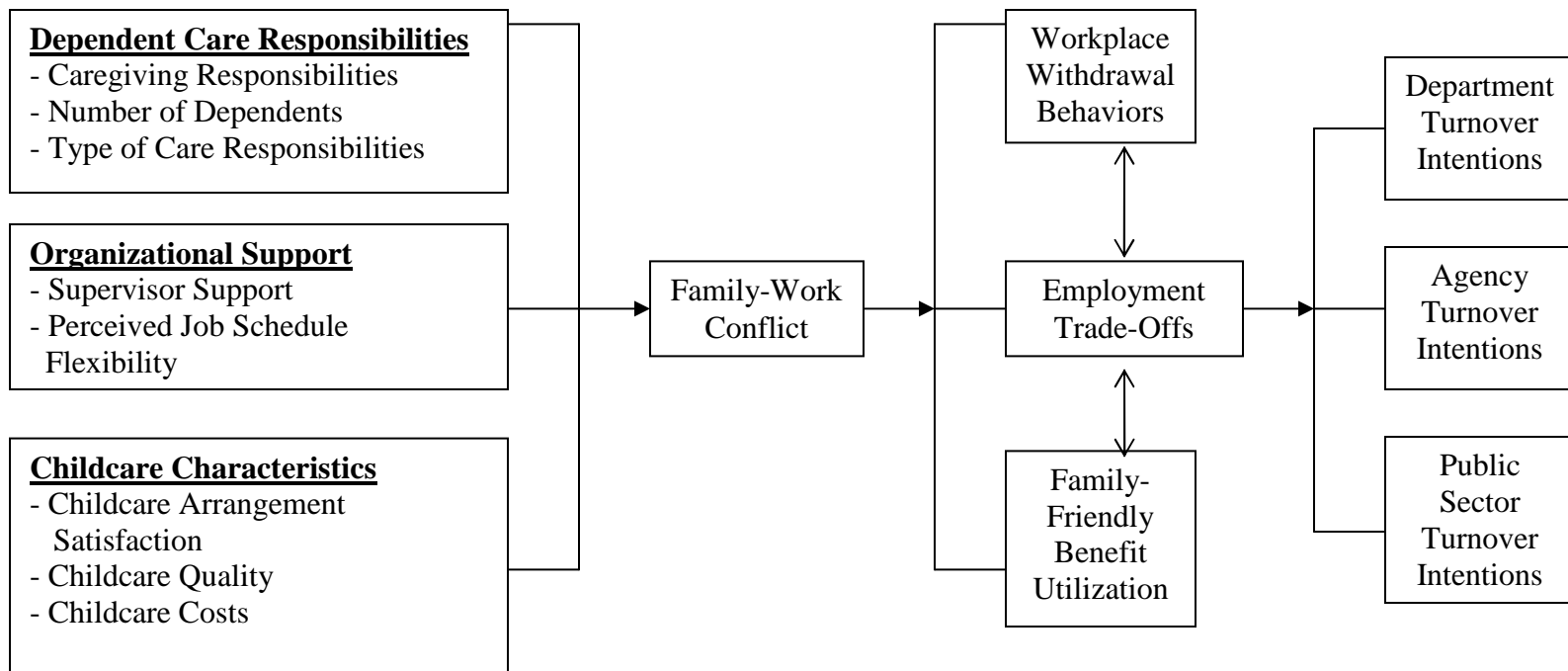
Of course, it is important to note that work-family conflict may also influence participation in employment trade-offs in addition to family-work conflict. Under circumstances where an employee's work demands interfere with the demands of meeting family needs, employees may choose to make an employment trade-off so that work responsibilities no longer interfere with family responsibilities, thereby reducing the

conflict experienced between the work and family domains. As the focus of this dissertation is to answer work-family researchers' criticism that the role that the family exerts in interfering with work responsibilities is neglected in studies examining work-family conflict (Boles et al., 2001; Cohen, 1997; Crouter, 1984; Eby et al., 2005; Kanter, 1977; Netemeyer et al., 1996; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000; Voydanoff, 2005a; Wiley, 1987), the impact of work-family conflict on employment trade-offs is not presented in this dissertation.

Figure 1 depicts the comprehensive model of the various family and work domain variables, mediator, associations with other family adaptive strategies, and outcomes of employment trade-offs that were examined in the dissertation. This model explicitly describes the relationships among the variables. First, the model shows that the relationship between family and work domain variables on employment trade-offs is mediated by family-work conflict. The model then predicts that there will be positive

Figure 1.

Proposed Model Demonstrating the Antecedents, Mediators, and Consequences of Employment Trade-Offs



relationships between employment trade-offs and the other family adaptive strategies of workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. Next, the model explores whether family-work conflict also mediates the relationship between family and work domain variables and the family adaptive strategies of workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. The final component of the model examines whether participation in employment trade-offs influences turnover intentions.

Another contribution of this study is that it includes a demographically diverse sample of employees with dependent care responsibilities. Work-family scholars have argued that one of the critical gaps in the literature is that the samples utilized in work-family research are homogenous and often exclude non-traditional familial configurations such as single parent households (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). The current study included a heterogenous sample of employees who have dependent care responsibilities with varying familial arrangements and demographic characteristics.

This study also contributes to the work-family literature by examining a unique sample of employees: Federal government employees. Since the majority of research studies in work-family are conducted with employees from private-sector companies, the work-family experiences of public-sector employees has been underresearched (Dolcos & Daley, 2009). Research has demonstrated that public sector employees report working fewer hours and spending more time with their families (Buelens & Van den Broeck, 2007). The same research study also shows that many public sector employees are less motivated by money and are more motivated to lead a balanced life. Furthermore, recent statistics show that Federal employees are, on average, 47 years old, with the

distribution of Federal employees' ages suggesting that more than 60 percent of them are between 40 and 59 years old (Congressional Budget Office, 2007). This data indicates that this is a particularly relevant group with which to investigate how dependent care responsibilities affect responses to family-work conflict. Given the unique characteristics of Federal employees regarding their work-family attitudes and demographics, it seems important to also examine the antecedents and consequences of employment trade-offs on this segment of the working population.

Outline of subsequent chapters

This dissertation proposal is organized into four additional chapters. Chapter 2 includes the theories that relate to family-work conflict and employment trade-offs. Integrative models of work-family conflict and models of family adaptive strategies are reviewed and a discussion of how these models relate to the mediation of family-work conflict on the relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs as well as the consequences of employment trade-offs are presented. In addition, each hypothesis is supported and presented. Chapter 3 presents the methodology section of the dissertation. This chapter provides details of the sample, the survey instrument, and procedures as well as a discussion of the data analysis strategy that was used to test hypotheses. Chapter 4 reports the results of each hypothesis along with providing tables of the analyses conducted. Chapter 5 presents a comprehensive discussion of the results of the study. It includes a discussion centered on the research goals and contributions of the study. Also, the limitations of the study, future research directions, and practical implications are discussed.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Work-Family Conflict Theories

Numerous theories have been developed by scholars to help explain conflict between the family and work domains. Duxbury, Higgins, and Lee (1994) note that due to the complexity of linking the domains of work and family, no unifying theoretical framework exists in the work-family literature. Work-family conflict theories that are foundational to the current study are: role conflict theory (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978), the rational view (Duxbury, Higgins, & Lee, 1994; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; Keith & Schafer, 1984; Staines, Pleck, Shepard, & O'Connor, 1978), resource drain theory (Eckenrode & Gore, 1990; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Piotrkowski, 1979; Small & Riley, 1990; Staines, 1980; Tenbrunsel, Brett, Maoz, Stroh, & Reilly, 1995), and the scarcity hypothesis (Coser, 1974; Goode, 1960; Marks, 1977; Slater, 1963). An overview of each of these theories is presented below, along with an explanation of how these theories relate to employment trade-offs.

Role Conflict Theory

In their content analysis of work-family research from 1980 through 2002, Eby et al. (2005) note that conflict theory has been the dominant theoretical paradigm to study work and family issues. According to Kahn et al. (1964), roles are a set of expectations defined by other role senders or oneself about what behavior is appropriate to enact in a particular position. Role conflict is a psychological tension that is created by the simultaneous occurrence of two or more role pressures such that engaging in one role

makes participation in the other difficult. Role conflict theory suggests that when individuals participate in multiple roles that are incompatible, it leads to conflict between the roles (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) state that any role characteristic that influences an individual's time involvement within a role can produce conflict between that role and another role. In this theory, time spent on activities within the family role such as providing care for children or adult dependents cannot be devoted to activities within the work role. The requirements of different roles may compete for a person's limited time resources and the time pressures associated with participation in one role may make it physically impossible to comply with the demands from another role (Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983). Essentially, time and energy spent on family-related activities cannot be spent on work-related activities, thereby creating family-work conflict for the individual.

Rational View

The rational view of work-family conflict hypothesizes that the amount of conflict one perceives rises proportionally with the number of hours one spends in either the work and family domains (Duxbury et al., 1994; Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987; Gutek et al., 1991; Keith & Schafer, 1984; Staines et al., 1978). The basic assumption of the theory is that the more time an individual spends on the activities associated with work and family domains, the individual will perceive more conflict between work and family. Specifically, the theory proposes that the more time an individual spends on work-related activities, the more they should experience work interference with family. Conversely, the more time an individual spends on family-related activities, the more they should experience family interference with work. The rational view also posits that

the total amount of time spent performing work and family roles is positively associated with role overload, which is defined as the perception of having too many things to do in a given role and not enough time to do them (Duxbury et al., 1994). Frone, Yardley, and Markel (1997) note that overload in a role may lead to an increased time commitment in that role. Therefore, extensive commitments in one domain will decrease the resources (e.g., time, energy) necessary for performance in the other domain. The rational view has been supported by research findings demonstrating that the more hours a person spends in work and family activities, the more work-family conflict and family-work conflict is experienced (Byron, 2005; Eby et al., 2005; Frone et al., 1997; Gutek et al., 1991; Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011; Milliken & Dunn-Jensen, 2005; Wharton & Blair-Loy, 2006).

Resource Drain Theory

Resource drain theory proposes that the transfer of personal resources from one domain to another such as time, attention, and energy (physical and psychological) is finite (Eckenrode & Gore, 1990; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Piotrkowski, 1979; Rothbard, 2001; Small & Riley, 1990; Staines, 1980; Tenbrunsel et al., 1995). The concept of finite resources has been used to suggest a negative relationship between the work and family domains. Small and Riley (1990) state that work and family interfere with each other through three distinct processes: time, psychological energy, and physical energy. These three processes can be thought of as finite resources in which any quantity of a resource that is utilized in one domain is unavailable for the other, providing support for a negative relationship between the work and family domains. Therefore, the more resources one uses to fulfill role obligations in the family domain takes away from

available resources that could be used to fulfill role obligations in the work domain, and vice versa. For example, the time spent on one's family demands, such as taking care of one's child, subtracts from the time that is available to the individual to perform their work duties.

Scarcity Hypothesis

Similar to resource drain theory, the scarcity hypothesis posits that individuals have a limited amount of resources (e.g., time and energy) and that participation in multiple roles reduces the resources available to fulfill all role demands, thereby causing conflict between work and family (Coser, 1974; Goode, 1960; Marks, 1977; Slater, 1963). In this theory, work-family conflict occurs because there are not enough resources to fulfill all of the obligations in both the work and family domains. Resource drain theory and the scarcity hypothesis are also known as the "depletion argument" (Rothbard, 2001). The depletion argument states that individuals make trade-offs between work and family domains to accommodate the finite resources they have available to expend between the domains. Rothbard (2001) notes that the majority of research studies in work-family conflict are framed in terms of the depletion argument.

Theories' Relationship to Employment Trade-offs

Although these theories all have a different conception of why work-family conflict occurs, they all have something in common which is related to employment trade-offs: they show that there is a conflict between the work and family spheres due to a limited amount of resources (whether it is time-based or energy-related demands). Inherent in all of these theories is the notion that engagement in family activities is

achieved at the expense of work activities because of the time demands that are required in the family role reduce the amount of time an individual spends in the work role³. The consequences of having fixed amounts of psychological and physiological resources to expend means that employees with greater levels of family responsibilities and pressures will decide to make tradeoffs in their job to accommodate the finite resources they have available to them. Furthermore, all four theories suggest that employees with a variety of dependent care responsibilities, due to the degree of complexity and the high number of demands within their family role, would engage in employment trade-offs to meet their family responsibilities. In summary, the theories indicate that participation in employment trade-offs occurs when an individual focuses their time, energy, and attention to their family responsibilities when time, energy, and attention cannot be given to both work and family responsibilities, suggesting that family-work conflict may serve as a mediating mechanism between family domain and work domain variables and employment trade-offs.

Integrative Models of Family-to-Work Conflict

³ It is important to note that not all work-family conflict theories assume that participation in either a work or a family role is detrimental to the other role. Work-family enrichment is a theory that is defined as the extent to which an individual's experiences in one role (either work or family) improve the quality of life in the other role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). This theory maintains that work and family responsibilities can operate in cooperation with each other through using the experiences in one role to generate resources to use in the other role. However, because this dissertation is examining the specific sacrifices that an employee makes in his or her job because of their dependent care responsibilities (a direct response of family-work conflict), the participants who choose to make employment trade-offs are not utilizing the resources of the family domain to help with the work domain but rather the obligations within the family domain are restricting one's obligations within the work domain. Work-family enrichment theories are not reviewed or presented in this dissertation because the basic tenets of this perspective are not compatible with predicting why employees participate in employment trade-offs.

There are numerous models of family-work conflict which provide a theoretical and foundational basis for the hypotheses proposed in this study. Each of the models conceptualize work-family conflict as being bi-directional, with work interfering with family life and family life interfering with work. Due to the complexity of work-family relationships, an examination of these models serves to illustrate how work and family variables are related to work-family conflict and family-work conflict and how these forms of conflict are related to work and family outcomes. Specifically, these models demonstrate that work-family conflict is primarily caused by work-related stressors and characteristics and that it predicts family-related behavioral outcomes, while family-work conflict is caused by family-related stressors and characteristics and predicts work-related behavioral outcomes.

Multiple identical models of work-family conflict have been developed which have distinguished between work-family conflict and family-work conflict (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997; Boyar, Maertz, Mosley, & Carr, 2008). This distinction between the two forms of conflict allowed researchers to create models of work and family conflict that examine domain-specific hypotheses which tested unique predictive and outcome variables associated with these two types of conflict. The utility of examining these models is that they highlight that both work-family conflict and family-work conflict have unique, independent antecedents and outcomes, although domain-specific (e.g., work demands influencing work-family conflict, family demands influencing family-work conflict) effects appear to be stronger and more consistently found in the literature (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011; Eby et al., 2005; Michel et al., 2011). These models also serve to show that work-

family conflict is distinct from family-work conflict as is evident by their different antecedents and consequences.

Frone et al. (1992) demonstrated that job involvement and job stressors were positively related to work-to-family conflict while family involvement and family stressors were positively related to family-to-work conflict. In addition, work-to-family conflict was positively related to family distress (among blue-collar workers) and family-to-work conflict was positively related to work distress. Interestingly, while higher frequencies of family-to-work conflict were positively related to depression, work-to-family conflict had no significant relationship with depression. Frone and his colleagues (1997) found that work distress, work overload, and work time commitment were positively related to work-to-family conflict, whereas family distress, parental overload, and parental time commitment were positively related to family-to-work conflict. The authors also showed that family-to-work conflict was negatively related to work performance, whereas work-to-family conflict was negatively related to family performance. Boyar, Maertz, Mosley, and Carr (2008) showed that both perceived work and family demands have significant direct domain-specific effects on work interfering with family and family interfering with work. Additionally, Boyar et al. (2008) found that the family domain variables of hours in caregiving, number of children living at home, marital status, and family-role conflict were positively related to perceived family demands. Another study by Voydanoff (2005a) showed that different types of family demands including marital disagreements, household demands, children's problems (e.g., emotional problems), and kin demands were positively related to family-to-work conflict.

Michel et al. (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of the antecedents of work-family conflict utilizing 142 work-family conflict studies and 178 samples. They created a meta-analytic model in which they showed that work role stressors, work role involvement, work social support, work characteristics, and personality are antecedents of work-family conflict while family role stressors, family social support, family characteristics, and personality are antecedents of family-work conflict (the direction of the relationship varied depending on the antecedent variable being measured). Their findings provide support that work domain variables predict work-family conflict and that family domain variables predict family-work conflict. The authors also tested cross-domain relationships between work and family and found that work role stressors and work social support are predictors of family-work conflict while family role stressors, family involvement, family social support, and family characteristics are predictors of work-family conflict, although the effects were generally smaller in magnitude than the domain-specific relationships. This study shows the importance of considering both domain-specific predictors (e.g., work role stressors as predictors of work-family conflict) as well as the crossover effects across work and family domains (e.g., work role stressors as predictors of family-work conflict).

Finally, Amstad et al. (2011) performed a meta-analysis of work-family conflict and its consequences. Their meta-analysis of 98 work-family conflict studies looked at the relationship between both directions of work-family conflict (WFC and FWC) and several work-related (e.g., organizational commitment), family-related (e.g., marital satisfaction), and domain-unspecific outcomes (e.g., life satisfaction, health problems). Results of the meta-analysis showed that both work-family conflict and family-work

conflict were related to all three types of outcomes (the direction of the relationship varied depending on the outcome variable being measured). Additionally, both types of conflict exhibited stronger relationships to same-domain outcomes than to cross-domain outcomes such that work-family conflict was more strongly associated with work-related than with family-related outcomes, and family-work conflict was more strongly associated with family-related than with work-related outcomes.

The models created by these researchers tested domain-specific antecedents and outcomes of work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. The results of these studies suggest that both types of work-family conflict are associated with unique antecedents and outcomes. Furthermore, the meta-analyses by Michel et al. (2011) and Amstad et al. (2011) provide support for examining the cross-domain effects of work domain variables such as supervisory support in examining predictors of family-work conflict. Moreover, the models demonstrate that a variety of family-related variables influence family-work conflict and that family-work conflict influences behavioral outcome variables as well. This implies that family demands are particularly salient for family-to-work conflict because such demands inhibit the capabilities of individuals to fulfill their obligations at work, potentially influencing participation in employment trade-offs. As research suggests that participating in employment trade-offs is a common response in dealing with family-work conflict (Becker & Moen, 1999; Haddock et al., 2001; Mickel & Dallimore, 2009; Voydanoff, 2002), it is likely that the variables in this study that are posited to influence family-work conflict (e.g., dependent care responsibilities, organizational supports, and childcare characteristics) may indirectly

affect an employee's decision to engage in employment trade-offs through family-work conflict perceptions.

Models of Family Adaptive Strategies

The above models provide support that a variety of both family and work characteristics and attitudes can influence family-to-work conflict. While researchers have argued that employment trade-offs result from experiencing family-work conflict (Becker et al., 1999; Haddock et al., 2001; Mickel et al., 2009; Voydanoff, 2002), there are models that show that a variety of macro and micro level variables can serve as antecedents to family adaptive strategies. Family adaptive strategies are actions or decisions that employees participate in so as to ameliorate the role strain associated with experiencing conflict between the work and family domains, thereby allowing them to meet their families' needs and goals (Barnett, 1998; Moen & Wethington, 1992; Voydanoff, 2002). Since an individual's participation in employment trade-offs is a family adaptive strategy that has been implemented to reduce conflict between work and family, these models serve to highlight that there are predictive and outcome variables related to the family adaptive strategy used by an individual. These models are useful to examine because they demonstrate that there are specific antecedents and consequences in engaging in employment trade-offs so as to reduce family-work conflict. Following a summary of these models of family adaptive strategies, a discussion of the conceptual linkages that are missing from these models which informs this dissertation is presented.

Barnett (1998) proposed a model in which family adaptive strategies are selected based upon a complex work and social system comprised of proximal and distal conditions. Proximal conditions refer to both the interpersonal context in which

employees generate family adaptive strategies and the employee demographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender, race, etc.) that affect those strategies. Barnett also postulates that proximal conditions include the commitments, obligations, and responsibilities employees have towards themselves and others in their social network (e.g., spouse, children, parents) as well as psychological variables including the employee's needs, values, and aspirations that they wish to fulfill in both work and non-work contexts. The final category of proximal conditions is economic needs which requires employees to fulfill their financial obligations to themselves and others in their social network. Distal conditions refer to factors that either expand or constrain options for the employee including macroeconomic, social structural, and attitudinal factors, in addition to workplace policies/practices and job conditions. Barnett (1998) cites the global economy, the unemployment rate, and the availability of health and child care as examples of macroeconomic factors influencing family adaptive strategies. Variables at the workplace level, such as organizational policies, flexibility programs, benefits, and aspects of the workplace culture (e.g., family friendly culture) can also have an impact on these strategies. Finally, job conditions including salary, occupational health and safety, job demands, and job security will also influence these strategies. Barnett (1998) proposes that work-family fit (defined as the employee's ability to achieve the various components of their chosen family adaptive strategy given the existing distal and proximal conditions they face) acts as a mediator between the proximal and distal conditions and outcome variables (e.g., job satisfaction, productivity) so that when employees enact their family adaptive strategy, they will experience compatibility and

when employees are unable to realize their family adaptive strategies, conflict will materialize.

In her model, Voydanoff (2005b) proposed that there are two types of adaptive strategies: increasing resources (e.g., hiring dependent care services) and decreasing demands (e.g., turning down work assignments or work-related travel). Voydanoff maintains that family demands such as the time spent in caring for one's dependents affects whether someone engages in a family adaptive strategy. The strategy of decreasing demands in the work domain may provide additional resources for individuals and families to meet their demands in the family domain, thus influencing their work-family balance. In the model, work-family balance is considered to be an employee's appraisal of whether work and family resources are adequate to meet work and family demands which yields an overall assessment of the extent of harmony, equilibrium, and integration between work and family life. While work-family conflict and family-work conflict are not explicitly mentioned by Voydanoff in her discussion of work-family balance, her model suggests that perceived work-family balance is the direct result of either the presence or absence of conflict between the work and family domains. Voydanoff postulates that family adaptive strategies mediate the relationship between work-family fit (defined as a form of interrole congruence in which the resources associated with one role are sufficient to meet the demands of another role such that participation in the second role can be effective) and work-family balance, suggesting that misfit leads to the use of family adaptive strategies, which then improves work-family balance. The final stage of the model proposes that there are consequences of

work-family balance in that both work and family role performance and role quality are impacted.

Both of these models associate the concept of work-family fit with the family adaptive strategies chosen by employees. However, none of these models explore the variables that might mediate the relationship between family and work domain variables and an employee's selection of a family adaptive strategy. The models do not address why it is that family and work domain variables such as one's dependent care responsibilities are associated with making family adaptive strategies. Barnett's (1998) proposition that an employee's ability to realize the various components of their chosen family adaptive strategy considering the distal and proximal conditions in their environment is still missing a theoretical link between family and work domain variables and participation in family adaptive strategies. This model is suggestive that family and work domain variables have a direct effect on family adaptive strategies such as employment trade-offs. Voydanoff's (2005b) discussion of family adaptive strategies which focuses on family adaptive strategies as mediator of the relationship between work-family fit and work-family balance, centers more on how making family adaptive strategies results in more favorable work-family balance perceptions and disregards how work and family domain characteristics affect an employee's decision to make employment trade-offs.

These models do not incorporate how theories of work-family conflict such as role conflict theory, the rational view, resource drain theory, and the scarcity hypothesis inform how family and work domain variables work to impact participation in family adaptive strategies. These four theories suggest that conflicts between work and family

develop due to a limited amount of resources (e.g., time or energy) because of the demands that are required by one's family obligations decrease the amount of resources that one is able to spend towards work obligations. Having a limited amount of resources to expend suggests that workers with increased family responsibilities and obligations will engage in family adaptive strategies in order to accommodate the finite resources they have available to them and attempt to reduce the conflict they experience between the family and work domains. In the current study, it is proposed that family and work domain variables are antecedents of family-work conflict and, thus, indirectly related to family adaptive strategies (e.g., employment trade-offs) through perceived family-work conflict. Therefore, the work-family conflict theories suggest that family adaptive strategies are implemented when an individual's family characteristics (e.g., caregiving responsibilities) interfere with work responsibilities, indicating that family and work domain variables impact participation in family adaptive strategies through perceived family-work conflict.

The theories and models summarized in the previous sections provide theoretical and empirical support that a variety of family and work domain variables may uniquely influence family-to-work conflict, thereby mediating an employee's decision to engage in employment trade-offs. Furthermore, the models on family adaptive strategies have direct relevance to the hypotheses presented in this dissertation since the models demonstrate that employees and their families make employment trade-offs as a result of the resources available to them, of the environment confronting them, and of their needs and values. Essentially, the models suggest that an employee's decision to participate in employment trade-offs can be influenced by a number of micro and macro level variables. This

dissertation expanded the family-work conflict literature by focusing its analysis on a very specific response to family-work conflict, employment trade-offs. Understanding the antecedents and consequences of employment trade-offs is especially important given the adverse effects of family-work conflict on an individual's well-being in both their work and family domains (Amstad et al., 2011; Eby et al., 2005).

Research on Employment Trade-Offs

There have been multiple studies that have investigated the antecedents to employment trade-offs. The majority of these studies have centered around gender and gender-related attitudes as antecedents of employment trade-offs. These studies showed mixed findings as Maume (2006) reported that women were more likely to participate in employment trade-offs than men while other studies have found that women and men were equally likely to make employment trade-offs (Mennino & Brayfield, 2002; Milkie & Peltola, 1999). Gender attitudes also influence employment trade-offs as women with traditional gender role attitudes were more likely than women with nontraditional attitudes to refuse a promotion because of family responsibilities (Mennino & Brayfield, 2002). Maume (2006) argues that because women adapt their work efforts to meet their family's needs while men do not, their findings support that traditionalism persists among gender roles. Also, employees working in occupations that are male dominated are less likely to make employment trade-offs than employees in gender-integrated occupations (Mennino & Brayfield, 2002).

Additional research has highlighted the many family characteristics that are associated with employment trade-offs. Ammons & Edgell (2007) found that married employees were more likely than single employees to refuse a promotion, refuse

overtime, and cutback on their workload due to family responsibilities. It has also been demonstrated that people who live with children and other adults were more likely to refuse a promotion and refuse to work extra hours than were people who live alone without children (Mennino & Brayfield, 2002). Furthermore, research has also shown how work demands influence employment trade-offs with supervisor status, self-employment status, hours worked, and occupational type all being related to employment trade-offs (Ammons & Edgell, 2007; Maume, 2006; Mennino & Brayfield, 2002). Finally, demographic variables such as age, household income, and educational level have been shown to have a relationship with employment trade-offs (Ammons & Edgell, 2007; Maume, 2006; Mennino & Brayfield, 2002).

Although the research on employment trade-offs suggest that there are a variety of demographic, work, and family variables that predict employment trade-offs, the data from which these studies are based (e.g., the 1996 General Social Survey) lack vital family, household, and workplace information. Researchers note that such surveys are missing basic information so that accurate relationships between family and workplace characteristics and employment trade-offs cannot be determined (Ammons & Edgell, 2007; Mennino & Brayfield, 2002). Furthermore, although many of the research studies on employment trade-offs have been published within the past few years (1999 - 2007), the data analyzed in these studies has primarily come from large national studies conducted in 1992 or 1996 (e.g., the 1996 General Social Survey or the 1992 National Study of the Changing Workforce), subjecting the results to period effects. It is necessary to expand the research on employment trade-offs by looking at family and work domain variables collected within recent years that have not been studied in the employment

trade-offs literature, so that we can better understand what factors influence an individual's decision to restrict their work responsibilities because of their dependent care responsibilities. Most importantly, the research on employment trade-offs has been atheoretical, neglecting to incorporate work-family conflict theories to explain why family and work domain variables result in an employee's decision to participate in employment trade-offs.

The current study answers the call from work-family conflict researchers to focus their attention on the effects of family in interfering with work obligations, which has generally been neglected in favor of studying the influences of work interfering with family (Crouter, 1984; Eby et al., 2005; Kanter, 1977; Netemeyer et al., 1996; Voydanoff, 2005a; Wiley, 1987). This dissertation presented a more complete assessment than previous research for the relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs in a sample of Federal government workers. It is postulated that family domain variables including dependent care responsibilities (caregiving responsibilities – childcare, eldercare, or both childcare and eldercare together, total number of dependents, type of care responsibilities - typical or exceptional) and childcare characteristics (childcare arrangement satisfaction, childcare quality, and childcare costs), and work domain variables including organizational supports (supervisor support for dependent care responsibilities, perceived job schedule flexibility) predict perceived family-work conflict. Additionally, family-work conflict is proposed to predict engagement in employment trade-offs as well as serve as a mediator between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs. As the research on the predictors of both family-work conflict and employment trade-offs has shown that gender, age,

education level, household income, marital status, employment status, and hours worked are associated with family-work conflict and employment trade-offs, these variables are controlled for, while examining the influence of unexplored family domain and work domain variables on employment trade-offs via the mediating mechanism of family-work conflict perceptions. Furthermore, this dissertation examined the relationship between employment trade-offs with two other common family adaptive strategies used by employees experiencing family-work conflict: workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. This study explored whether the proposed mediating mechanism by which family and work domain variables influence employment trade-offs is similar to the mechanism by which these same domain variables affect workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. Moreover, since only five studies have empirically examined whether there are consequences to making employment trade-offs, it is also necessary to extend the research in this area by observing any effects on work-related outcomes. Turnover intentions were examined as a consequence of engaging in employment trade-offs.

The hypotheses related to each of the variables that are posited to be associated with employment trade-offs are discussed below. First, the relationship between the family and work domain variables of dependent care responsibilities (caregiving responsibilities – childcare, eldercare, or both childcare and eldercare together, total number of dependents, type of care responsibilities - typical or exceptional), organizational supports (supervisor support for dependent care responsibilities, perceived job schedule flexibility), and childcare characteristics (childcare arrangement satisfaction, childcare quality, and childcare costs) on family-work conflict perceptions are presented.

Next, the hypothesis that family-work conflict perceptions affect participation in employment trade-offs is introduced. Third, the hypothesis that perceived family-work conflict mediates the relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs is put forward. Fourth, the hypotheses regarding the association between employment trade-offs with workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization are explored. Fifth, hypotheses that examine the relationship between family-work conflict and workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization are presented. Sixth, it was investigated whether perceived family-work conflict also mediates the relationship between family and work domain variables and the family adaptive strategies of workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. Finally, turnover intentions (at the department, agency, and public sector levels) were examined as a consequence of making employment trade-offs.

Study Hypotheses

Dependent Care Responsibilities

Caregiving Responsibilities

Increased life expectancies (Halpern, 2005; Malach-Pines, Hammer, & Neal, 2009; Pew Research Center, 2005) combined with a tendency among many families to delay having a child (Casper & Bianchi, 2002; Donnell, Kim, & Kasten, 2007) not only contributes to the changing demographics of the workforce but may also lead to an increase in the number of employees with multigenerational caregiving responsibilities. Such demographic changes are also likely to increase care demands on family members for longer periods of time. Furthermore, as the number of single parent and dual-earner households increase, the number of individuals who can serve as full-time stay-at-home

caregivers for dependents decreases. For older adults, caregiving responsibilities are typically provided by adult children, who attempt to combine both childrearing and eldercare with paid employment (Ingersoll-Dayton et al., 2001). Employees who are providing care for both adult and child dependents are known as the “sandwich generation”, as these employees are sandwiched between the simultaneous demands of caregiving for both their children and their aging parents or relatives (Hammer & Neal, 2002; Ingersoll-Dayton et al., 2001; Nichols & Junk, 1997). Taking care of one’s own children and elderly parents or relatives simultaneously has important implications for the work-family balance of Federal government employees in particular, especially because such enlarged family responsibilities would seem to be particularly characteristic of the aging Federal employee population (Abbey & Boyd, 2002). Compared with 31% of employees from the private sector, 60% of government employees are older than 45 (Partnership for Public Service, 2005), with most individuals in the sandwich generation being between the ages of 45 to 65 years old (Raphael & Schlesinger, 1993). Consequently, a growing number of Federal employees are like to face the demands of balancing work and elder care now and in the near future.

Multiple national surveys and research studies have demonstrated the prevalence of working families caring for both adults and children, although the exact number of Americans in the sandwich generation has been undetermined yet (Hammer & Neal, 2002). According to a widely-cited AARP study (Belden, Russonello, & Stewart, 2001), 44% of Americans aged 45 to 55 belong to the “sandwich generation”, having aging parents as well as children under 21. Another survey showed that 37% of caregivers of adults also had children under the age of 18 living in their household (National Alliance

for Caregiving and AARP study, 2009). Other estimates suggest that 9% to 13% of households with persons between the ages of 30 to 60 are dual-earner couples that are raising children and caring for an aging parent (Neal & Hammer, 2007; 2008). Durity (1991) cited statistics from multiple corporations reporting the number of employees responsible for both childcare and eldercare and found the percentage can range from 6 to 40. Neal and Hammer (2008) state that prevalence rates of individuals caring for children and adults differ depending on the characteristics of the workforce and/or the employment status of the caregivers being studied. While these studies may vary in the proportion of families in the sandwich generation, these statistics do suggest that the number of persons providing multigenerational caregiving in the future is not likely to decrease (Durity, 1991; Neal & Hammer, 2008), thereby making it important to understand their unique work-family experiences.

Nichols and Junk (1997) note that the majority of research on employees with dependent care responsibilities has focused on only one type of dependent care, either the care of children or the care of elderly adults, with relatively few attempts to examine multigenerational care responsibilities. Over a decade later, Malach-Pines et al. (2009) also maintain that a major gap in the work-family literature pertains to understanding the work and family issues of employees who have both dependent children and aging parents, as this is a growing and understudied part of the population in Western countries. Theories of role conflict, the scarcity hypothesis, resource drain theory, and the rational view suggest that having more family demands and responsibilities may cause increased time commitments and stress to be placed on the family which then interferes with the individual's work responsibilities. As more family members require care, the

responsibilities associated with meeting their needs can impact family roles creating conflict between the work and family domains. Given the possible negative implications of expanding care responsibilities, it is important to assess the impact of multiple caregiving demands and explore whether differences exist in levels of family-work conflict made between employees with both child and adult dependent care responsibilities versus those employees with either childcare or eldercare needs alone.

Frye and Breugh (2004) found that employees with primary childcare responsibility experienced more amounts of family responsibilities interfering with work activities. Boise and Neal (1996) also showed that employee caregivers of children were frequently interrupted at work to deal with family-related matters. In addition, multiple research studies have demonstrated that employees caring for their elders experienced more conflict between work and family than employees without such responsibilities (Barling, MacEwen, Kelloway, & Higginbottom, 1994; Hepburn & Barling, 1996; Neal, Chapman, & Ingersoll-Dayton, 1988; Scharlach & Boyd, 1989). Further, Buffardi, Smith, O'Brien, and Erdwins (1999) showed that amongst Federal government employees in dual-earner households, having either eldercare responsibility or childcare responsibility was associated with lower levels of perceived work-family balance. Finally, Frederickson and Scharlach (2001) reported that almost one-quarter of employees with childcare responsibilities and adultcare responsibilities reported that they were not doing a good job of meeting their work, family, and personal responsibilities. Since these studies suggest that eldercare and childcare responsibility are linked to greater interrole conflict between work and family, occupying multiple caregiving roles increases the likelihood of

experiencing family-work conflict, considering the limitations on an employee's time and energy to devote to both work and family domains.

Research has established that fulfilling multiple caregiving roles while also working can be difficult to manage for working families (Neal, Chapman, Ingersoll-Dayton, & Emlen, 1993). Neal et al. (1993) examined the impact of multigenerational caregiving on the outcome variable of work-family conflict and found that there was a stronger negative effect on work-family conflict for multigenerational caregivers than for single-generation caregivers. Additionally, Gibeau and Anastas (1989) showed that among female employees with eldercare responsibilities, those who also had childcare responsibilities had increased levels of work-family conflict. Finally, in a series of studies of dual earner couples, Neal and Hammer (2007; 2008; 2009) found that being an employee in the sandwich generation led to experiencing family-work conflict. This research supports that given their expanded domains of responsibility, employees with both child and adult dependents are likely to experience higher rates of family-work conflict than employees with only one type of dependent (either adult or child) to provide care for.

Contrary to expectations, Buffardi et al. (1999) found that Federal employees with multigenerational caregiving responsibilities did not show lower levels of perceived work-family balance than single-generation employees. These researchers noted that their findings should not be interpreted to mean that these employees are not affected by multiple caregiving responsibilities but rather, suggest that their findings support the argument that the effects found are additive and not interactive. They argue that the lower work-family balance for multigenerational caregivers can be accounted for, more or less,

by the sum of the decreases found for the single-generation caregivers. Stone and Short (1990) examined whether making work schedule accommodations is affected by eldercare responsibilities. They found that having childcare responsibility in combination with eldercare responsibility did not increase the number of work accommodations made. In another study, the prediction that multiple caregiving responsibilities would increase the number of employment trade-offs made as compared with employees with only one type of dependent care responsibility was only partially supported (Frederickson & Scharlach, 2001). It was found that employees with child care responsibilities only and employees with both child care and adult care responsibilities reported a significantly higher number of employment trade-offs than did employees with only adult care responsibilities. There was no difference in employment trade-offs between employees with child care responsibilities only and employees with both child care and adult care responsibilities. The results of these studies should not suggest that employees' family-work conflict is not influenced by their simultaneous child and adult care responsibilities. Although the literature on the effect of multiple caregiving roles on interrole conflict between work and family has mixed findings, based on theoretical frameworks (e.g., role conflict theory, scarcity hypothesis) that argue that increased family demands and responsibilities may cause interruptions in work responsibilities due to limited time and energy constraints, it is expected that employees with both child and adult dependent care needs will perceive more family-work conflict than employees with only child or adult dependent care demands.

Hypothesis 1: Employees with both child and adult dependents will perceive higher levels of family-work conflict than employees with child or adult dependent care demands alone.

Number of Dependents

The number of dependents that an individual has to care for is indicative of potential family responsibility (Boyar, Maertz, Pearson, & Keough, 2003). Being responsible for adult or child dependents requires spending time and energy in providing for their daily needs. Indeed, Rothhausen (1999) suggests that the number of dependents one has is a single-item measure that effectively encompasses the dependent caregiving aspects reflected in family responsibilities. Employees with more dependents have to regulate their obligations, time, and emotions between the work and family domains more than employees with fewer dependents. The number of dependents a person has is a family-domain variable that may be positively related to family-work conflict because the pressures of meeting caregiving obligations to many dependents may interfere with a person's work responsibilities.

Across three different samples of employees (teachers, small business owners, and salespeople), Netemeyer et al. (1996) found that the number of children at home and family-work conflict were positively correlated with each other. Additional studies that have included the number of children as an antecedent to family-work conflict have also shown a positive relationship among these variables (Eagle, Miles, & Icenogle, 1997; Grandey & Croponzano, 1999). Furthermore, meta-analyses of the antecedents of family-work conflict reveal that the number of children and the number of other dependents one has in the household is positively related to family-work conflict (Byron, 2005; Michel et

al., 2011). It is important to note that there are research studies which have not found the number of dependents to be related to interrole conflict between work and family. Balmforth and Gardner (2006) found that there was no association between the number of dependents one is responsible for and family-work conflict. Also, two separate studies conducted by Boyar and his colleagues did not find the number of dependents at home to be correlated with family-work conflict (Boyar et al., 2003; 2008). In addition, the number of children in the household was found not to be related to family-work conflict in a study of working mothers employed in a retail organization (Patel, Govender, Paruk, & Ramgoon, 2006) and in a study of government employees (Haar, 2004). Despite these mixed findings, it is hypothesized that employees with more dependent care responsibilities will perceive higher levels of family-work conflict than employees with fewer dependents. This is consistent with work-family conflict theories (e.g., role conflict theory, the rational view) which suggest that family characteristics, including the number of dependents one has, affect family-work conflict because the increased amount of resources they are devoting towards their family obligations interferes with their work obligations.

Hypothesis 2: The higher the number of dependents the employee is responsible for (child, adult, or combined), the more family-work conflict the employee will perceive.

Exceptional Care Responsibilities

The proportion of American families with at least one family member with a disability has been estimated by the U.S. Census Bureau to be nearly 29% or about 2 in every 7 families (Wang, 2005). Census Bureau statistics indicate that of the millions of

families raising children in the U. S., 9.2% report having at least one child with a disability and of those families reporting a family member to have a disability, 25% of those with a disability were adults. Other national surveys have identified that the percentage of households with children with special health care needs is approximately 22% (Department of Health and Human Services, 2008) while the percentage of adults 18 or over with special needs requiring care is around 27% (National Alliance for Caregiving and AARP, 2009). Moreover, statistics also indicate that over seven in ten individuals were employed while they were providing exceptional caregiving responsibilities (National Alliance for Caregiving and AARP, 2009). These statistics demonstrate the high prevalence of working families caring for adults and children with disabilities. Employees providing care for children and/or adults with disabilities often find balancing their work and family responsibilities to be very difficult, particularly because such disabilities create unique challenges for individual and family development and functioning (Kagan, Lewis, & Heaton, 1998; Rosenzweig, Brennan, & Ogilvie, 2002; Stewart, 2009).

Typical care responsibilities are the general care experiences of parents of children with typical development and of older adults (Stewart, 2009). Conversely, exceptional care responsibilities is a concept that refers to the experiences of caring for a dependent (either a child or adult) with a chronic illness or disability (Malsch, Rosenzweig, & Brennan, 2008; Roundtree & Lynch, 2006). For children, exceptional care responsibilities includes caring for those who have a chronic physical, developmental, behavioral, or emotional condition and who also require caregiving services of a type or amount beyond that required by children generally (Department of

Health and Human Services, 2008; McPherson, Arango, Fox, Lauver, McManus, Newacheck, Perrin, Shonkoff, & Strickland, 1998). Likewise, the care of adults with exceptional care responsibilities encompasses physical care (e.g., transportation to and from medical appointments) and emotional care (e.g., social visits), including intense episodes that come from challenges associated with chronic conditions or deteriorating health (Neal & Hammer, 2007). Stewart (2009) notes that there are many ways in which exceptional care responsibilities are different from typical care responsibilities, primarily that exceptional care responsibilities requires intense physical, financial, and emotional resources. Such care responsibilities include care that is constant and can escalate over time, necessitates a large amount of time and energy, becomes more difficult as time passes, often centers around a crisis, and involves the dependent becoming increasingly reliant on the caregiver to provide for their needs (Roundtree & Lynch, 2006). Moreover, this type of care often requires specialized knowledge of the condition or disability, extensive collaboration with health professionals, and the acquisition of advanced home care skills (Hill & Zimmerman, 1995; Leiter, Krauss, Anderson, & Wells, 2004; Traustadottir, 1991). Exceptional care responsibilities can create conflict between work and family since both the primary caregiver and the rest of the family are forced to make a variety of accommodations in both the work and family domains to provide care for the dependent (Roundtree & Lynch, 2006).

Warfield (2005) maintains that it is surprising that there has been a lack of research in the work-family literature for employed caregivers who have exceptional care responsibilities given the prevalence of dependents who have a disability or a chronic health condition and need care services above those typically required by other

individuals. However, the few studies that have been conducted in this area do suggest that employees with exceptional care responsibilities are likely to report greater perceived family-work conflict due to the challenges associated with this type of caregiving. Empirical research shows that individuals with exceptional care responsibilities experience conflict between work and family. Yagon and Cinamon (2008) found that mothers of children with learning disorders reported a higher level of family-work conflict compared to mothers of children without learning disorders. In addition, results from the 2002 National Study of the Changing Workforce survey revealed that family-work conflict was lower for employees with typical care responsibilities than for employees with exceptional care responsibilities (Stewart, 2009). Employees with exceptional care responsibilities have also been found to experience difficulty in balancing work and family because of their family responsibilities (Neal et al., 1993). These studies suggest that employees with exceptional care responsibilities are more likely to have higher levels of family-work conflict than employees with typical care responsibilities due to the extreme demands that such care requires of their time and energy.

Hypothesis 3: Employees with exceptional care responsibilities will perceive higher levels of family-work conflict than employees with typical care responsibilities.

Organizational Supports

Supervisor Support

Workplace social support is defined as the extent to which employees believe that their well-being is valued by workplace sources, such as supervisors, coworkers, and the

organization itself, and the belief that these various sources provide help to support this well-being (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Eisenberger, Singlhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011). A specific form of workplace social support is supervisor work-family support which are the perceptions that one's supervisor cares about an individual's work-family well being, often demonstrated by supervisory helping behaviors to resolve work-family conflicts (Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007; Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, Anger, & Zimmerman, 2011; Kossek et al., 2011) or attitudes such as sympathy to the employee's desire for work-life balance (Allen, 2001). Several researchers have demonstrated supervisor support for work-family issues to be an important antecedent to work-family conflict (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Ford et al., 2007; Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990; Kossek et al., 2011; Michel et al., 2011; Thomas & Ganster, 1995) but Frye and Breaugh (2004) have noted that there is little research examining the relationship between supervisor support for work-family issues and family-work conflict since the work-family literature often does not test cross-domain relationships (Michel et al., 2011). It is expected that supervisors who are supportive of an employee's dependent care responsibilities will be more understanding and lenient towards the family demands of their employees. When presented with information regarding an employee's family issues (e.g., having to take care of a child who has suddenly become ill) such a supervisor would provide accommodations and flexibility for the employee to attend to their family responsibilities while simultaneously allowing the employee to fulfill their work obligations, decreasing the amount of family-work conflict the employee would experience.

Empirical research demonstrates that supervisor support is negatively related to family-work conflict (Frye & Breugh, 2004; O'Driscoll, Poehlman, Spector, Kalliath, Allen, Cooper, Sanchez, 2003). Additionally, studies of frontline employees in the hotel industry have demonstrated that supervisor support is one of the resources that employees use to cope with difficulties that arise from family demands interfering with work demands (Karatepe & Kilic, 2007; Karatepe & Uludag, 2008a). These studies have shown that employees who are receiving supervisor support are likely to experience low levels of family-work conflict. Moreover, studies that have examined the role of work support and job support on family-work conflict have shown a negative relationship between the two variables (Byron, 2005; Demerouti, Geurts, & Kompier, 2004). While not a direct test of the relationship between supervisor support and family-work conflict, these studies often include questions asking about perceptions of supervisor support in their measures of work and job support. Furthermore, two meta-analyses found that there was a small negative correlation between supervisor support and family-work conflict (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2006; Michel et al., 2011). Overall, the findings suggest that for employees with dependent care demands, supervisor support will be important for reducing perceived family-work conflict.

Hypothesis 4: Supervisor support of dependent care responsibilities will be negatively related to employees' family-work conflict.

Perceived Job Schedule Flexibility

In 2010, the Obama White House Administration hosted a Forum on Workplace Flexibility which discussed the importance of a variety of flexible workplace practices such as flextime and telework that assist employees in balancing the demands of work

and family life (Aumann et al., 2011; Johnson, Kiburz, Dumani, Cho, & Allen, 2011). A report that was developed from this conference states that many employers have adapted to the changing realities of American workers by offering flexibility programs (Executive Office of the President of the United States, Council of Economic Advisors, 2010). Furthermore, the report communicates that organizations are increasingly promoting workplace flexibility programs as an essential component to organizational effectiveness but many employers still do not have accurate information about the costs and benefits of workplace flexibility practices, thereby preventing the full-scale, wide adoption of such policies and practices.

Rapid technological advances are changing the nature of the workplace, particularly in how it affects how employees perform work as well as how it impacts employees' flexibility in managing conflict between work and family (Harris, Marett, & Harris, 2011; Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011). The proliferation of technology has created the opportunity to work at any time and any location, thus, increasing the diffusion of work into individuals' personal time and the diffusion of the personal or family domain into working time (Fenner & Renn, 2004; 2010; Kossek & Lautsch, 2008). Boundary theory suggests that technologies may contribute to work-family conflict because the close proximity of work and family roles can lead to spontaneous interruptions when enacting either role and difficulties in separating oneself from one role to initiate the other role (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). The greater integration between work and family spheres as result of technology also allows for the possibility of greater control and flexibility in managing the work-family interface (Batt & Valcour, 2003). Technological

advances are continually influencing workplace settings and are allowing for organizations and employees to initiate family-friendly flexibility policies to manage boundaries between work and home.

Flexible working arrangements and policies are often designed to give employees a degree of choice over how much, when, and where they work so that they may achieve a more satisfactory work–life balance (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010; Lambert, Marler, & Gueutal, 2008; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010; Shockley & Allen, 2010). Flextime is a specific family-friendly benefit that has become increasingly popular amongst both employees and organizations. Flextime (also called flexible working hours) is a type of flexible work arrangement that allows employees to rearrange their work schedules within certain ranges and guidelines offered by the organization (Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, & Weitzman, 2001; Hyland, 2003; Ronen, 1981). A primary dimension of flextime has been classified as schedule flexibility, which is the capability of employees to change starting and stopping times from day to day and week to week without prior consent from their manager (Christensen & Staines, 1990; Hyland, 2003). The number of organizations offering flextime to their employees has risen from 24% in 1998 to 31% in 2005 (Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005) and the use of flexible working arrangements such as flextime is not likely to diminish (Johnson et al., 2011). Recent reports that surveyed Human Resources professionals found that between 49% to 54% of the respondents indicated that their organization offered flextime (Society for Human Resource Management, 2009; 2010) and a survey study by the Families and Work Institute (2008) reported that 79% of organizations allowed some employees to periodically change starting and quitting times within a range of hours. According to a survey conducted in

2010 of over 2,700 Human Resource professionals, 35% indicated that they planned to provide more flexible work arrangements to employees, compared to 31% surveyed in the previous year (CareerBuilder, 2010). Flextime is a relatively inexpensive family-friendly benefit for the organization to implement and maintain (Schmidt & Duenas, 2002; Weeden, 2005). Furthermore, flextime has been shown to favorably influence many organizational outcomes including productivity, job satisfaction, and absenteeism (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999).

Regardless of the availability, utilization rates, or positive outcomes of the flextime benefit, little research has been conducted that examines the effect of perceived job schedule flexibility for dependent care needs on family-work conflict. Perceptions of schedule flexibility are important to examine since such perceptions should ease the burden of balancing work and family demands. Hill et al. (2001) found that perceived job flexibility (a combination of both flextime and flexplace) was positively related to work-family balance, and that the greater the extent of employees' perceived flexibility, the more employees were able to work longer hours without negatively affecting their work-family balance. Further studies conducted by Hill and colleagues found that perceived job flexibility was negatively related to family-work conflict (Hill, Jacob, Shannon, Brennan, Blanchard, & Martinengo, 2008; Hill, Yang, Hawkins, & Ferris, 2004), as well as work-life conflict (Hill, Erickson, Holmes, & Ferris, 2010) and work-family fit (Jones, Scoville, Hill, Childs, Leishman, & Nally, 2008). Another study by Kossek, Lautsch, and Eaton (2006) showed that higher perceptions of psychological job control over flexibility was related to lower levels of family-to-work conflict.

Interestingly, meta-analyses have provided contradictory results regarding schedule flexibility as an antecedent to work-family conflict and family-work conflict (Byron, 2005; Michel et al., 2011). While Byron's (2005) meta-analysis showed a negative relationship between schedule flexibility with both work-family conflict and family-work conflict, the meta-analysis by Michel et al. (2011) found a negative relationship among schedule flexibility with work-family conflict but also a small positive relationship with family-work conflict. Another meta-analysis also showed no relationship between flexibility (a combination of location and schedule flexibility) and family-work conflict (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2006). Despite the contradictory findings between schedule flexibility and family-work conflict in these two studies, it is expected that perceived job schedule flexibility will reduce perceptions of family-work conflict since employees who perceive that they can rearrange their work schedule at a moment's notice to take care of their dependent care needs will not have to restrict their work efforts since they can attend to their work responsibilities at a later time.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived job schedule flexibility will be negatively related to employees' family-work conflict.

Childcare Arrangement Characteristics

Changes in the demographic profile of the United States workforce has resulted in an increased number of dual-earner and single-parent households (Eby et al., 2005; Halpern, 2005; Offerman & Gowing, 1990; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). In 2010, statistics showed that there were approximately 67% of single mothers and 76% of single fathers currently employed in the United States and 58% of married couples with children are dual-earners (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics,

2011). As parents struggle to manage their work and family demands, childcare has become a primary issue of concern for these working families, regardless of income level. An estimated 13 million children younger than age six are regularly in child care, and millions of school-age children are in after-school activities while their parents are at work (American Psychological Association, 2004). Furthermore, 37% of high income families rely on childcare centers as do approximately 30% of low and middle income families (Williams & Boushey, 2010). The high percentage of working parents as well as the high percentage of children being cared for in childcare centers highlight the importance of examining the influence of a variety of childcare arrangement characteristics including childcare arrangement satisfaction, childcare quality, and childcare costs on family-work conflict perceptions. Ahmad (2008) states that childcare arrangements can have an important influence on parents' work responsibilities and that satisfactory childcare arrangements help protect dual-earner parents against competing work and family role pressures. Characteristics of childcare arrangements are especially relevant to investigate since without childcare most parents would be unable to work and support their family.

Satisfaction with Childcare Arrangement

The large numbers of children cared for in childcare centers stresses the importance of high quality childcare. Accordingly, employers should be concerned about employees' satisfaction with their childcare arrangements. Childcare satisfaction signals how a parent feels about their child's care arrangement (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997; Poms, Botsford, Kaplan, Buffardi, & O'Brien, 2009). Bradbard and Endsley (1986) postulated that satisfaction with childcare arrangements is an issue which causes work-

family conflict to arise. Moreover, Kossek, Colquitt, and Noe (2001) suggested that working parent's satisfaction with their caregiving arrangements contributes more to role conflict perceptions than the type of caregiving arrangement actually used. Payne, Cook, and Diaz (2010) maintain that when working parents are dissatisfied with their current childcare arrangement, they are likely to be distracted while at work, spending their time worrying about their child's well-being, thinking about alternative arrangements, and searching for other care providers, thereby making it more difficult for parents to get their work assignments and responsibilities completed. Supporting this assertion, Barnett and Gareis (2006) showed that parents with school-aged children who were concerned about their child's after-school arrangements experienced job disruptions (e.g., missing deadlines, making errors at work) because they brought these concerns with them into the workplace.

Research on childcare satisfaction has utilized two different measures to assess the construct: a global measure of overall satisfaction with child care arrangements or a multi-dimensional construct composed of multiple factors related to the perceived quality of the childcare arrangement (e.g., dependability of the caregiver, caregiver attentiveness). Studies have shown that these quality-related dimensions of childcare satisfaction predict overall childcare satisfaction, suggesting that while they are related to overall childcare satisfaction, they are also separate constructs contributing their own unique variance (Fuqua & Labensohn, 1986; Payne, Cook, & Diaz, 2010; Poms et al. 2009). It is important to distinguish between the two constructs, assessing both childcare arrangement satisfaction and the perceived quality of childcare as they both may contribute to conflict between the work and family domains. The research described

below focuses on supporting the relationship between overall childcare satisfaction on family-work conflict while the next section pertains to research on the relationship between childcare quality on family-work conflict.

Empirical research demonstrates that childcare satisfaction is negatively related to work-family conflict. Aryee and Luk (1996) examined childcare satisfaction in dual-earner couples and found a negative correlation between childcare satisfaction and work-family conflict for both husbands and wives. In a series of studies with employees from a public utility company and two hospitals, it was shown that having problems with child care arrangements was associated with holding negative employee attitudes towards managing their work and childcare responsibilities (Kossek, 1990; Kossek & Nichol, 1992). In addition, parents of preschool-aged children who reported more favorable levels of satisfaction with child care also indicated that they were more satisfied with the balance they had achieved between their work and family roles (Erdwins, Casper, & Buffardi, 1998). Finally, Goff, Mount, and Jamison (1990) revealed that higher satisfaction with childcare led to lower levels of work-family conflict (which was a measure that combined work-family conflict and family-work conflict together).

Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2006) stated that it was interesting that despite the research supporting that family variables influence family-work conflict more so than work variables, they were unable to find any studies examining the relationship between dependent care satisfaction and family-work conflict, especially because the source of the conflict for childcare satisfaction originates in the family domain. Since Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran made that claim in 2006, subsequent research has explored the role of childcare satisfaction on family-work conflict. Poms et al. (2009)

looked at the relationship between overall childcare satisfaction with work-family conflict and family-work conflict and found only a significant negative relationship with work-family conflict. The authors speculated that the non-significant relationship between childcare satisfaction and family-work conflict was due to the low mean level of family-work conflict reported by the sample. However, in a sample of university employees, Payne et al. (2010) found that the more satisfied employees were with their childcare arrangement, the less likely they were to experience family-work conflict. Moreover, Aycaan and Eskin (2005) found childcare satisfaction to be negatively correlated with family-work conflict among working mothers with preschool age children. Despite these contradictory findings, it is postulated that childcare satisfaction will be negatively related to perceived family-work conflict. To the extent that parents are satisfied with their childcare arrangements, they will feel comfortable that their child is in good hands and have more time to devote to their work obligations without childcare issues interfering because they are undistracted, thereby reducing the amount of family-work conflict experienced by the parent.

Hypothesis 6: Among employees with childcare responsibilities (infant, toddler, preschool age, kindergarten age, school age, and teenager), childcare arrangement satisfaction will be negatively related to employees' family-work conflict.

Childcare Quality

Child care quality refers to a subjective assessment by the parent of the child's well-being while in childcare (Michalopoulos, Robins, & Garfinkel, 1992). Parents' assessments of childcare quality are often influenced by services that provide a responsive, developmentally appropriate environment for young children. The

predominant view among child care researchers, is that childcare quality contributes to children's developmental outcomes (e.g., intellectual, verbal, and cognitive development), with higher quality care being associated with better developmental outcomes (Lamb, 1998; Love, Schochet, & Meckstroth, 1996). A recent longitudinal study of childcare quality showed that the effects of childcare quality extend into young adulthood, as teenagers who were in high quality childcare centers as young children scored more favorably on academic and cognitive achievement measures and reported less behavioral problems than teenagers who were in low quality childcare arrangements, suggesting that childcare quality can have a long-lasting effect on a child's development (Vandell, Belsky, Burchinal, Steinberg, Vandergrift, & the NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 2010). Moreover, Blau and Hagy (1998) state that the quality of childcare in the United States is low on average and can be quite varied, thereby creating a source of anxiety for many employed parents who are unsure of their child's environment and development. Working parents who know that their child is receiving high quality childcare can assume that their child is safe and well taken care of. When parents perceive their childcare provider as high quality, it is postulated that they will experience less family-work conflict because they are not expending time and energy in worrying over their child's well-being or in activities that detract from work demands such as finding a substitute care provider.

Buffardi and Erdwins (1997) found that factors related to childcare quality contributed to interrole conflict among a variety of life roles. Specifically, the researchers found that higher caregiver attentiveness (the amount of attention that a child receives from his or her caregiver, how many other children that are also cared for, and the overall

physical child care situation) was related with lower professional-self role conflict whereas higher caregiver communication (the extent to which a parent feels satisfied with the information provided about the child's day and how well a parent feels when interacting with the caregiver) was associated with lower levels of both professional-parent conflict, spouse-parent conflict, and guilt felt by employed mothers over leaving their child at a care center. A similar line of research by Poms et al. (2009) showed that among working mothers caregiver communication and caregiver attentiveness was negatively related to work-family conflict. Contrary to expectations, there was no relationship between the childcare quality variables of caregiver communication, caregiver attentiveness, and caregiving dependability on family-work conflict. The researchers hypothesized that because the mean level of family-work conflict was low in this sample of working mothers, this might have impacted the non-significant findings that were obtained.

Building on the research conducted by Buffardi & Erdwins (1997) and Poms et al. (2009), Payne et al. (2010) demonstrated that caregiver communication, caregiver attentiveness, and caregiver dependability (the relationship between the child and the childcare provider in addition to whether a parent can rely on the childcare provider to be available as mutually agreed upon) were negatively correlated to time-based family-work conflict and that caregiver attentiveness was negatively correlated to strain-based family-work conflict. Additional research shows that among married women in dual earner families, the perceived quality of child care arrangements predicted role strain between work and family (Greenberger & O'Neil, 1990). This research suggests that childcare quality is expected to interfere with a parent's ability to complete their work. Childcare

perceived as high in quality can allow employees to remain at work undistracted and devote all of their time towards fulfilling work responsibilities, thus decreasing the likelihood of a parent experiencing family-work conflict.

Hypothesis 7: Among employees with childcare responsibilities (infant, toddler, preschool age, kindergarten age, school age, and teenager), childcare quality will be negatively related to employees' family-work conflict.

Childcare Costs

An important aspect of childcare that has only recently been examined in its relationship to conflict between work and family is that of childcare costs. Scholars argue that it is important to utilize an economic perspective in work-family research, emphasizing the costs associated with work-family variables on work-family conflict (Drago & Golden, 2006). Williams and Boushey (2010) state that a factor which affects work-family conflict is childcare costs. Child care, particularly high quality child care, is expensive (Blau, 2001). The typical U.S. family with a preschool-aged child can expect to pay between \$3,016 and \$9,628 per year in childcare costs while the childcare fees for an infant child are even higher, ranging from \$3,803 to \$13,480 a year (Mohan, Reef, & Sarkar, 2006). This results in low-income families paying around 14% of their annual income on childcare for children under the age of 6 while middle-income families spend 6 to 9% of their annual income, and professional and high-income families spend 3 to 7% of their income on childcare (Williams & Boushey, 2010). Further complicating the issue is that subsidies are available only for low-income families and the usage of subsidies is limited in this group. Approximately 30% of low-income families using center-based care, and 16 percent using an in-home care center for a child under age 6, receive

subsidies (Williams & Boushey, 2010). In contrast, only 3% of middle-income families receive subsidies for an in-home care center. In addition, more than two-thirds of the parents who participated in focus groups conducted by the National Association of Child Care Resources and Referral Agencies reported that childcare costs were one of the highest concerns when choosing a childcare provider (Mohan et al., 2006). Data from these reports suggests that the cost of child care can pose serious financial hardships for working families.

Buffardi and Erdwins (1997) proposed that parents have additional worries when evaluating childcare satisfaction beyond the childcare quality-related dimensions of caregiver communication, caregiver dependability, and caregiver attentiveness, particularly the financial costs of their childcare arrangement. Poms, Botsford, Kaplan, Buffardi, and O'Brien (2009) recently expanded the original childcare satisfaction scale created by Buffardi and Erdwins (1997) to include a fourth dimension: childcare costs. The authors showed that financial considerations predicted overall childcare satisfaction beyond caregiver communication, caregiver dependability, and caregiver attentiveness, supporting that childcare costs is a separate construct providing its own unique variance. Interestingly, the researchers found no relationship between childcare costs and family-work conflict but they did note that the employees in their sample had low levels of family-work conflict, thereby providing an explanation for their findings. Payne, Cook, and Diaz (2010) argued that childcare costs are expected to be related to strain-based family-work conflict. They maintain that since being able to afford childcare is often difficult for parents and paying for a childcare provider can be a source of stress, this will then interfere with work responsibilities if the employee is spending time worrying about

the expense or spending time trying to find a new childcare provider that is more affordable. While the authors only hypothesized that satisfaction with child care costs would be negatively related to strain-based family-work conflict, their results showed that satisfaction with childcare costs was negatively related to both strain-based and time-based family-work conflict. It is expected that lower cost child care will ameliorate perceived family-work conflict since childcare cost is a family-domain variable that will likely affect an employee's capacity to be present and attentive at work. The current study will also control for childcare arrangement satisfaction and perceived childcare quality since it may be that childcare services are lower in cost due to the quality level of such services.

Hypothesis 8: Among employees with childcare responsibilities (infant, toddler, preschool age, kindergarten age, school age, and teenager), childcare costs will be positively related to employees' family-work conflict.

Family-Work Conflict

A central assumption of employment trade-offs is that employees make these trade-offs as a result of the conflict that arises from family demands interfering with work-related responsibilities. In their theoretical model focusing on the decision-making process of employees regarding their work domain as a direct result of family factors, Powell and Greenhaus (2010) state that an employee's decision around the amount of time he or she is able to participate or engage in their work role is influenced by variables in the family domain. They state that such variables as family demands and family caregiving responsibilities determine the number of hours a person can devote to their job. If an employee cannot meet their work obligations due to their family obligations, it

is likely that these family-related variables will influence an employee's decision to reduce their participation in the work domain through making an employment trade-off. Research has shown that family characteristics including marital status and family household structure influence participation in employment trade-offs, with employees who have spousal care responsibilities and more complex family structures more likely to make employment trade-offs than employees with no spousal care responsibilities and who live alone without children (Ammons & Edgell, 2007; Mennino & Brayfield, 2002). While this research supports that family demands and family characteristics affect participation in employment trade-offs, the empirical research on employment trade-offs has never included a measure of family-work conflict to explore the relationship between family-work conflict and employment trade-offs. Only theoretical and qualitative research has suggested a positive relationship between these two variables.

Becker and Moen (1999) interviewed over 100 middle class individuals that were in dual earner couples to investigate the variety of strategies to manage the work-family interface. They found that the majority of couples were most often engaged in scaling back strategies that involved reducing and restructuring the couple's commitment to paid work in order to protect the family from work encroachments. One specific strategy involved placing limits on the number of hours they work, decreasing their work responsibilities, and reducing long-term expectations for career advancement in order to manage their familial obligations which were conflicting with their work demands. Similarly, Mickel and Dallimore (2009) content analyzed working professionals' responses to open-ended questions associated with decisions around the work-family interface. Forty-five percent of the respondents reported making a trade-off in their job.

Respondents stated that they made such a trade-off because the responsibilities they faced in the family domain made performance in the work domain too difficult and they could not manage the responsibilities in both domains effectively. In another qualitative study, approximately 87% of couples interviewed indicated that they made an employment trade-off to keep up with their family demands and to maintain boundaries between the work and family domains (Haddock et al., 2001). These same researchers conducted additional interviews with dual-earner couples and found that these couples' response to experiencing family-work conflict was to actively select jobs where they could reduce the amount of work responsibilities and work-related travel they would have to complete allowing for an increased amount of time for fulfilling family duties.

Other researchers have theorized that engaging in employment trade-offs is a specific adaptive strategy chosen by individuals to reduce the role strain associated with family-work conflict (Voydanoff, 2002). Moreover, the previously aforementioned models of family adaptive strategies propose that individuals may choose to engage in an employment trade-off due to a number of family and work domain variables that are likely to create conflict between family and work roles (Barnett, 1998; Voydanoff, 2005b). In summary, the literature suggests that the level of family-work conflict experienced is positively related to employment trade-offs, as employees with more family-work conflict are likely to reduce this conflict through their participation in employment trade-offs, which allows employees to reduce their working obligations to focus their attention towards their family obligations.

Hypothesis 9: Perceived family-work conflict will be positively related to employment trade-offs.

Mediation Process of Employment Trade-offs

It is hypothesized that family-work conflict perceptions will mediate the relationship between the previously aforementioned family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs. There have been no tests of family-work conflict as a mediating variable on the relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs in the work-family conflict literature, but empirical research has established indirect support for the possibility of mediation through perceived family-work conflict.

The necessary conditions for mediation require that the following relationships be established (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Frazier et al., 2004). The independent variable (family and work domain variables) must be related to both the mediator (perceived family-work conflict) and the dependent variable (employment trade-offs). Next, both the independent variable (family and work domain variables) and the mediator (perceived family-work conflict) must be included in the same regression equation on the dependent variable (employment trade-offs). In this regression, the mediator (perceived family-work conflict) must be related to the dependent variable (employment trade-offs) and the direct effect of the independent variable (family and work domain variables) must no longer be significant. Specifically, the research supporting hypotheses 1 – 8 demonstrate that family and work domain variables operate as antecedents to family-work conflict. Secondly, there are also research findings suggesting that family-work conflict predicts participation in employment trade-offs (presented in hypothesis 9).

Researchers have also supported that a variety of family and work domain variables are directly related to employment trade-offs. Frederickson and Scharlach

(2001) reported that employees with childcare responsibilities and adultcare responsibilities reported a high percentage of employment trade-offs (e.g., turning down extra work opportunities, missed training opportunities) made due to family responsibilities (89% and 80%, respectively). Another study by Neal and Hammer (2007) showed that both husbands and wives made work accommodations in response to family demands, although wives did make a greater number of work accommodations than husbands did. Maume (2006) showed that amongst female employees, each additional child in the household increased the number of employment trade-offs made by 28%. In addition, Freedman, Litchfield, and Warfield (1995) interviewed parents of children with developmental disabilities and found that many parents were forced to make employment trade-offs. Numerous interviewees stated that because of the amount of time required by their caregiving roles they had to turn down promotions or other job offers since such opportunities required extensive traveling or working on weekends. Finally, Frederickson and Scharlach (2001) showed that employees providing care for exceptional care recipients experienced higher levels of work accommodations than employees of typical care recipients.

While there is still no empirical research showing a direct relationship among the family and work domain variables of organizational supports and childcare characteristics on employment trade-offs, the support for a direct relationship between the family domain variables associated with dependent care responsibilities and employment trade-offs, taken together with the aforementioned support for the associations between both family and work domain variables and family-work conflict, and family-work conflict and employment trade-offs, suggest that perceptions of family-work conflict may

function as a mediating factor between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs. Theories of work-family conflict including role conflict theory, the rational view, resource drain theory, and the scarcity hypothesis also note that variables which create extensive commitments in the family domain (e.g., dependent care responsibilities or childcare characteristics) decrease the available resources necessary for performing role obligations in the work domain. This limited amount of resources to spend in the work domain suggests that employees with increased family responsibilities may engage in employment trade-offs as a way of accommodating the finite resources they have available to them. Therefore, participation in employment trade-offs is likely to occur as an attempt to reduce the high levels of family-work conflict created by employees' family and work domain variables.

Family and work domain variables may also influence employment trade-off participation through processes of psychological spillover in which the tensions and stresses associated with fulfilling the obligations in the family domain are carried over into the work domain so that conflict occurs between the family and work domains, thereby negatively impacting an employee's capability to complete the responsibilities in the work domain. The psychological response of perceiving family-work conflict from family and work domain variables results in a behavioral response to engage in an employment trade-off to ameliorate these perceptions of conflict between the family and work domains and maintain work-family balance. Considering both the empirical research and theoretical viewpoints, it may be that the direct relationship between work and family domain variables and employment trade-offs will be eliminated when perceived family-work conflict is taken into account. This would indicate that family and

work domain variables influence participation in employment trade-offs through perceived family-work conflict.

Hypothesis 10: The relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs will be mediated by perceived family-work conflict.

Relationships among Family Adaptive Strategies

When experiencing high levels of family-work conflict, employees have multiple family adaptive strategies that they may select from, in addition to making employment trade-offs. Two common family adaptive strategies that employees choose to participate in as a response to family-work conflict include workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization (Hammer et al., 2003; Neal & Hammer, 2007; Voydanoff, 2002; 2005b). The literature on family adaptive strategies suggests that individuals may attempt to reduce their family-work conflict by engaging in multiple family adaptive strategies (Barnett, 1998; Haddock et al., 2006). There are very few empirical research studies which examine the relationship between employment trade-offs with other family adaptive strategies. An important question to examine is for employees who make employment trade-offs, do they also participate in additional family adaptive strategies in order to further reduce their family-work conflict? In this section of the dissertation, workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization are defined and then exploratory hypotheses are presented suggesting a positive relationship between employment trade-offs and both workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization.

Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors

The most basic predictor of performance at work is the presence of the employee

(Schmitt, Cortina, Ingerick, & Wiechmann, 2003). Whether the employee comes to and remains at work, as well as arrives and leaves on time, has a great impact on the completion of work assignments. These behaviors can be very costly to the organization in terms of both financial and human capital resources (Cascio, 1991). Workplace withdrawal behaviors refer to behaviors which employees use to minimize time spent on work tasks, while still maintaining their organization and work role memberships (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991; Blau, 1998). Examples of workplace withdrawal behaviors include a variety of counterproductive job behaviors such as tardiness, leaving work early, absences, and work disruptions. Engaging in withdrawal behaviors is a strategy used by employees to help balance the conflict between the work and family domains (Neal & Hammer, 2007). Hammer et al. (2003) note that employees with high levels of family-work conflict may use workplace withdrawal as a way to manage and cope with their family-work conflict. By participating in workplace withdrawal behaviors, employees with increased family demands will be able to spend less time in the workplace and more time meeting their family responsibilities. For the present study, the focus will be on three types of workplace withdrawal behaviors: tardiness, leaving work early, and absenteeism (including taking off of work for planned leave, unplanned leave, and because of dependent care needs). While these behaviors range in severity from the mild (e.g., arriving late to work) to the more severe (e.g., absenteeism), all of these withdrawal behaviors are important to examine since research has shown that milder forms of withdrawal behaviors (e.g., early departures from work) are likely to escalate over the course of time into more severe forms of withdrawal (e.g., quitting the

organization) (Koslowsky, Sagie, Krausz, & Singer, 1997; Rosse, 1988; Rosse & Miller, 1984; Sagie, Birati, & Tziner, 2002).

Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization

To help alleviate the strain associated with balancing both work and family responsibilities, organizations are more commonly offering family-friendly benefits to their employees which are designed to help ease the role conflict between work and family (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999). Family-friendly benefits are programs or policies intended to make the task of meeting family responsibilities easier for employees while maintaining high performance levels at work (Allen, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Previous studies have categorized the different types of family-friendly benefits into four major benefit areas: alternative work arrangements, leave time allowances, dependent care services, and mental health/wellness programs (Ferber & O'Farrell, 1991; Galinsky, Friedman, & Hernandez, 1991; Secret, 2000; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Alternative work arrangements include policies that allow employees to modification their daily start and stop times and /or locations of work. Benefits that are termed alternative work arrangements include compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time work, job sharing, and telework (Baltes et al., 1999; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Leave time allowances are policies that permit employees to either formally or informally take a few hours or a few days off, with or without pay and are available on an ad hoc basis (Secret, 2000). Dependent care services are initiatives that help employees with their dependent care responsibilities and include childcare centers, vouchers to subsidize dependent care costs, pretax credit accounts for dependent care reimbursement, and information referral services for dependent care facilities and

resources (Aufenanger, 2008; Secret, 2000). Finally, mental health and wellness programs include Employee Assistance Programs, stress management workshops, and seminars on family related issues. These programs are conducted by organizations to aid workers in understanding and coping with issues related to both family-work conflict and work-family conflict (Secret, 2000).

Using family-friendly benefits has been identified as a family adaptive strategy which aids employees in ameliorating the stresses associated with balancing family and work obligations (Voydanoff, 2002; 2005b). Selecting this strategy provides additional resources for employees who are experiencing high levels of family-work conflict to fulfill their work responsibilities. Such resources include gaining job flexibility to complete work tasks and using dependent care services (e.g., child care centers) to help with family demands. Enabling resources in both the work and family domains through family-friendly benefit usage suggests that employees will be better able to meet their family and work demands. The current study focuses on three types of family-friendly benefits: alternative work arrangements, leave time allowances, and dependent care services. Mental health and wellness programs are not be examined for two reasons. The 2006 Federal Employee Dependent Care Survey from which this dissertation is based on did not measure employees' utilization of mental health and wellness programs (U. S. Office of Personnel Management, 2006). Also, mental health and wellness programs only assist employees in coping with dependent care issues (such as through stress management workshops), but do not directly give individuals the resources that help balance their work and family responsibilities (Aufenanger, 2008; Secret, 2000).

Employment Trade-Off's Relationship to Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors and Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization

An interesting linkage to establish in the employment trade-offs literature is to examine the relationships between employment trade-offs with workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. By examining the relationships among these three strategies, an assessment of whether employees participate in multiple family adaptive strategies so as to continually decrease their family-work conflict can be investigated. Barnett (1998) notes that individuals may enact multiple family adaptive strategies for meeting their various work and family demands. According to Barnett (1998), choosing to engage in multiple family adaptive strategies reflects the commitments, obligations, and responsibilities that individuals have towards themselves and towards others in their social system including employees' family members and the organizations to which they have responsibilities. She cites as an example that a young married couple with several dependents who are experiencing family-work conflict may select to utilize the family-friendly benefit of a childcare center while also making an employment trade-off by working reduced hours in their job.

In their study of dual-earner couples with multigenerational caregiving responsibilities, Neal and Hammer found (2007) that engaging in withdrawal behaviors was associated with making a greater number of work accommodations for husbands, supporting a positive relationship between the strategies of employment trade-offs and workplace withdrawal behaviors. Haddock et al. (2006) reported that in addition to utilizing family-friendly benefits as a strategy for alleviating their family-work conflict, dual-earner couples were also making employment trade-offs such as cutting back on

work responsibilities and turning down positions with increased demands on one's time. Furthermore, Blair-Loy and Wharton (2002) found that employees who decreased the number of hours they worked were also more likely to use family-care policies. Despite these studies, it is important to note that a negative relationship may exist between employment trade-offs and workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization, particularly since individuals choose to participate in employment trade-offs to reduce their family-work conflict. After making an employment trade-off, employees may be less likely to engage in other family adaptive strategies because they have decreased their levels of family-work conflict. However, because studies do suggest that employees may engage in multiple family adaptive strategies to reduce family-work conflict (Barnett, 1998; Blair-Loy et al., 2002; Haddock et al., 2006; Neal & Hammer, 2007), it may be that an increase in the usage of one strategy may lead to an increased usage of other strategies. Furthermore, based on the research which shows that participating in employment trade-offs leads to unfavorable perceptions of success in balancing work and family life (Keene & Quadagno, 2004; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Wierda-Boer et al., 2008), it may be that individuals who choose to make employment trade-offs may also select to participate in other family adaptive strategies as a way to improve their management of the work-family interface. While there is limited empirical research examining the associations between employment trade-offs with family adaptive strategies, exploratory hypotheses propose that employees will utilize multiple strategies as a way of ameliorating the pressures of family demands interfering with work demands.

Hypothesis 11: Employment trade-offs will have a positive relationship with workplace withdrawal behaviors.

Hypothesis 12: Employment trade-offs will have a positive relationship with family-friendly benefit utilization.

Family-Work Conflict and Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors

Although there has been little empirical research that has examined the role of family-work conflict on withdrawal behaviors (Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003), there are studies that have shown that family-work conflict is predictive of a variety of workplace withdrawal behaviors including absenteeism, tardiness, leaving early from work, and family-related interruptions at work (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Gignac, Kelloway, & Gottlieb, 1996; Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990; Hammer, et al., 2003).

Using a global measure of work-family conflict that combined both directions of work-family conflict and family-work conflict together, Goff et al. (1990) showed that work-family conflict was predictive of absenteeism. Likewise, Gignac et al. (1996) found a significant relationship between family-work conflict and self-reported absenteeism while Anderson et al. (2002) found a positive relationship between family-work conflict and the numbers of days the employee missed in the past 3 months because of family reasons. In a study of dual-earner couples, family-work conflict was positively related to experiencing interruptions in the workplace due to family-related issues (Hammer et al., 2003).

Additional research has examined the occurrence of family-work conflict affecting withdrawal behaviors due to specific caregiving demands (e.g., eldercare or childcare). Research studies have found that eldercare-work conflict was positively related to partial absenteeism where partial absenteeism was defined as the extent to

which respondents were late for work or left work early (Hepburn & Barling, 1996; MacEwen & Barling, 1994). Related research by Barling, MacEwen, Kelloway, and Higginbottom (1994) revealed that eldercare-based interrole conflicts were predictive of partial absenteeism. Kossek (1990) developed a scale that measured an employee's attitudes toward managing work and child care responsibilities which included items that assessed perceptions of whether the employee work's has been affected by childcare issues. She found that the more negative an employee's attitudes were towards managing work and childcare responsibilities, the more likely it was that absenteeism rates would be higher. Similar research by Kossek and Nichol (1992) showed a negative relationship between an employee's attitude towards managing work and childcare responsibilities and supervisor ratings of the extent to which childcare issues affected the employee's work attendance.

Two meta-analyses also demonstrate the influence of family-work conflict on workplace withdrawal behaviors. In their meta-analytic examination of the overlap between work-family conflict and family-work conflict measures, Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2005) found that family-work conflict was positively correlated with organizational withdrawal behaviors. Additionally, a recent meta-analysis of the consequences of work-family conflict showed that family-work conflict was positively related to absenteeism (Amstad et al., 2011). In summary, the research suggests that there is a positive relationship between conflict from family interfering with work and workplace withdrawal behaviors.

Hypothesis 13: Perceived family-work conflict will be positively related to employees' workplace withdrawal behaviors.

Family-Work Conflict and Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization

Despite the increasing amount of literature on the subject of family-friendly benefit utilization, the majority of this research has examined the direct effect of family-friendly benefit usage on work-family conflict, generally supporting that when employees use family-friendly benefits they are then able to reduce the amount of work-family conflict they experience (Kelly, Kossek, Hammer, Durham, Bray, Chermack, Murphy, & Kaskubar, 2008). A fundamental limitation in the research centering around family-friendly benefit utilization is that it remains unclear how family-friendly benefit utilization should be theoretically positioned in relation to family-work conflict. For example, family-friendly benefit utilization is often regarded as a predictor of family-work conflict (Kelly et al., 2008). In other research, utilization of family-friendly benefits is conceptualized as an outcome or reaction to perceiving family-work conflict, occurring as a result of an increased perception of family responsibilities interfering with work responsibilities (Secret, 2000; Voydanoff, 2002; 2005b). Since employees who are experiencing difficulties in combining their family and work responsibilities are likely to choose family adaptive strategies to participate in, employees with high levels of family-work conflict may be more inclined to utilize family-friendly benefits than employees with low levels of family-work conflict.

The theoretical frameworks associated with role conflict theory, the rational view, resource drain theory, and the scarcity hypothesis are especially helpful in supporting that perceived family-work conflict may lead to employee utilization of family-friendly benefits. These theories suggest that the requirements of one's family demands compete with the limited resources one can devote to participation in work demands, thereby

making it difficult to fulfill the obligations in the work domain. Due to this incompatibility between the fulfillment of work and family roles, employees with augmented perceptions of family-work conflict may be more inclined to use a variety of family-friendly benefits to manage the conflict between the work and family domains.

Haddock et al., (2006) interviewed dual-earner couples and found that these couples participated in a variety of family-friendly benefits such as flexible work scheduling and telecommuting so that they could keep up with their family responsibilities and to maintain a successful balance between the work and family domains. Secret (2000) showed that employees who occupy roles associated with high levels of family-work conflict, including employees with dependents, were more likely to use family-friendly benefits than employees in other types of family structures (such as employees with no dependents). Additionally, it was found that employees who experienced problematic situations originating from their family roles (e.g., those with family-related crises or childcare-related problems, had a greater probability of using family-friendly benefits than those without such problems. Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness (1999) surveyed working professionals and showed that employees who were married or had children living with them were more likely to utilize family-friendly benefits than employees who were not married or with no children. They maintained that because employees with dependents often experience greater conflict between their work and family responsibilities, they were more likely to use family-friendly benefits than employees without dependent care responsibilities. Likewise, Blair-Loy and Wharton (2002) showed that employees with greater caregiving demands including caring for young or school-age children or caring for someone elderly, ill, or disabled were more

likely to report using family-care policies than employees without such caregiving responsibilities. These studies suggest that individuals with family demands who experience family-work conflict should be inclined to use family-friendly benefits as a means of reducing the amount of family-work conflict they perceive.

Hypothesis 14: Perceived family-work conflict will be positively related to employees' family-friendly benefit utilization.

Mediation Process of Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors and Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization

It is expected that the same proposed mediating processes that occur when perceived family-work conflict intervenes in the relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs will also occur for the relationship between family and work domain variables and workplace withdrawal behaviors as well as the relationship between family and work domain variables and family-friendly benefit utilization. A review of the work-family conflict literature shows that family-work conflict has not been examined as a mediator in the relationship between family and work domain variables and family-friendly benefit utilization. However, there is research to support that family-work conflict perceptions act as a mediator between family domain variables and workplace withdrawal behaviors. Hepburn and Barling (1996) had employed eldercare providers complete a daily questionnaire for four work weeks. The researchers found that over this four week period, the relationship between the family domain variables of number of hours of daily interaction with and care provided to elderly parents and partial absenteeism behaviors was mediated by parent-care interference with work. Furthermore, Barling et al. (1994) showed that eldercare-work

conflict was a mediating factor between involvement in eldercare and partial absenteeism behaviors.

Based on the necessary conditions for mediation to be established (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004), the research among the proposed relationships in the mediation model for the relationship between family and work domain variables and workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization suggest for the possibility of mediation through perceived family-work conflict. Hypotheses 1 – 8 indicate that family and work domain variables predict family-work conflict perceptions. Moreover, the research supporting hypotheses 14 and 15 suggest that perceived family-work conflict influences participation in workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. Empirical research has also established support for the direct effect of family and work domain variables on the dependent variables of workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization.

Boise and Neal (1996) showed that employed parents with greater caregiving demands experienced higher absenteeism levels than parents with fewer dependent care responsibilities. Specifically, the authors found that having young children was associated with tardiness and that employees with older children reported more interruptions at work. Also, employees with disabled children were more likely to report a greater number of days missed and early departures from work. Another study by Boyar, Maertz, and Pearson (2005) found that kinship responsibility was marginally significantly related to incidences of leaving work early. That is, employees with more kinship responsibilities were more likely to leave work early to handle family obligations.

Regarding family-friendly benefit utilization, multiple studies have demonstrated that employees with dependent care responsibilities are more likely to utilize family-friendly benefits than employees with fewer or no dependent care demands. Secret (2000) found that employees who experienced family-related crises or childcare-related problems had a higher likelihood of using family-family benefits than those without such issues. An additional study by Thompson et al. (1999) showed that employees who were married or had children living with them were more likely to utilize family-friendly benefits than employees who were not married or did not have children. Similarly, Blair-Loy and Wharton (2002) showed that employees who were caring for either young or school-age children or caring for someone elderly, ill, or disabled were more inclined to use family-care policies than employees without these dependent care responsibilities. Studies have also supported that work domain variables directly influence family-friendly benefit utilization. Thompson et al. (1999) found that employees who perceived more supportive work-family cultures (which included managerial support for employees' family responsibilities as a factor) were more likely to use work-family benefits than those who perceived less supportive cultures. A similar study found that employees who perceived their supervisor as family supportive made greater use of available work-family benefits (Allen, 2001). These studies suggest that both family and work domain variables affect who should be more likely to engage in workplace withdrawal behaviors and use family-friendly benefits.

The research that shows a direct relationship among the family and work domain variables with workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization, taken together with the aforementioned support for the associations between both family

and work domain variables and family-work conflict, and family-work conflict and workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization, suggest that perceived family-work conflict may serve as a mediating variable between family and work domain variables and workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. Theories of role conflict, the scarcity hypothesis, resource drain theory, and the rational view state that family demands and responsibilities cause employees to increase the amount of time they spend on fulfilling their family obligations which may then interfere with the employees work responsibilities since the number of hours spent in the family domain decreases the time available for meeting responsibilities in the work domain. Employees may be more inclined to engage in withdrawal behaviors and utilize family-friendly benefits as a strategy to mitigate the amount of family-work conflict experienced resulting from these family and work domain variables. Theories of work-family conflict and empirical research suggest that the relationship between work and family domain variables and workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization is mediated by perceived family-work conflict.

Hypothesis 15: The relationship between family and work domain variables and workplace withdrawal behaviors will be mediated by perceived family-work conflict.

Hypothesis 16: The relationship between family and work domain variables and family-friendly benefit utilization will be mediated by perceived family-work conflict.

Consequences of Employment Trade-offs

As previously noted, there has been limited empirical research examining the consequences of making employment trade-offs on employees' work and non-work related outcomes. The few empirical studies that have investigated the consequences of employment trade-offs have shown that engaging in employment trade-offs has been associated with lower levels of perceived success in balancing work and family life (Keene & Quadagno, 2004; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Wierda-Boer, Gerris, & Vermulst, 2008), as well as lower levels of self-rated overall health (Fredericksen-Goldensen & Scharlach, 2001) and lower levels of self-esteem and perceived work opportunities (Carr, 2002). While not a direct test of how participating in employment trade-offs influences work outcomes, Barnett and Gareis (2000) found that among physicians who had switched from working a full-time schedule to working reduced hours, the higher their perceived difficulty of trade-offs (operationalized as the distress they experienced due to the discrepancy between the professional activities they would like to perform and their current work arrangement), the more likely it was that these physicians experienced psychological distress, were more likely to state they were going to quit their current place of employment, and indicated lower levels of job quality.

Researchers note that despite the widespread belief that cutting back on one's hours at work (a type of employment trade-off as one reduces the amount of work responsibilities and assignments one can perform in a given week) will have a positive effect on quality of life indicators, there is little empirical support for this assumption (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Gareis, 2000). This counterintuitive finding is supported by Mickel and Dallimore's (2009) claim that experiencing tension is commonly associated with trade-offs, particularly when making significant trade-offs (such as turning down a

promotion) which are even more likely to cause tension because of the important ramifications of such a decision to both the employee and the organization. Their tension-centered approach to examining trade-offs between work and family argues that while positive outcomes may occur from making trade-offs such as reducing conflict around work and family, individuals cannot be rid of tensions around work and family and, thus, negative outcomes may simultaneously be experienced. In addition, Wierda-Boer et al. (2008) postulated that adaptive strategies (such as the participation in employment trade-offs) can lead to negative outcomes since modifying one's personal goals may be considered undesirable to the individual, thereby preventing employee efforts to effectively manage both their work and family domains. Voydanoff (2002) also argues that participation in employment trade-offs may not reduce work–family role strain if the trade-offs are seen as a necessary but undesired adjustment to manage the conflict between work and family.

Moreover, due to the research demonstrating the link between high levels of family-work conflict and negative work and non-work outcomes (Amstad et al., 2011) and the proposed positive correlation between family-work conflict and employment trade-offs (Becker et al., 1999; Haddock et al., 2001; Mickel et al., 2009; Voydanoff, 2002), it may be that making employment trade-offs may also unfavorably impact these outcomes for the employee. Based on the quantitative and qualitative literature that has shown that participating in employment trade-offs results in negative consequences for the employee, we propose that employees who make a high number of employment trade-offs will report negative outcomes in the form of having higher turnover intentions.

Turnover Intentions

High levels of turnover in an organization result in a decrease in overall organizational effectiveness through direct and indirect costs (Griffeth & Hom, 2001; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; O'Connell & Kung, 2007). While the estimates of replacing an employee vary, research shows that turnover costs range from 93 to 200 percent of the exiting employee's salary (Cascio, 2000). In addition, high turnover results in negative consequences for the organization not only in the time, money, and resources it takes to recruit and train the departing employees' replacement, but also in terms of work operations being disrupted, lower morale, and excess burden placed on the remaining employees (Maertz & Campion, 1998). These consequences illustrate the importance for organizations to gauge whether their employees are thinking of voluntarily leaving the organization so that organizations can focus on the factors that prevent turnover.

Turnover intentions refer to an individual's estimated probability that they will voluntarily quit or resign from an organization at some point in the future (Brough & Frame, 2004; Maertz & Campion, 1998). Research on the link between attitudes and behavior suggests that attitudes are a good predictor of behavior when those attitudes are about the specific behavior in question, thus specific attitudes about an individual's intention to quit the organization should be a good predictor of employees' actual turnover behavior operating through their more immediate influence upon behavioral intentions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Fishbein & Azjen, 1975; Kraus, 1995). Turnover intentions are commonly viewed as the culmination of the employee's decision-making process, representing a transitional link between thought processes and behavioral action (Steel & Ovalle, 1984). Indeed, turnover intentions have been found by many researchers to be the best predictor of actual turnover (Dalessio, Silverman, & Shuck, 1986; Hom &

Griffeth, 1995; Michael & Spector, 1982; Price & Mueller, 1981; Steele & Ovalle, 1984). This was further supported by a meta-analysis of the antecedents of turnover which found that intentions to quit the organization was the best predictor of actual turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000).

The majority of research on the antecedents of turnover have focused primarily on examining the role that job attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment play in predicting turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) note that the family–work interface is an important issue that has received limited attention in the turnover literature and that not including family-related variables could mean that an important predictor of why an employee quits their organization is not measured. However, recent turnover models are starting to include the idea that a number of non-work factors (e.g., interrole conflicts between work and family) may influence an employee’s decision to quit their organization (Cohen, 1997; Hom & Kinicki, 2001). While these models of turnover have found a positive relationship between interrole conflict and intent to turnover, they utilized a measure of only work-family conflict and did not measure family-work conflict; thus, the turnover models in the literature are missing vital information of the link between each type of conflict and turnover intentions.

When dependent care responsibilities interfere with completing work responsibilities, then quitting the organization may reduce the level of perceived conflict and allow the employee to more effectively meet their family responsibilities. Employees may quit their organization so that they can decrease the amount of hours they have to

work or to find a new job with a flexible work schedule so that family obligations do not influence their work responsibilities. Numerous research studies support that when employees experience greater family-work conflict, they are more likely to have higher turnover intentions (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006; Boyar et al., 2003; Grandey & Croponzano, 1999; Haar, 2004; Karatepe & Baddar, 2006; Karatepe & Sokmen, 2006; Karatepe & Uludag, 2008; Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, & Luk, 2001). In their development and validation of bi-directional work-family conflict and family-work conflict scales, Netemeyer et al. (1996) found that intentions to leave an organization were positively correlated with family-work conflict in two of the three samples they examined. Also, a recent meta-analysis of the consequences of work-family conflict showed that family-work conflict was positively related to turnover intentions (Amstad et al., 2011). Finally, Barnett and Gareis (2000) showed that among physicians who had switched from working a full-time schedule to working reduced hours, their perceived difficulty of trade-offs was positively related to turnover intentions. Based on this research, it is expected that turnover intentions should be higher in those employees who engage in more employment trade-offs as compared to employees who do not participate in employment trade-offs.

Hypothesis 17: Employment trade-offs are positively related to department turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 18: Employment trade-offs are positively related to agency turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 19: Employment trade-offs are positively related to public sector turnover intentions.

Proposed Model

This study examines the different types of family and work domain variables which influence employment trade-offs through the mediating variable of perceived family-work conflict by analyzing the 2006 Federal Employee Dependent Care Survey. Figure 2 presents a complete listing of all hypotheses. Again, Figure 1 demonstrates the comprehensive model of the various predictors, mediator, associations with other family adaptive strategies, and outcomes of employment trade-offs that are examined in the present research study. Predictors of family-work conflict include family domain-related variables which examine if differences are present in family-work conflict perceptions for employees with various forms of dependent care responsibilities (caregiving responsibilities – childcare, eldercare, or both childcare and eldercare together, total number of dependents, type of care responsibilities - typical or exceptional). Also within the family domain, characteristics associated with childcare (childcare arrangement satisfaction, childcare quality, and childcare costs) are explored as antecedents to family-work conflict. Conversely, work domain variables of organizational supports (supervisor support for dependent care responsibilities and perceived job schedule flexibility), thought to decrease the level of family-work conflict an individual experiences, are also investigated. Next, perceived family-work conflict is investigated as an antecedent to participation in employment trade-offs. The model proposes that perceived family-work conflict mediates the relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs. The model presented then postulates that there are positive relationships between employment trade-offs with the other family adaptive strategies of workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. Next, the model

examines the relationship between family-work conflict and workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. Explorations of whether perceived family-work conflict also mediates the relationship between family and work domain variables and the family adaptive strategies of workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization are also included in the model. The model also predicts one job attitude that has been linked to negative outcomes for both employees and the organization from an employee's decision to participate in employment trade-offs: turnover intentions.

Figure 2
Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Expected Relationship Direction
<i>Antecedents of family-work conflict</i>	
H1: Caregiving responsibilities → Family-work conflict	(+)
H2: Number of dependents → Family-work conflict	(+)
H3: Exceptional care responsibilities → Family-work conflict	(+)
H4: Supervisor support → Family-work conflict	(-)
H5: Perceived job schedule flexibility → Family-work conflict	(-)
H6: Childcare arrangement satisfaction → Family-work conflict	(-)
H7: Childcare quality → Family-work conflict	(-)
H8: Childcare costs → Family-work conflict	(+)
<i>Antecedents of employment trade-offs</i>	
H9: Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	(+)

Figure 2
 Summary of Hypotheses (continued)

Hypothesis	Expected Relationship Direction
<i>Family-work conflict as a mediator of the relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs</i>	
H10: Caregiving responsibilities → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	(+) , (+)
Number of dependents → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	(+) , (+)
Exceptional care responsibilities → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	(+) , (+)
Supervisor support → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	(-) , (+)
Perceived job schedule flexibility → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	(-) , (+)
Childcare arrangement satisfaction → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	(-) , (+)
Childcare quality → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	(-) , (+)
Perceived fit of childcare needs → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	(-) , (+)
Childcare costs → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	(+) , (+)

Figure 2
 Summary of Hypotheses (continued)

Hypothesis	Expected Relationship Direction
<i>Relationship between employment trade-offs and workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization</i>	
H11: Employment trade-offs → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	(+)
H12: Employment trade-offs → Family-friendly benefit utilization	(+)
<i>Antecedents of workplace withdrawal behaviors</i>	
H13: Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	(+)
<i>Antecedents of family-friendly benefit utilization</i>	
H14: Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	(+)

Figure 2
 Summary of Hypotheses (continued)

Hypothesis	Expected Relationship Direction
<i>Family-work conflict as a mediator of the relationship between family and work domain variables and workplace withdrawal behaviors</i>	
H15: Caregiving responsibilities → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	(+), (+)
Number of dependents → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	(+), (+)
Exceptional care responsibilities → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	(+), (+)
Supervisor support → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	(-), (+)
Perceived job schedule flexibility → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	(-), (+)
Childcare arrangement satisfaction → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	(-), (+)
Childcare quality → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	(-), (+)
Perceived fit of childcare needs → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	(-), (+)
Childcare costs → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	(+), (+)

Figure 2
 Summary of Hypotheses (continued)

Hypothesis	Expected Relationship Direction
<i>Family-work conflict as a mediator of the relationship between family and work domain variables and family-friendly benefit utilization</i>	
H16: Caregiving responsibilities → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	(+), (+)
Number of dependents → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	(+), (+)
Exceptional care responsibilities → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	(+), (+)
Supervisor support → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	(-), (+)
Perceived job schedule flexibility → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	(-), (+)
Childcare arrangement satisfaction → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utiliz.	(-), (+)
Childcare quality → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	(-), (+)
Perceived fit of childcare needs → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	(-), (+)
Childcare costs → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	(+), (+)

Figure 2
Summary of Hypotheses (continued)

Hypothesis	Expected Relationship Direction
<i>Consequences of employment trade-offs</i>	
H17: Employment trade-offs → Department turnover intentions	(+)
H18: Employment trade-offs → Agency turnover intentions	(+)
H19: Employment trade-offs → Public sector turnover intentions	(+)

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This study utilizes data that were collected as part of a larger study examining the dependent care needs of Federal government employees. The 2006 Federal Employee Dependent Care Survey was conducted by the U.S. Office of Personnel Management in order to achieve the following research objectives: 1) identify the dependent care needs of current Federal employees; (2) analyze available options employees use for meeting dependent care needs with a focus on authorized Federal programs (Federal Child Care Centers, Child Care Subsidy Program, and Dependent Care Flexible Spending Account); and (3) assess the dependent care needs of low-income employees (U. S. Office of Personnel Management, 2006).

Participants

The study design included a survey of a cross section of all U.S. Federal government employees. The sample frame included all permanent employees of the Federal Government, including employees of all three branches: Executive, Legislative, and Judicial. Of the 42,186 Federal employees who received the survey, 17,521 responded for a response rate of 42%. Before the data were analyzed, the sample was limited to include only those employees with dependent care responsibilities which were relevant to the proposed hypotheses. Since the purpose of this study was to examine and compare those employees with different types of dependents as well as examine the role that employees' dependent care responsibilities influenced employment trade-offs, all employees that did not have dependents were excluded from analysis. This resulted in a final sample composed of 8,646 permanent Federal government employees. Table 1 provides complete information regarding the demographic characteristics of the sample.

Table 1: Demographic Information as Reported by the Final Sample

Demographic Variables	N	% of Respondents
Gender		
Male	3,237	37.4
Female	5,409	62.6
Age Group		
30 or Under	575	6.7
31-40	2,535	29.3
41-50	3,465	40.1
51-60	1,829	21.2
61 or older	234	2.7
Job Category		
Professional	2,846	33.1
Administrative	2,014	23.4
Technical	915	10.6
Clerical	1,785	20.7
Other White Collar	732	8.5
Blue Collar	314	3.6
Education Level		
Less than High School	14	.2
High School Diploma/GED	881	10.2
Some College, no Degree	2,192	25.4
Associate/Technical Degree	1,020	11.8
College Degree	2,482	28.7
Graduate/Professional Degree	1,987	23.0
Other	59	.7
Region of the United States where employed		
Northeast	835	10.2
Midwest	1,084	13.3
South	4,751	58.1
West	1,508	18.4
Tenure		
Less than 1 year	66	.8
1 to 2 years	727	8.4
3 to 4 years	885	10.2
5 to 9 years	1,625	18.8
10 to 14 years	1,065	12.3
15 to 19 years	1,695	19.6
20 to 24 years	1,143	13.2
25 to 29 years	805	9.3
30 to 34 years	479	5.5
35 years or more	156	1.8

Table 1 (continued): Demographic Information as Reported by the Final Sample

Demographic Variables	N	% of Respondents
Marital Status		
Single	2,090	24.2
Married/Living with a Partner	6,566	75.8
Dependent Care Responsibilities		
Child	5,611	64.9
Adult	1,628	18.8
Both Child and Adult	1,407	16.3
Dependents with Exceptional Care Needs		
None	7,479	86.5
Child	465	5.4
Adult	680	7.9
Both Child and Adult	22	.3
Number of Children in Household		
None	1,628	18.8
One	3,296	38.1
Two	2,564	29.7
Three	827	9.6
Four	244	2.8
Five	55	.6
More than Five	32	.4
Number of Adult Dependents in Household		
None	5,611	64.9
One	2,196	25.4
Two	642	7.4
Three	153	1.8
More than Three	44	.5
Number of Children by Age		
Infant	598	8.5
Toddler	638	9.0
Pre-school	1,724	24.6
Kindergarten	652	9.3
School-age	3,227	45.9
Teenager	3,083	43.9
Agency Branch		
Executive	6,379	73.8
Legislative	780	9.0
Judicial	1,487	17.2
Employment Status		
Full-Time	8,259	96.0
Part-Time	343	4.0

Table 1 (continued): Demographic Information as Reported by the Final Sample

Demographic Variables	N	% of Respondents
Hours Worked in an Average Week		
1 to 15 Hours	11	.1
16 to 32 Hours	310	3.6
33 to 39 Hours	109	1.3
40 Hours	6,274	72.6
More than 40 Hours	1,935	22.4
Commuting Time		
0 to 15 Minutes	1,207	14.0
16 to 30 Minutes	2,601	30.1
31 to 45 Minutes	2,117	24.5
46 to 60 Minutes	1,538	17.8
More than 1 Hour, but less than 1 ½ Hours	766	8.9
More than 1 ½ Hours, but less than 2 Hours	312	3.6
More than 2 Hours	58	.7
I Never Travel to Work	35	.4
Total Family Household Income		
\$40,000 or less	471	5.7
\$40,001 to 69,000	2,058	24.7
\$69,001 to 120,000	3,610	43.4
More than \$120,000	2,185	26.2
Annual Salary		
\$39,000 or less	1,036	12.6
\$39,001 to \$69,000	4,209	51.1
\$69,001 to \$99,000	1,859	22.6
More than \$99,000	1,139	13.8

Among the respondents, 63% were female and almost two-thirds (62%) had been working for the government 10 years or more. The majority of survey respondents were 41 years or older (64%) and 96% of participants stated that they were full-time employees. Approximately 73% of employees worked a standard 40 hour workweek and 64% were college educated. Of these respondents, 5,611 (65%) reported children only, 1,628 (19%) reported adult dependents only, and 1,407 (16%) of the participants reported

both child and adult dependents. A breakdown of this sample by the number of children in the household showed that 19% of the sample had no children, 38% had one child, 30% had two children, 10% had three children, 3% had four children, 1% had five children, and .4% had more than five children. In regards to the number of adult dependents in the household, 65% of the sample had no adult dependents, 25% had one adult dependent, 7% had two adult dependents, 2% had three adult dependents, and .5% had more than three adult dependents.

In addition, some 14% of respondents indicated that they had some type of exceptional care responsibility, including 5% having a child with a disability/special needs, 8% having an adult with special needs care, and less than 1% having both a child and adult with special needs care. Three-fourths (76%) of the sample were coupled, indicating that they were either married or living a partner. Participants worked in a variety of job categories, including 33% in professional occupations, 23% in administrative jobs, 11% in technical jobs, 21% in clerical jobs, 9% in other white-collar jobs, and 4% employed in blue collar jobs. The average annual salary of participants ranged from \$59,001 to \$65,000 while participants' average total family income ranged from \$99,001 to \$110,000. The majority of participants (74%) worked in the Executive branch of the Federal government, while 9% worked in the Legislative branch, and 17% worked in the Judicial branch. Although multiple Executive, Legislative, and Judicial branch agencies are represented in the sample, the greatest number of respondents were employed by the Probation and Pretrial Services in the Judicial branch (6.0%) and the Social Security Administration in the Executive branch (5.4%). The 2006 Federal Employee Dependent Care Survey did not contain any questions asking participants their

racial or ethnic background, so no information was collected regarding employees' racial or ethnic identification. For a complete listing of government departments and percentages in regards to sample respondents, see Tables 2 and 3.

Table 2: Number of Respondents by Executive Branch Agencies

<u>Government Agency</u>	<u>Number of Respondents</u>	<u>% of Sample</u>
Agency for International Development	115	1.3
Department of Agriculture	385	4.5
Department of Commerce	217	2.5
Department of Defense	319	3.7
Department of Education	174	2.0
Department of Energy	291	3.4
Department of Health and Human Services	249	2.9
Department of Homeland Security	193	2.2
Department of Housing and Urban Development	156	1.8
Department of the Interior	146	1.7
Department of Justice	371	4.3
Department of Labor	251	2.9
Department of State	270	3.1
Department of the Treasury	267	3.1
Department of Transportation	261	3.0
Department of Veterans Affairs	340	3.9
Environmental Protection Agency	218	2.5
General Services Administration	258	3.0
National Aeronautics and Space Administration	301	3.5
National Science Foundation	140	1.6
Office of Management and Budget	72	.8
Office of Personnel Management	369	4.3
Small Business Administration	264	3.1
Social Security Administration	464	5.4
Other Executive Branch Agencies ^a	288	3.3

Total N = 8,646

^a The Other Executive Branch Agencies category is comprised of smaller agencies who were not listed separately.

Table 3: Number of Respondents by Legislative and Judicial Branch Agencies

<u>Government Agency</u>	<u>Number of Respondents</u>	<u>% of Sample</u>
<i>Legislative</i>		
Architect of the Capitol	189	2.2
Congressional Budget Office	70	.8
Government Accountability Office	229	2.6
Government Printing Office	93	1.1
Library of Congress	196	2.3
Office of Compliance	3	.0
<i>Judicial</i>		
Administrative Offices	157	1.8
Chambers	277	3.2
Court Offices	411	4.8
Probation and Pretrial Services	517	6.0
Public Defender	125	1.4
<hr/>		
Total N = 8,646		

Sample Frame and Sampling Techniques. Since the research objectives of the Federal Dependent Care survey required the participation of Federal employees with dependent care responsibilities, stratified sampling of the available population was used. Stratified sampling is used when there are subgroups of different sizes that the researchers wish to examine (Bethlehem, Cobben, & Schouten, 2011; McCready, 2006). The Central Personnel Data File (CPDF) was used to draw the sample of Federal employees. The CPDF is a population database maintained by the U. S. Office of Personnel Management that contains employee data (e. g., age and gender) of Executive branch employees and is updated quarterly from agency submissions.

The sample frame was developed to include Federal employees who met the following criteria: (1) a duty station (or official worksite) within the United States and (2) held a permanent status as either full or part-time Federal employees. The September 2005 version of the CPDF was used because it was the most recent data available at the

time the survey was developed. While the CPDF contains a variety of demographic information on Federal civilian employees, it does not contain information regarding the dependents of employees. Therefore, the dataset was stratified by age and income. The initial stratification was made for employees fifty years of age and younger and employees fifty-one years of age and older. Stratification of these two age groups was done to ensure that the sample contained both Federal employees with children under the age of 18 and Federal employees with simultaneous child and adult dependent care responsibilities (“sandwich” generation employees).

Because the research goals of the study included the exploration of the availability and utilization of dependent care programs such as the Child Care Subsidy Program, the sample was also stratified by income level. The Child Care Subsidy Program is available only to Federal employees below a certain household income and eligibility for the program is measured against an employee’s total family income. As the CPDF database does not contain total household income information, adjusted base pay salary data was used as a proxy for household income to ensure the inclusion of employees who might meet eligibility requirements for participation in dependent care programs like the Child Care Subsidy program. The income threshold for eligibility in the Child Care Subsidy Program was set at \$69,000 to reflect the highest observed salary in an agency list of known thresholds. Thus, the second stratification variable was income threshold for Child Care Subsidy Program participation.

Cross-classification of the data file by age and income threshold resulted in four *strata*. The substratum of employees fifty and younger and income level below the threshold was *over-sampled* (a larger number of employees drawn) as compared to the

other three substrata. This frequently-used practice was meant to ensure the inclusion of employees more likely to have child care needs and more likely to participate in Federal Child Care programs. The proportions estimated for the over-sampled stratum is targeted for a +/-5 percent margin of error. For the other strata, a less ambitious target was used with a +/- 10 percent margin of error. All confidence intervals have a confidence level of 95%. Strata sample sizes were allocated to control for margin of error. The initial sample drawn included two and a half times the number of employees needed to respond, in anticipation of a 40% response rate.

Finally, in addition to stratifying the sample population by age and income, the sample was stratified by agency. Agencies from the Executive, Legislative, and Judicial branches were stratified (see Tables 2 and 3 for a complete list of agencies sampled). Once the available population was stratified, a random sample from each individual stratum was drawn. This method of sampling is preferable for the task at hand because, by statistical theory, stratification allows us to estimate parameters (that is, means and proportions) with a specified level of precision for subgroups of a population. Such subgroup parameter estimation from a simple random sample may not yield estimates of the desired precision. The sampling methodology used was developed to ensure representative survey results would be obtained for each agency, for employees with child care needs, and for employees eligible to participate in authorized Federal dependent care programs.

Procedure.

Survey Development and Administration. The Federal Employee Dependent Care Survey was developed by personnel research psychologists at the U. S. Office of

Personnel Management to provide a comprehensive and descriptive inventory of current dependent care needs and care strategies, as well as a baseline assessment of possible continuing and future needs. The topics included in the survey were suggested by a review of the work-family literature from both academia and industry. A total of 149 questions captured the following 8 topic areas: Household Characteristics and Dependent Care Responsibilities, Child Care by Age Group, General Child Care, Federally-sponsored Child Care Programs, Adult Dependent Care, Work and Dependent Care, Future Dependent Care Needs, Employee Background Characteristics.

The survey was administered electronically to a stratified sample of Federal employees (as described above). Survey administration extended over a 6 week period beginning from April 6 and ending June 1, 2006. Before the survey was sent to employees, agency points of contact were contacted and asked to support their employees' participation in the survey. An official email invitation was sent by the employing agency to sampled employees assuring them of the legitimacy of the survey and encouraging participation. This invitation contained information about the survey, as well as instructions on how to access the survey. Weekly reminders were sent to employees via email during the survey's administration.

Weighting. A stratified sampling process was utilized to ensure the inclusion of respondents with specific demographic characteristics of interest to the researchers (e.g., employees with children and low-income employees). Because of this sampling process, the resulting probability of being sampled was not uniform across all strata. In order to correct for this, the data were weighted to ensure that respondents are representative of the Federal population. Weighting data does not change respondents' answers. Instead, it

corrects the potential skewing of findings that may have been caused by the over-sampling procedures described previously. Weighting ensures each respondent's experiences are fairly represented in accordance with actual population percentages.

A sampling weight was developed for each response corresponding to the number of people the sampled employee represents. The sampling weight was the inverse of the per-stratum probability of being included in the sample, which is equivalent to the stratum frame count divided by the number of responses in that stratum. A second weight was applied to take into account that the survey did not receive a 100% response rate. This non-response adjustment weight was the inverse of the response rate. The sampling weight and the non-response adjustment weight were multiplied together to produce the final weight, which was assigned to each of the 17,521 cases for the analyses. Weighting data for analysis ensures any comparison drawn takes into account the known population distributions. For a more complete description of how the data were weighted, please see U.S. Office of Personnel Management (2006).

Upon applying the weights to the database, the demographics of the sample changed. Previously, the sample was almost two-thirds female but the weighted sample is comprised of a more equivalent gender representation (54% male). The weighted sample consists of 60% with only child dependents, 23% with only adult dependents, and 18% with both child and adult dependents. About 81% of the sample were coupled (married or living with a partner) and almost three-quarters of participants were 41 years or older (72%). As previously mentioned, the unweighted sample size included 8,646 respondents. The weighted sample size increased the number of respondents to 918,701

participants. For a complete listing of weighted participant demographics, see Table 4, respectively.

Table 4: Weighted Demographic Information as Reported by the Final Sample

<u>Demographic Variables</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>% of Respondents</u>
Gender		
Male	491,459	53.5
Female	427,242	46.5
Age Group		
30 or Under	50,262	5.5
31-40	210,198	22.9
41-50	383,654	41.8
51-60	240,055	26.2
61 or older	32,922	3.6
Job Category		
Professional	321,853	35.0
Administrative	188,069	20.6
Technical	135,632	14.8
Clerical	108,177	11.8
Other White Collar	78,831	8.6
Blue Collar	81,207	8.9
Education Level		
Less than High School	3,204	.3
High School Diploma/GED	83,478	9.1
Some College, no Degree	248,444	27.1
Associate/Technical Degree	125,494	13.7
College Degree	268,366	29.3
Graduate/Profess. Degree	184,143	20.1
Other	3,127	.3
Region of the United States where employed		
Northeast	97,429	11.3
Midwest	138,873	16.0
South	429,809	49.6
West	199,867	23.1
Marital Status		
Single	174,118	19.0
Married/Living with Partner	744,583	81.0
Employment Status		
Full-Time	888,337	97.4
Part-Time	24,179	2.6

Table 4 (continued): Weighted Demographic Information as Reported by the Final Sample

Demographic Variables	N	% of Respondents
Tenure		
Less than 1 year	7,344	.8
1 to 2 years	79,329	8.6
3 to 4 years	93,860	10.2
5 to 9 years	136,181	14.8
10 to 14 years	106,939	11.6
15 to 19 years	170,674	18.6
20 to 24 years	138,064	15.0
25 to 29 years	106,691	11.6
30 to 34 years	60,854	6.6
35 years or more	18,765	2.0
Dependent Care Responsibilities		
Child	547,944	59.6
Adult	209,567	22.8
Both Child and Adult	161,190	17.5
Dependents with Exceptional Care Needs		
None	791,650	86.2
Child	51,963	5.7
Adult	72,662	7.9
Both Child and Adult	2,426	.3
Number of Children in Household		
None	209,567	22.8
One	328,686	35.8
Two	257,505	28.0
Three	85,918	9.4
Four	25,967	2.8
Five	7,420	.8
More than Five	3,639	.4
Number of Adult Dependents in Household		
None	547,944	59.6
One	264,273	28.8
Two	76,015	8.3
Three	22,049	2.4
More than Three	8,420	.9

Table 4 (continued): Weighted Demographic Information as Reported by the Final Sample

Demographic Variables	N	% of Respondents
Number of Children by Age		
Infant	59,266	8.3
Toddler	61,239	8.6
Pre-school	158,959	22.4
Kindergarten	71,393	10.1
School-age	327,752	46.2
Teenager	346,464	48.9
Agency Branch		
Executive	903,083	98.3
Legislative	4,429	.5
Judicial	11,189	1.2
Hours Worked in an Average Week		
1 to 15 Hours	1,097	.1
16 to 32 Hours	22,581	2.5
33 to 39 Hours	8,652	.9
40 Hours	667,843	72.8
More than 40 Hours	217,207	23.7
Commuting Time		
0 to 15 Minutes	156,085	17.0
16 to 30 Minutes	332,985	36.3
31 to 45 Minutes	213,365	23.3
46 to 60 Minutes	129,702	14.2
More than 1 Hour, but less than 1 ½ Hours	60,986	6.7
More than 1 ½ Hours, but less than 2 Hours	18,789	2.1
More than 2 Hours	2,696	.3
I Never Travel to Work	1,883	.2
Total Family Household Income		
\$40,000 or less	49,847	5.7
\$40,001 to 69,000	224,133	25.5
\$69,001 to 120,000	402,519	45.8
More than \$120,000	202,856	23.1
Annual Salary		
\$39,000 or less	126,390	14.5
\$39,001 to \$69,000	398,481	45.8
\$69,001 to \$99,000	235,289	27.1
More than \$99,000	109,070	12.5

Measures

A number of measures within the Federal Dependent Care survey were used to assess Federal employees' dependent care responsibilities, supervisory support for dependent care responsibilities, perceived job schedule flexibility for dependent care needs, characteristics associated with childcare, perceived family-work conflict, employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, family-friendly benefit utilization, turnover intentions, and demographic data. Appendix A shows the item(s) that make up each measure. The following section provides explanations and operationalizations of each of the variables of interest.

Dependent Care Responsibilities and Number of Dependents. Participants were asked two questions regarding their dependent care responsibilities: "How many people living in your household now are children up to age 18 (but not including age 18)?" and "How many dependent adults (age 18 and older) do you have under your care now?". Employees with only one type of dependent care demand (either child or adult dependent) were coded as '0' and employees with both child and adult dependent care demands were coded as '1'. In regards to the operationalization of the number of dependents, the responses for the above two questions were summed together to create the total number of dependents the employee is responsible for.

Type of Dependent Care Responsibilities. Participants were identified as having either typical or exceptional dependent care responsibilities based on their responses to two questions. Participants were first asked whether their children had any special needs (physical and/or mental disabilities). This same question was asked six times throughout the survey to assess the special needs of the respondents' children by the age of the child

(infant, toddler, preschool age, kindergarten, school-age, and teenager). A sample question read, “Do(es) your (infant(s), toddler(s), preschool age child(ren), kindergartener(s), school-age child(ren), teenager(s)) have special needs (physical and/or mental disabilities)?”. The second question asked, “Do(es) your adult dependent(s) need help with tasks of everyday living (for example, eating, bathing, etc.) or have mental impairments?”. For both questions, survey respondents were given two possible answer options: ‘No’ (coded as 0) or ‘Yes’ (coded as 1). Any participant who answered ‘no’ to both of these items were coded as typical care (coded as ‘0’). If a participant answered ‘yes’ to any of these two questions, they were coded as exceptional care (coded as ‘1’).

Supervisor Support. One item measured participants’ perceptions of their supervisor support’s for dependent care responsibilities by asking, “How supportive of your dependent care responsibilities is your supervisor?”. The item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale (*1 = Not at All, 5 = Extremely*). Responses that were either “don’t know” or “not applicable” were coded as user-missing in the dataset and left as a non-response.

Perceived Job Schedule Flexibility. Respondent’s perceived job schedule flexibility for dependent care needs was assessed through one item asking, “How easy/difficult is it for you to change your scheduled work hours to handle your dependent care needs on short notice?”. Participants’ responses were collected using a 5-point Likert-type scale with ‘1 = Very difficult’ and ‘5 = Very easy’ as anchors. Responses that were either “don’t know” or “not applicable” were coded as user-missing in the dataset and left as a non-response.

Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction. Participants were asked to report their level of satisfaction with their current childcare arrangement. The childcare arrangement satisfaction question was asked six times throughout the survey to assess respondents' childcare arrangement satisfaction by the age of the child (infant, toddler, preschool age, kindergarten, school-age, and teenager). For those participants with more than one child, their responses to their children's childcare arrangement satisfaction were averaged together to create a single score for childcare arrangement satisfaction. Participants reported their satisfaction level on a 5-point scale ranging from '1 = Very dissatisfied' to '5 = Very satisfied' with the following statement which only varied by the age of the child: "Taking everything into account, how satisfied are you with your current (infant care, toddler care, preschooler care, kindergartener care, school-aged children care, and teenager care) arrangement?".

Childcare Quality ($\alpha = .92$). Six items measured employees' perceptions of the quality of their childcare provider. The items asked "Thinking of the child care you have used for the past 12 months, how often have you experienced difficulties with (1) the overall quality of the care?, (2) finding dependable caregiver(s)?, (3) finding qualified caregiver(s)?, (4) finding child care that meets your child(ren)'s developmental needs (educational, social)?, (5) finding caregivers that are emotionally responsive to your child(ren)?, and (6) finding a safe child care environment?". The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ($1 = Always$, $5 = Never$).

Childcare Costs. Respondents were asked how much they pay for childcare in an average week. Three separate questions assessed employees' childcare costs by both age of the child and during the time periods when school is in and out of session. The first

question which was directed for children too young for elementary school asked, “For your child(ren) too young for elementary school (usually infants, toddlers, and some preschoolers), how much do you pay in an average week for child care? Please provide the total combined cost of all your child care arrangements that you use during the hours you work for the Federal government. (Do not include off-work hours for child care, for example baby-sitting arrangements for a movie night out.)”. The second question was directed at children old enough for elementary school and higher when school is in session and asked, “For your child(ren) old enough for elementary school and higher grades (for example, some preschoolers, and kindergartners, school-aged children, teenagers), how much do you pay in an average week for child care when school is IN session (for example, during the traditional school year of September – June)? Please provide the total combined cost of care arrangements that you use during the hours you work for the Federal government. (Do not include off-work hours for child care, for example baby-sitting arrangements for a movie night out.)”. The final question measuring childcare costs was directed at children old enough for elementary school and higher when school is not in session and asked, “For your child(ren) old enough for elementary school and higher grades (for example, some preschoolers, and kindergartners, school-aged children, teenagers), how much do you pay in an average week for child care when school is NOT in session (during school breaks, for example, traditional summer holidays)? Please provide the total combined cost of care arrangements that you use during the hours you work for the Federal government. (Do not include off-work hours for child care, for example baby-sitting arrangements for a movie night out.)”. For each of the three questions, participants chose from one of nine monetary categories that were

in \$50 increments. These nine response categories responses ranged from ‘\$1- \$50 a week’ (coded 1) to ‘\$401 or more per week’ (coded 9). Participants who answered more than one question related to childcare costs (e.g., because they had children of different ages or paid for childcare during time periods when school is in and out of session) had their responses to their children’s childcare costs averaged together to create a single score for childcare costs. Participants’ average childcare costs scores were used instead of summation scores since the total amount of childcare costs was measured by categories and the last category of ‘\$401 or more per week’ does not allow for an exact determination of how much money was spent in childcare since that category could encompass an unknown range of hundreds to thousands of dollars. Due to this issue, averaging the scores allows for a better average estimate of the amount of money respondents spend on childcare costs per week.

Family-work conflict. Family-work conflict was assessed through one item, “In the past 12 months, how often have your child(ren) and/or adult dependent care responsibilities kept you from doing as good a job at work as you would like?” Responses to the item were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (*1 = Never, 5 = Always*). The family-work conflict item was derived from a measure developed by Bond, Galinsky, and Swanberg (1998).

Employment Trade-Offs. Five questions regarding the trade-offs employees have made in their job as a result of their dependent care responsibilities were asked. These employment trade-offs were based on items that were created by the Families and Work Institute for the 1992 National Study of the Changing Workforce (Galinsky, Bond, & Friedman, 1993) and the 1996 General Social Survey (Davis, Smith, & Marsden, 1996).

Respondents were asked, “In the past 12 months, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to: (1) turn down a promotion, (2) ask for a decrease in work responsibilities, (3) ask for a decrease in work-related travel, (4) request a work-schedule change, and (5) delay your return from parental/family leave. Responses to the employment trade-off items were measured on a dichotomous scale anchored with (0) No, (1) Yes, and Not applicable. Responses that were “not applicable” were coded as user-missing in the dataset and left as a non-response. Based on previous research on employment trade-offs (Frederickson & Scharlach, 2001; Maume, 2006; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Neal & Hammer, 2007; Wierda-Boer et al., 2008), a numeric variable was created from 0 to 5 for the total number of different types of trade-offs made at work because of family responsibilities.

Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors ($\alpha = .88$). For this survey, workplace withdrawal behaviors refer to behaviors (e.g. tardiness, absenteeism) which employees use to minimize time spent on work tasks, while still maintaining their organization and work role memberships (Blau, 1998). Six items assessed a variety of employee workplace withdrawal behaviors that occurred as a direct result of dependent care demands. The withdrawal behaviors were based off of a measure of workplace withdrawal behaviors developed by Neal, Chapman, Ingersoll-Dayton, and Emlen (1993) and are also similar to the workplace withdrawal behavior items used by Hammer, Bauer, and Grandey (2003). These items assessed a variety of workplace withdrawal behaviors that were related to different challenges in dependent care that may lead the employee to withdraw from work. Five of the items asked “Over the past 12 months, how often have issues with your dependent care (for both children and adults) caused you to: (1) arrive late to work?, (2)

leave work early?, (3) take leave because of a sick dependent?, (4) take leave because of an unplanned change in your dependent care (e.g., provider is unavailable; closed dependent care facility)?, and (5) take leave because of planned events (e.g., school vacation/teacher in-service days)?”. The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (*1 = Never, 5 = 10 or more times*). The final item asked employees to indicate the number of hours of leave taken for dependent care needs. The item states, “During the past 12 months, approximately how many hours of your leave have you had to take to meet your dependent care needs (for both children and/or adults)?”. Response options included a range starting with ‘None’, to numeric values 1 through 40, and finishing with ‘More than 40’. These responses were placed into one of five categories ranging from “none” (coded 1), “1-15 hours” (coded 2), “16-30 hours” (coded 3), “31-40 hours” (coded 4), and “more than 40 hours” (coded 5) to match the 5-point Likert scale format of the other five withdrawal behavior questions.

Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization. Employees’ utilization of family-friendly benefits was measured by asking respondents to indicate whether they had used each of 13 specific benefits from a list of family-friendly benefits to aid with dependent care responsibilities during the past year. The benefit utilization item asked “Which of the following work schedules or benefits have you used in the past 12 months to manage your dependent care responsibilities?” Response choices were based on a 2-point scale of no (coded 0) and yes (coded 1). The thirteen benefits included compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time work, job sharing, telework, work off-hours, annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay, advanced leave, leave sharing, compensatory (comp) time, and credit hours. Respondents were also asked separately

about three dependent care services benefits, including Federal Child Care Centers, Federal Child Care Subsidiaries, and the Dependent Care Flexible Spending Account. An example dependent care services utilization item is, “Do you currently use a Federal Child Care Center?”. Responses to items were either no (coded 0) or yes (coded 1). Similar to previous research (Allen, 2001; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999), a total benefit utilization score for each of the 16 benefits was created by summing the number of benefits utilized by the participant so that higher scores indicate a greater number of benefits utilized.

Turnover Intentions. Turnover intentions were measured with three items that assessed intent to turnover within the respondent’s current government agency, intent to turnover within the Federal government, and intent to turnover outside of the Federal government. Since the three turnover intentions measure three distinct constructs, responses from the three items were not combined and were treated as three separate dichotomous variables. The item for turnover intention within the agency asked, “In the past 12 months, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to look for a new job within your current Federal agency?”. Agency turnover intention was assessed by, “In the past 12 months, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to look for a new job with another Federal agency?”. The item for Federal government turnover intention asked, “In the past 12 months, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to look for a new job outside the Federal government?”. Survey respondents were given three possible answer options: ‘No’ (coded as 0), ‘Yes’ (coded as 1), or ‘Not Applicable’. Responses that were “not applicable” were coded as user-missing in the dataset and left as a non-response.

Demographic Data. The following twelve demographic variables were used as statistical controls to mitigate confound effects on the employment trade-offs variable and to eliminate rival explanations between the observed relationships amongst the variables: gender (0 = male, 1 = female), age (increasing categories with 1 = 30 or under, 5 = 61 or older), marital status (0 = single, 1 = married/living with a partner), education level (increasing categories with 1 = less than high school, 6 = graduate/professional degree), employment status (0 = full-time, 1 = part-time), number of average hours worked in a week (increasing categories with 1 = 1 to 15 hours, 5 = More than 40 hours), government tenure (increasing categories with 1 = less than 1 year, 10 = 35 years or more), time spent commuting to work (increasing categories with 1 = 0 to 15 minutes, 7 = More than 2 hours), total family household income (increasing categories with 1 = \$20,000 or less, 24 = More than \$200,000), annual salary (increasing categories with 1 = \$20,000 or less, 15 = More than \$99,000), dummy variables for agency branch (Executive, Legislative, and Judicial), and region of residence within the United States (0 = combination of Northeast, Midwest, and West regions, 1 = South).

Data Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

Analyses. Multiple and logistic regression analyses and correlational analyses were conducted to examine study hypotheses. SAS version 9.2 was used to compute the regressions to account for both the weights applied to the sample and the stratified sampling. While advanced statistical packages (e.g., SPSS) have a weight statement that permits computation of unbiased population estimates, many of these packages cannot calculate accurate variance and standard errors of population estimates based on complex survey designs such as the OPM Dependent Care Needs Study. SAS version 9.2 allows

the researcher to control for weighted data and complex survey designs including stratified sampling so that the resulting variances and standard deviations are more accurate because SAS does not assume simple random sampling to calculate variance and standard errors. Unfortunately, SAS version 9.2 does not allow one to utilize stepwise regression when controlling for weighting and complex survey designs since it does not support the `selection = model` statement option when using PROC SURVEYREG to build a model statement. Not being able to use stepwise regression prevents observation of how the variance in the regression model increases with each set of variables so that one can see how much variance the independent variables add beyond the variance accounted for by the control variables. However, it is important to control for the stratified sampling in order to get the proper standard errors and the model statement still allows for us to control for all demographic variables while reporting the overall variance in the regression model.

Prior to regression analyses, we constructed two dummy coded variables to contrast Executive branch employees to that of Legislative branch employees and Judicial branch employees. For the hypotheses related to examining the influence of dependent care responsibilities, number of dependents, exceptional care responsibilities, supervisor support for dependent care responsibilities, and perceived job schedule flexibility for dependent care needs on family-work conflict (hypotheses 1 – 5), both control variables and the above five independent variables were entered into the regression analysis with family-work conflict as the dependent variable. Because the hypotheses associated with childcare characteristics (hypotheses 6 – 8) on family-work conflict pertain to only a subset of the sample (those with both adult and child dependents

and child dependents only) and exclude those participants with adult dependents only, separate regression analyses were conducted from the regression testing hypotheses 1 – 5. In each of these 3 regressions with the childcare characteristics variables (hypotheses 6 – 8), control variables were entered along with the independent variable. For hypothesis 8, which examines the influence of childcare costs on family-work conflict, additional control variables of childcare arrangement satisfaction and childcare quality were entered into the regression. Three separate multiple regressions with control variables and family-work conflict as the independent variable and the dependent variables of employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization were performed to test the effect of perceived family-work conflict on employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization (hypotheses 9, 13, and 14). In order to examine the relationship between employment trade-offs with workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization (hypotheses 11 and 12), correlations between these variables were analyzed to determine the strength and direction of their associations with each other.

Mediator variables explain how or why a predictor variable influences an outcome variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004). To test the mediating effects proposed in hypotheses 10, 15, and 16, the methods suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) were employed. Baron and Kenny suggest that three conditions for a variable to function as a mediator must be satisfied, requiring three regression analyses to be performed. The first condition states that the independent variable (family and work domain variables) must be significantly related to the mediator (perceived family-work conflict). Second, the independent variable (family and work domain variables) must

significantly influence the dependent variable (employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization). The final condition for mediation requires that both the independent variable (family and work domain variables) and the mediator (perceived family-work conflict) be included in the same regression equation on the dependent variable (employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization). In this regression, the previously significant effect between the independent variable (family and work domain variables) and the dependent variable (employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization) must be attenuated subsequent to controlling for mediator effects (perceived family-work conflict). For mediation analyses that satisfied the conditions set forth by Baron and Kenny (1986) for mediation to be established, a follow-up Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) was conducted to confirm the significance of the indirect effect.

The hypotheses associated with the consequences of employment trade-offs (hypotheses 17 – 19) were conducted via three separate logistic regressions for the outcome variables of department turnover intentions, agency turnover intentions, and public sector turnover intentions. For each regression, the control variables and the employment trade-offs variable were entered into the regression analysis. The tables of the regression analyses that will be used to test our hypotheses appear in Tables 6 – 23 and hypotheses that are tested with correlation analyses will be reported from Table 5.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

In this chapter, the results are presented in order of each hypothesis. Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for all study variables are shown in Table 5. For a full summary of the support found for each of the hypotheses tested (1-19), please see Table 24. Also, for a comparison of the results of the mediation tests for each family and work domain variable across the family adaptive strategies of employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family friendly benefit utilization, refer to Table 25. Finally, Table 26 shows a summary of the direct and indirect of the family and work domain variables on each family adaptive strategy.

Hypotheses 1 – 8

The first set of hypotheses (1 – 8) examined the influence of family and work domain variables on perceived family-work conflict. The first column of tables 6 – 9 display the regression analyses investigating hypotheses 1 – 8. Hypothesis 1 proposed that employees with both child and adult dependents would perceive higher levels of family-work conflict than employees with child or adult dependent care demands alone. As shown in Table 6 in the first column, there is no significant main effect for type of dependent care demands on family-work conflict ($\beta = -.04, ns$). Thus, hypothesis 1 was not supported. Hypothesis 2 predicted that the higher the number of dependents the employee was responsible for, the more family-work conflict the employee would perceive. No statistically significant relationship was observed between the number of dependents and family-work conflict, ($\beta = .01, ns$). Contrary to expectations, hypothesis 2 was not supported. Next, hypothesis 3 postulated that employees with exceptional care

Table 5
Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Study Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender ^a	.47	.51	---									
2. Age	2.99	.95	-.10	---								
3. Marital Status ^b	.81	.40	-.24	.00	---							
4. Education Level	3.24	1.35	-.06	-.01	.11	---						
5. Employment Status ^c	.03	.17	.14	-.06	.01	.08	---					
6. Hours Worked	4.17	.58	-.21	.02	.07	.08	-.58	---				
7. Government Tenure	4.56	2.20	.04	.53	-.04	-.08	-.07	.04	---			
8. Time Spent Commuting	2.65	1.31	-.01	-.01	.00	.09	-.02	.03	.01	---		
9. Total Family Income	12.76	4.93	-.03	.13	.32	.43	.03	.15	.19	.15	---	
10. Annual Salary	9.79	3.77	-.20	.21	.13	.46	-.13	.26	.33	.17	.71	---
11. Executive-Legislative Branch	-.98	.18	.05	-.01	-.01	.04	.02	-.01	-.01	.04	.05	.04
12. Executive-Judicial Branch	-.97	.24	.06	-.03	.00	.03	.02	-.00	-.02	.03	.04	.03
13. Region ^d	.49	.51	.01	.02	.00	.05	-.07	.05	.05	.08	.07	.11
14. Family-Work Conflict	1.79	.93	.15	-.15	.01	.13	.07	-.02	-.05	.11	.10	.05
15. Type of Dependent Care ^e	.18	.39	-.02	.04	-.01	-.07	-.01	-.03	.03	-.00	-.04	-.01
16. Number of Dependents	1.94	1.12	-.06	-.12	.07	-.03	-.02	.00	-.06	.04	-.02	-.02
17. Type of Care Responsibilities ^f	.14	.36	.09	.10	-.03	.00	-.01	.01	.07	.03	-.00	.03
18. Supervisory Support	3.64	1.28	.01	.01	.06	.12	.04	-.09	.03	-.07	.13	.11
19. Job Schedule Flexibility	3.47	1.25	-.01	.09	.05	.08	-.00	-.11	.12	-.11	.07	.08
20. Childcare Arrangement Satis.	3.89	1.17	-.01	-.08	.09	.04	.01	-.06	-.01	-.04	.04	.01

Note. All items in boldface are significant ($p < .05$); ^a 0 = Male, 1 = Female; ^b 0 = Single, 1 = Married/living with a partner; ^c 0 = Full-time, 1 = Part-time; ^d 0 = Combination of Northeast, Midwest, and West regions, 1 = South; ^e 0 = Employees with only one type of dependent care demand (either child or adult dependent), 1 = Both child and adult dependent care demands; ^f 0 = Typical Care Responsibilities, 1 = Exceptional Care Responsibilities.

Table 5 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Study Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
21. Childcare Quality	3.89	.96	-.04	-.03	.05	-.02	-.01	.00	.03	-.04	.04	.05
22. Childcare Costs	3.36	1.80	.01	-.03	.09	.19	.05	.02	-.01	.07	.35	.25
23. Employment Trade-Offs	.36	.85	.04	-.10	.02	.11	.10	-.06	-.04	.09	.11	.08
24. Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors	2.23	.95	.18	-.14	-.02	.14	.04	-.03	.03	.09	.12	.07
25. Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization	2.31	1.93	.20	-.18	.01	.22	.12	-.06	-.03	.04	.20	.14
26. Department Turnover Intentions	.10	.30	.05	-.12	-.01	.02	-.00	.00	-.13	.10	-.07	-.10
27. Agency Turnover Intentions	.11	.32	.00	-.14	.00	.00	-.02	.05	-.11	.15	-.06	-.08
28. Public Sector Turnover Intentions	.08	.28	.02	-.19	.01	.04	.04	.02	-.19	.12	-.04	-.09

Note. All items in boldface are significant ($p < .05$); ^a 0 = Male, 1 = Female; ^b 0 = Single, 1 = Married/living with a partner; ^c 0 = Full-time, 1 = Part-time; ^d 0 = Combination of Northeast, Midwest, and West regions, 1 = South; ^e 0 = Employees with only one type of dependent care demand (either child or adult dependent), 1 = Both child and adult dependent care demands; ^f 0 = Typical Care Responsibilities, 1 = Exceptional Care Responsibilities.

Table 5 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Study Variables

Variable	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
11. Executive-Legislative Branch	---									
12. Executive-Judicial Branch	.83	---								
13. Region	.05	.03	---							
14. Family-Work Conflict	.02	.02	-.01	---						
15. Type of Dependent Care ^e	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.02	---					
16. Number of Dependents	-.01	-.01	-.04	.04	.47	---				
17. Type of Care Responsibilities ^f	-.00	-.01	-.02	.16	.10	.10	---			
18. Supervisory Support	.02	.02	-.02	-.08	-.05	-.02	.01	---		
19. Job Schedule Flexibility	.02	.01	.05	-.21	.02	-.05	-.04	.61	---	
20. Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction	.00	.01	.01	-.12	.01	.01	-.05	.06	.12	---
21. Childcare Quality	.01	.01	-.05	-.32	.05	-.00	-.13	.19	.28	.31
22. Childcare Costs	.02	.00	-.01	.14	-.09	.02	.00	.08	-.01	-.02
23. Employment Trade-Offs	-.02	-.02	-.03	.35	.03	.06	.10	-.03	-.14	-.07
24. Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors	.03	.02	.07	.56	-.04	.05	.20	.04	-.10	-.11
25. Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization	.03	.02	.01	.36	-.06	.02	.11	.18	.12	-.05
26. Department Turnover Intentions	-.02	-.02	-.01	.24	.04	.05	.05	-.19	-.23	-.08
27. Agency Turnover Intentions	-.01	-.01	.01	.28	-.00	.00	.04	-.25	-.27	-.09
28. Public Sector Turnover Intentions	-.01	-.01	-.01	.25	.01	.04	.01	-.21	-.26	-.09

Note. All items in boldface are significant ($p < .05$); ^a 0 = Male, 1 = Female; ^b 0 = Single, 1 = Married/living with a partner; ^c 0 = Full-time, 1 = Part-time; ^d 0 = Combination of Northeast, Midwest, and West regions, 1 = South; ^e 0 = Employees with only one type of dependent care demand (either child or adult dependent), 1 = Both child and adult dependent care demands; ^f 0 = Typical Care Responsibilities, 1 = Exceptional Care Responsibilities.

Table 5 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Study Variables

Variable	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
21. Childcare Quality	---							
22. Childcare Costs	-.15	---						
23. Employment Trade-Offs	-.18	.14	---					
24. Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors	-.31	.18	.34	---				
25. Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization	-.07	.23	.24	.48	---			
26. Department Turnover Intentions	-.18	.03	.36	.20	.10	---		
27. Agency Turnover Intentions	-.19	.02	.31	.22	.09	.70	---	
28. Public Sector Turnover Intentions	-.17	.06	.32	.19	.09	.57	.65	---

Note. All items in boldface are significant ($p < .05$); ^a 0 = Male, 1 = Female; ^b 0 = Single, 1 = Married/living with a partner; ^c 0 = Full-time, 1 = Part-time; ^d 0 = Combination of Northeast, Midwest, and West regions, 1 = South; ^e 0 = Employees with only one type of dependent care demand (either child or adult dependent), 1 = Both child and adult dependent care demands; ^f 0 = Typical Care Responsibilities, 1 = Exceptional Care Responsibilities.

Table 6
Regression Analyses Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Mediator in the Relationship
Between Dependent Care Responsibilities and Organizational Support Variables on
Employment Trade-Offs

Dependent Variable	<u>Regression 1</u> Family-Work Conflict	<u>Regression 2</u> Employment Trade-offs	<u>Regression 3</u> Employment Trade-offs
Control Variables			
Gender	.14**	.03	-.02
Age	-.10*	-.11*	-.07
Marital Status	.08	.01	-.00
Education Level	.10*	.06	.03
Employment Status	-.01	.05	.05
Hours Worked	-.06	-.07	-.05
Government Tenure	.02	.03	.03
Time Spent Commuting	.04	.08*	.06
Total Family Income	.05	.06	.06
Annual Salary	-.00	.04	.04
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	.01	-.00	-.00
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	.00	-.04**	-.04**
Region	-.05	-.04	-.02
Dependent Care Responsibilities			
Type of Dependent Care	-.04	-.01	.01
Number of Dependents	.01	.03	.03
Type of Care Responsibilities	.14**	.08**	.04
Organizational Supports			
Supervisor Support	-.04	.06	.08
Perceived Job Schedule Flexibility	-.13**	-.19**	-.13**
Family-Work Conflict			
Family-Work Conflict			.31**
R ²	.10	.08	.18
N	4,457	4,448	4,436

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Regression 1: Dependent care responsibilities and organizational support variables predicting family-work conflict

Regression 2: Dependent care responsibilities and organizational support variables predicting employment trade-offs

Regression 3: Dependent care responsibilities, organizational supports, and family-work conflict predicting employment trade-offs

Table 7
 Regression Analyses Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Mediator in the Relationship
 Between Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction on Employment Trade-Offs

Dependent Variable	<u>Regression 1</u> Family-Work Conflict	<u>Regression 2</u> Employment Trade-offs	<u>Regression 3</u> Employment Trade-offs
Control Variables			
Gender	.12**	.02**	-.02**
Age	-.20**	-.12**	-.06**
Marital Status	.03	-.01	-.01
Education Level	.16**	.06**	.02*
Employment Status	.05**	.09**	.08**
Hours Worked	.04**	.02**	.01
Government Tenure	.09**	.05**	.03*
Time Spent Commuting	.10**	.09**	.06**
Total Family Income	.05*	.06*	.06*
Annual Salary	-.08*	.04*	.04*
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	-.00	-.01	-.00
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	-.00	-.03**	-.03**
Region	-.03**	-.04**	-.04**
Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction			
Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction	-.14**	-.08**	-.04**
Family-Work Conflict			
Family-Work Conflict			.28**
R ²	.10	.05	.14
N	5,949	5,944	5,925

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Regression 1: Childcare arrangement satisfaction predicting family-work conflict

Regression 2: Childcare arrangement satisfaction predicting employment trade-offs

Regression 3: Childcare arrangement satisfaction and family-work conflict predicting employment trade-offs

Table 8
 Regression Analyses Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Mediator in the Relationship
 Between Childcare Quality on Employment Trade-Offs

Dependent Variable	<u>Regression 1</u> Family-Work Conflict	<u>Regression 2</u> Employment Trade-offs	<u>Regression 3</u> Employment Trade-offs
Control Variables			
Gender	.14**	.05**	.00
Age	-.13**	-.10**	-.06**
Marital Status	.07**	.00	-.01
Education Level	.13**	.02	-.02*
Employment Status	.07**	.12**	.10**
Hours Worked	.09**	.03**	-.00
Government Tenure	.10**	.05**	.03*
Time Spent Commuting	.07**	.08**	.06**
Total Family Income	.05*	.06*	.06*
Annual Salary	.04*	.09**	.13**
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	.00	-.01	-.00
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	-.00	-.03**	-.03**
Region	-.03**	-.07**	-.05**
Childcare Quality			
Childcare Quality	-.28**	-.18**	-.11**
Family-Work Conflict			
Family-Work Conflict			.26**
R ²	.14	.07	.13
N	4,312	4,305	4,296

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Regression 1: Childcare quality predicting family-work conflict

Regression 2: Childcare quality predicting employment trade-offs

Regression 3: Childcare quality and family-work conflict predicting employment trade-offs

Table 9
Regression Analyses Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Mediator in the Relationship
Between Childcare Costs on Employment Trade-Offs

Dependent Variable	<u>Regression 1</u> Family-Work Conflict	<u>Regression 2</u> Employment Trade-offs	<u>Regression 3</u> Employment Trade-offs
Control Variables			
Gender	.09**	.02**	-.01
Age	-.19**	-.16**	-.10**
Marital Status	.14**	.05**	.02**
Education Level	.09**	.01	-.00
Employment Status	.08**	.13**	.11**
Hours Worked	.06**	.03*	.01
Government Tenure	.12**	.08**	.08**
Time Spent Commuting	.07**	.09**	.08**
Total Family Income	.05*	-.00	-.00
Annual Salary	-.00	.18**	.18**
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	-.00	-.02**	-.02**
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	.01	-.03**	-.03**
Region	-.01	-.03**	-.02**
Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction	-.06**	-.10**	-.08**
Childcare Quality	-.28**	-.18**	-.11**
Childcare Costs			
Childcare Costs	.12**	.13**	.10**
Family-Work Conflict			
Family-Work Conflict			.25**
R ²	.14	.10	.14
N	3,329	3,323	3,315

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Regression 1: Childcare costs predicting family-work conflict

Regression 2: Childcare costs predicting employment trade-offs

Regression 3: Childcare costs and family-work conflict predicting employment trade-offs

responsibilities would perceive higher levels of family-work conflict than employees with typical care responsibilities. Type of care responsibilities were positively related to family-work conflict ($\beta = .14, p < .01$), supporting hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 4 stated that supervisor support of dependent care responsibilities would be negatively related to employees' family-work conflict. Supervisor support was revealed to have no main effect on family-work conflict ($\beta = -.04, ns$). Therefore, hypothesis 4 received no support.

Hypothesis 5 asserted that perceived job schedule flexibility would be negatively related to employees' family-work conflict. As hypothesized, perceived job schedule flexibility was found to be negatively related to family-work conflict ($\beta = -.13, p < .01$). Hypothesis 6 proposed that among employees with childcare responsibilities, childcare arrangement satisfaction would be negatively related to employees' family-work conflict. As shown in the first column of Table 7, the significant main effect of childcare arrangement satisfaction on family-work conflict ($\beta = -.14, p < .01$) suggests that high levels of satisfaction with one's childcare arrangement were associated with lower perceived levels of family-work conflict. Next, hypothesis 7 predicted that among employees with childcare, childcare quality would be negatively related to employees' family-work conflict. Depicted in the first column of Table 8, there was a statistically significant negative relationship found between childcare quality and family-work conflict ($\beta = -.28, p < .01$), supporting this hypothesis. Hypothesis 8 postulated that among employees with childcare responsibilities, childcare costs would be positively related to employees' family-work conflict after controlling for childcare arrangement satisfaction and childcare quality. The first column of Table 9 shows that childcare costs were positively related to family-work conflict ($\beta = .12, p < .01$).

Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9 predicted that perceived family-work conflict would be positively related to employment trade-offs. The regression analysis in Table 10 demonstrates that family-work conflict was positively related to employment trade-offs ($\beta = .28, p < .01$). These results provide support for hypothesis 9 and indicate that employees with high levels of family-work conflict are likely to participate in employment trade-offs.

Table 10
Regression Analysis Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Predictor of Employment Trade-Offs

Dependent Variable	Employment Trade-offs
Control Variables	
Gender	-.02
Age	-.04
Marital Status	-.01
Education Level	.02
Employment Status	.06*
Hours Worked	-.01
Government Tenure	-.00
Time Spent Commuting	.05*
Total Family Income	.06
Annual Salary	.04
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	-.00
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	.04**
Region	-.04
Family-Work Conflict	
Family-Work Conflict	.28**

$R^2 = .14$
N = 7,528

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Hypothesis 10

Hypothesis 10 proposed that perceived family-work conflict serves a mediating role between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs. Tables 6 – 9 show the regression analyses examining family-work conflict as a mediator in the relationship between family and work domain variables on employment trade-offs. The first condition for mediation which states that the independent variable (family and work domain variables) must be significantly related to the mediator (perceived family-work conflict), determined that mediation would not exist for the variables of type of dependent care demands, number of dependents, and supervisor support because these variables were not related to family-work conflict. Mediation analyses were then conducted on the variables of type of care responsibilities, perceived job schedule flexibility, childcare arrangement satisfaction, childcare quality, and childcare costs since they satisfied the first condition of mediation.

For type of care responsibilities (see Table 6), the direct effect of type of care responsibilities on employment trade-offs was significant ($\beta = .08, p < .01$). The addition of the mediating variable of perceived family-work conflict attenuated the significant relationship between type of care responsibilities and employment trade-offs (see change from $\beta = .08, p < .01$, to $\beta = .04, ns$), demonstrating full mediation. A follow-up Sobel test revealed that the indirect effect of type of care responsibilities on employment trade-offs through perceived family-work conflict was significant (Sobel $z = 3.53, p < .01$). Next, a significant relationship between perceived job schedule flexibility and employment trade-offs was observed ($\beta = -.19, p < .01$; see Table 6). When family-work conflict was added as a simultaneous predictor of employment trade-offs, the effect of

perceived job schedule flexibility was reduced but still significant (see change from $\beta = -.19, p < .01$, to $\beta = -.13, p < .01$), demonstrating evidence of partial mediation. The results of the Sobel test showed that this indirect effect was significant (Sobel $z = -3.16, p < .01$).

For childcare arrangement satisfaction (see Table 7), the relationship between childcare arrangement satisfaction and employment trade-offs was significant ($\beta = -.08, p < .01$). After controlling for family-work conflict, the relationship between childcare arrangement satisfaction and employment trade-offs was still significant (see change from $\beta = -.08, p < .01$, to $\beta = -.04, p < .01$), suggesting family-work conflict partially mediated the effect of childcare arrangement satisfaction on employment trade-offs. A Sobel test showed that the indirect effect of childcare arrangement satisfaction to employment trade-offs through family-work conflict was significant (Sobel $z = -11.43, p < .01$). Next, a significant relationship between childcare quality and employment trade-offs was found ($\beta = -.18, p < .01$; see Table 8). Adding family-work conflict as an additional predictor of employment trade-offs resulted in a still significant relationship between childcare quality and employment trade-offs although the strength of the beta coefficient was reduced (see change from $\beta = -.18, p < .01$, to $\beta = -.11, p < .01$), indicating partial mediation. A Sobel test found that the indirect effect was significant (Sobel $z = -13.35, p < .01$). Finally, the direct effect of childcare costs on employment trade-offs was significant ($\beta = .13, p < .01$; see Table 9). However, because the relationship between childcare costs and employment trade-offs was still significant (see change from $\beta = .13, p < .01$, to $\beta = .10, p < .01$) after controlling for perceived family-work conflict, there is evidence of partial mediation. A follow-up Sobel test was found to

be significant (Sobel $z = 6.00, p < .01$), indicating an indirect effect of childcare costs on employment trade-offs through perceptions of family-work conflict.

In summary, hypothesis 10 was partially supported, showing that perceptions of family-work conflict partially mediated the relationship between the variables of perceived job schedule flexibility, childcare arrangement satisfaction, childcare quality, and childcare costs on employment trade-offs, as well as fully mediating the relationship between type of care responsibilities and employment trade-offs. Mediation was not established for family-work conflict between the variables of type of dependent care demands, number of dependents, and supervisor support on employment trade-offs.

Hypotheses 11 – 12

Hypotheses 11 and 12 stated that employment trade-offs would have a positive relationship with workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. These hypotheses were tested using zero-order correlations. As shown in Table 5, the correlation between employment trade-offs and workplace withdrawal behaviors was significant ($r = .34, p < .01$), providing support for hypothesis 11. The table also shows a positive correlation between employment trade-offs and family-friendly benefit utilization ($r = .24, p < .01$), supporting hypothesis 12.

Hypotheses 13 – 14

Hypotheses 13 and 14 proposed that perceived family-work conflict would be positively related to employees' workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. Table 11 displays the results of hypothesis 13. Family-work conflict perceptions related, as hypothesized, significantly and positively with workplace withdrawal behaviors ($\beta = .52, p < .01$). As for hypothesis 14, Table 12 reveals a

Table 11
 Regression Analysis Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Predictor of Workplace
 Withdrawal Behaviors

Dependent Variable	Withdrawal Behaviors
Control Variables	
Gender	.11**
Age	-.11**
Marital Status	.01
Education Level	.07*
Employment Status	-.02
Hours Worked	-.02
Government Tenure	.12**
Time Spent Commuting	.03
Total Family Income	.05
Annual Salary	-.00
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	-.00
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	.01
Region	.05*
Family-Work Conflict	
Family-Work Conflict	.52**
R ² = .35	
N = 7,428	

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 12
Regression Analysis Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Predictor of Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization

Dependent Variable	Benefit Utilization
Control Variables	
Gender	.14**
Age	-.15**
Marital Status	-.00
Education Level	.11**
Employment Status	.05
Hours Worked	-.04
Government Tenure	.02
Time Spent Commuting	-.01
Total Family Income	.10**
Annual Salary	.06
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	.03
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	-.03
Region	-.00
Family-Work Conflict	
Family-Work Conflict	.29**
R ² = .22	
N = 7,566	

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

statistically significant positive relationship between perceived family-work conflict and family-friendly benefit utilization ($\beta = .29, p < .01$).

Hypothesis 15

Hypothesis 15 postulated that perceived family-work conflict would mediate the relationship between family and work domain variables and workplace withdrawal behaviors. Tables 13 – 16 show the regression analyses examining family-work conflict as a mediator in the relationship between family and work domain variables on workplace withdrawal behaviors. It is important to note that because the hypothesized

Table 13
 Regression Analyses Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Mediator in the Relationship
 Between Dependent Care Responsibilities and Organizational Support Variables on
 Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors

Dependent Variable	<u>Regression 1</u> Family-Work Conflict	<u>Regression 2</u> Withdrawal Behaviors	<u>Regression 3</u> Withdrawal Behaviors
Control Variables			
Gender	.14**	.14**	.09**
Age	-.10*	-.11**	-.08*
Marital Status	.08	.02	.02
Education Level	.10*	.11**	.06
Employment Status	-.01	-.04	-.03
Hours Worked	-.06	-.10*	-.07*
Government Tenure	.02	.19**	.16**
Time Spent Commuting	.04	.04	.03
Total Family Income	.05	.05	-.00
Annual Salary	-.00	-.04	-.00
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	.01	.01	.01
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	.00	-.00	-.00
Region	-.05	.04	.06*
Dependent Care Responsibilities			
Type of Dependent Care	-.04	-.11**	-.09**
Number of Dependents	.01	.09*	.06
Type of Care Responsibilities	.14**	.12**	.07*
Organizational Supports			
Supervisor Support	-.04	.04	.06
Perceived Job Schedule Flexibility	-.13**	-.12*	-.07*
Family-Work Conflict			
Family-Work Conflict			.43**
R ²	.10	.12	.30
N	4,457	4,470	4,457

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Regression 1: Dependent care responsibilities and organizational support variables predicting family-work conflict

Regression 2: Dependent care responsibilities and organizational support variables predicting workplace withdrawal behaviors

Regression 3: Dependent care responsibilities, organizational supports, and family-work conflict predicting workplace withdrawal behaviors

Table 14
Regression Analyses Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Mediator in the Relationship
Between Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction on Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors

Dependent Variable	<u>Regression 1</u> Family-Work Conflict	<u>Regression 2</u> Withdrawal Behaviors	<u>Regression 3</u> Withdrawal Behaviors
Control Variables			
Gender	.12**	.16**	.12**
Age	-.20**	-.25**	-.16**
Marital Status	.03	-.00	-.00
Education Level	.16**	.17**	.09**
Employment Status	.05**	-.00	-.02
Hours Worked	.04**	-.01	-.02
Government Tenure	.09**	.19**	.12**
Time Spent Commuting	.10**	.08**	.04**
Total Family Income	.05*	.10*	.05
Annual Salary	-.08*	-.08*	-.04
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	-.00	.01	.01
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	-.00	-.01	-.01
Region	-.03**	.01	.02
Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction			
Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction	-.14**	-.12**	-.06**
Family-Work Conflict			
Family-Work Conflict			.48**
R ²	.10	.13	.35
N	5,949	5,969	5,949

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Regression 1: Childcare arrangement satisfaction predicting workplace withdrawal behaviors

Regression 2: Childcare arrangement satisfaction predicting workplace withdrawal behaviors

Regression 3: Childcare arrangement satisfaction and family-work conflict predicting workplace withdrawal behaviors

Table 15
Regression Analyses Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Mediator in the Relationship
Between Childcare Quality on Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors

Dependent Variable	<u>Regression 1</u> Family-Work Conflict	<u>Regression 2</u> Withdrawal Behaviors	<u>Regression 3</u> Withdrawal Behaviors
Control Variables			
Gender	.14**	.17**	.12**
Age	-.13**	-.17**	-.12**
Marital Status	.07**	-.03**	-.02*
Education Level	.13**	.07**	.01
Employment Status	.07**	.03**	.00
Hours Worked	.09**	.02*	-.01
Government Tenure	.10**	.19**	.14**
Time Spent Commuting	.07**	.07**	.04**
Total Family Income	.05*	.10**	.05
Annual Salary	.04*	.00	.04
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	.00	.01	.01
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	-.00	.00	.00
Region	-.03**	-.01	.00
Childcare Quality			
Childcare Quality	-.28**	-.28**	-.16**
Family-Work Conflict			
Family-Work Conflict			.39**
R ²	.14	.19	.32
N	4,312	4,327	4,312

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Regression 1: Childcare quality predicting family-work conflict

Regression 2: Childcare quality predicting workplace withdrawal behaviors

Regression 3: Childcare quality and family-work conflict predicting workplace withdrawal behaviors

Table 16
Regression Analyses Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Mediator in the Relationship
Between Childcare Costs on Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors

Dependent Variable	<u>Regression 1</u> Family-Work Conflict	<u>Regression 2</u> Withdrawal Behaviors	<u>Regression 3</u> Withdrawal Behaviors
Control Variables			
Gender	.09**	.14**	.11**
Age	-.19**	-.15**	-.09**
Marital Status	.14**	-.00	-.01
Education Level	.09**	.04**	.00
Employment Status	.08**	.03**	.00
Hours Worked	.06**	-.01	-.02*
Government Tenure	.12**	.19**	.14**
Time Spent Commuting	.07**	.04**	.03**
Total Family Income	.05*	.00	-.00
Annual Salary	-.00	.04	.04
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	-.00	.00	.00
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	.01	.00	-.00
Region	-.01	.04**	.04**
Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction	-.06**	-.01*	.00
Childcare Quality	-.28**	-.25**	-.12**
Childcare Costs			
Childcare Costs	.12**	.11**	.11**
Family-Work Conflict			
Family-Work Conflict			.37**
R ²	.14	.16	.29
N	3,329	3,337	3,329

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Regression 1: Childcare costs predicting family-work conflict

Regression 2: Childcare costs predicting workplace withdrawal behaviors

Regression 3: Childcare costs and family-work conflict predicting workplace withdrawal behaviors

main effects for type of dependent care responsibilities, number of dependents, and supervisor support on family-work conflict were not significant, only mediational analyses for the variables of type of care responsibilities, perceived job schedule

flexibility, childcare arrangement satisfaction, childcare quality, and childcare costs are presented.

For type of care responsibilities (see Table 13), the direct effect of type of care responsibilities on workplace withdrawal behaviors was significant ($\beta = .12, p < .01$). The addition of the mediating variable of perceived family-work conflict reduced the strength of the significant relationship between type of care responsibilities and workplace withdrawal behaviors (see change from $\beta = .12, p < .01$, to $\beta = .07, p < .05$), demonstrating partial mediation. A follow-up Sobel test revealed that the indirect effect of type of care responsibilities on workplace withdrawal behaviors through perceived family-work conflict was significant (Sobel $z = 3.82, p < .01$). Next, a significant relationship between perceived job schedule flexibility and workplace withdrawal behaviors was observed ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$; see Table 11). When family-work conflict was added as a simultaneous predictor of workplace withdrawal behaviors, the effect of perceived job schedule flexibility was reduced but still significant (see change from $\beta = -.12, p < .05$, to $\beta = -.07, p < .05$), demonstrating evidence of partial mediation. The results of a Sobel test showed that this indirect effect was significant (Sobel $z = -3.32, p < .01$).

For childcare arrangement satisfaction (see Table 14), the relationship between childcare arrangement satisfaction and workplace withdrawal behaviors was significant ($\beta = -.12, p < .01$). After controlling for family-work conflict, the relationship between childcare arrangement satisfaction and workplace withdrawal behaviors was still significant (see change from $\beta = -.12, p < .01$, to $\beta = -.06, p < .01$), suggesting family-work conflict partially mediated the effect of childcare arrangement satisfaction on workplace withdrawal behaviors. A Sobel test showed that the indirect effect of childcare

arrangement satisfaction to workplace withdrawal behaviors through family-work conflict was significant (Sobel $z = -12.25$, $p < .01$). Next, a significant relationship between childcare quality and workplace withdrawal behaviors was found ($\beta = -.28$, $p < .01$; see Table 15). Adding family-work conflict as an additional predictor of workplace withdrawal behaviors resulted in a still significant relationship between childcare quality and workplace withdrawal behaviors although the strength of the beta coefficient was reduced (see change from $\beta = -.28$, $p < .01$, to $\beta = -.16$, $p < .01$), indicating partial mediation. A Sobel test found that this indirect effect was significant (Sobel $z = -16.48$, $p < .01$). Finally, the direct effect of childcare costs on workplace withdrawal behaviors was significant ($\beta = .11$, $p < .01$; see Table 16). However, because the relationship between childcare costs and workplace withdrawal behaviors was still significant and did not reduce in strength after controlling for perceived family-work conflict (in both regressions $\beta = .11$, $p < .01$), family-work conflict did not mediate the relationship between childcare costs and workplace withdrawal behaviors.

In summation, hypothesis 15 was partially supported, demonstrating that perceived family-work conflict partially mediated the relationship between the variables of type of care responsibilities, perceived job schedule flexibility, childcare arrangement satisfaction, and childcare quality on workplace withdrawal behaviors. Mediation was not established for family-work conflict between the variables of type of dependent care demands, number of dependents, supervisor support, and childcare costs on workplace withdrawal behaviors.

Hypothesis 16

Hypothesis 16 predicted that the relationship between family and work domain variables and family-friendly benefit utilization will be mediated by perceived family-work conflict. Tables 17 – 20 show the regression analyses examining family-work conflict as a mediator in the relationship between family and work domain variables on family-friendly benefit utilization. Since it is necessary for the relationships between type of care demands, number of dependents, and supervisor support on family-work conflict to be significant to find support for mediation, it was concluded that family-work conflict did not mediate the relationship between these variables and family-friendly benefit utilization because these variables were not significantly related to family-work conflict.

For type of care responsibilities (see Table 17), the direct effect of type of care responsibilities on family-friendly benefit utilization was significant ($\beta = .06, p < .05$). The addition of the mediating variable of perceived family-work conflict reduced the strength of the significant relationship between type of care responsibilities and family-friendly benefit utilization (see change from $\beta = .06, p < .05$, to $\beta = .03, ns$), demonstrating full mediation. A follow-up Sobel test revealed that the indirect effect of type of care responsibilities on family-friendly benefit utilization through perceived family-work conflict was significant (Sobel $z = 3.59, p < .01$). Next, a significant relationship between perceived job schedule flexibility and family-friendly benefit utilization was observed ($\beta = .09, p < .01$; see Table 17). When family-work conflict was added as a simultaneous predictor of family-friendly benefit utilization, the effect of perceived job schedule flexibility was still significant and gained in strength (see change from $\beta = .09, p < .01$, to $\beta = .12, p < .01$), indicating that mediation was not established.

Table 17
 Regression Analyses Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Mediator in the Relationship
 Between Dependent Care Responsibilities and Organizational Support Variables on Family-
 Friendly Benefit Utilization

Dependent Variable	<u>Regression 1</u> Family-Work Conflict	<u>Regression 2</u> Benefit Utilization	<u>Regression 3</u> Benefit Utilization
Control Variables			
Gender	.14**	.18**	.15**
Age	-.10*	-.06**	-.10**
Marital Status	.08	-.01	-.00
Education Level	.10*	.13**	.10**
Employment Status	-.01	.05	.05
Hours Worked	-.06	-.04	-.02
Government Tenure	.02	.02	.01
Time Spent Commuting	.04	.03	.03
Total Family Income	.05	.10*	.10*
Annual Salary	-.00	.04	.06
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	.01	.04*	.04*
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	.00	-.05*	-.05*
Region	-.05	-.02	-.01
Dependent Care Responsibilities			
Type of Dependent Care	-.04	-.12**	-.10**
Number of Dependents	.01	.05	.04
Type of Care Responsibilities	.14**	.06*	.03
Organizational Supports			
Supervisor Support	-.04	.04	.06
Perceived Job Schedule Flexibility	-.13**	.09**	.12**
Family-Work Conflict			
Family-Work Conflict			.24**
R ²	.10	.16	.22
N	4,457	4,470	4,457

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Regression 1: Dependent care responsibilities and organizational support variables predicting family-work conflict

Regression 2: Dependent care responsibilities and organizational support variables predicting family-friendly benefit utilization

Regression 3: Dependent care responsibilities, organizational supports, and family-work conflict predicting family-friendly benefit utilization

Table 18
Regression Analyses Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Mediator in the Relationship
Between Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction on Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization

Dependent Variable	Regression 1 Family-Work Conflict	Regression 2 Benefit Utilization	Regression 3 Benefit Utilization
Control Variables			
Gender	.12**	.15**	.13**
Age	-.20**	-.22**	-.18**
Marital Status	.03	-.02	-.01
Education Level	.16**	.18**	.13**
Employment Status	.05**	.06**	.05**
Hours Worked	.04**	-.02	-.03
Government Tenure	.09**	.07**	.03*
Time Spent Commuting	.10**	.03*	.01
Total Family Income	.05*	.18**	.18**
Annual Salary	-.08*	-.00	.02
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	-.00	.03*	.03*
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	-.00	-.04**	-.04**
Region	-.03**	-.01	-.01
Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction			
Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction	-.14**	-.08**	-.04**
Family-Work Conflict			
Family-Work Conflict			.24**
R ²	.10	.15	.20
N	5,949	5,971	5,949

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Regression 1: Childcare arrangement satisfaction predicting family-work conflict

Regression 2: Childcare arrangement satisfaction predicting family-friendly benefit utilization

Regression 3: Childcare arrangement satisfaction and family-work conflict predicting family-friendly benefit utilization

Table 19
Regression Analyses Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Mediator in the Relationship
Between Childcare Quality on Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization

Dependent Variable	Regression 1 Family-Work Conflict	Regression 2 Benefit Utilization	Regression 3 Benefit Utilization
Control Variables			
Gender	.14**	.17**	.15**
Age	-.13**	-.20**	-.18**
Marital Status	.07**	.03**	-.02*
Education Level	.13**	.04**	.08**
Employment Status	.07**	.09**	.08**
Hours Worked	.09**	-.01	-.02*
Government Tenure	.10**	.06**	.02*
Time Spent Commuting	.07**	-.03**	-.04**
Total Family Income	.05*	.15**	.13**
Annual Salary	.04*	.08**	.10**
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	.00	.04**	.04**
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	-.00	-.04**	-.04**
Region	-.03**	.01	.01
Childcare Quality			
Childcare Quality	-.28**	-.08**	-.02*
Family-Work Conflict			
Family-Work Conflict			.20**
R ²	.14	.15	.19
N	4,312	4,322	4,312

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Regression 1: Childcare quality predicting family-work conflict

Regression 2: Childcare quality predicting family-friendly benefit utilization

Regression 3: Childcare quality and family-work conflict predicting family-friendly benefit utilization

Table 20
Regression Analyses Examining Family-Work Conflict as a Mediator in the Relationship
Between Childcare Costs on Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization

Dependent Variable	Regression 1 Family-Work Conflict	Regression 2 Benefit Utilization	Regression 3 Benefit Utilization
Control Variables			
Gender	.09**	.14**	.13**
Age	-.19**	-.21**	.19**
Marital Status	.14**	-.04**	-.03**
Education Level	.09**	.08**	.06**
Employment Status	.08**	.08**	.07**
Hours Worked	.06**	-.07**	-.07**
Government Tenure	.12**	.05**	.02*
Time Spent Commuting	.07**	-.07**	-.07**
Total Family Income	.05*	.10**	.10**
Annual Salary	-.00	.12**	.12**
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	-.00	.03**	.03**
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	.01	-.03**	-.03**
Region	-.01	.06**	.06**
Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction	-.06**	-.03**	-.03**
Childcare Quality	-.28**	-.04**	.03**
Childcare Costs			
Childcare Costs	.12**	.14**	.15**
Family-Work Conflict			
Family-Work Conflict			.14**
R ²	.14	.18	.20
N	3,329	3,337	3,329

Note. Values are standardized beta coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Regression 1: Childcare costs predicting family-work conflict

Regression 2: Childcare costs predicting family-friendly benefit utilization

Regression 3: Childcare costs for children and family-work conflict predicting family-friendly benefit utilization

For childcare arrangement satisfaction (see Table 18), the relationship between childcare arrangement satisfaction and family-friendly benefit utilization was significant ($\beta = -.08, p < .01$). After controlling for family-work conflict, the relationship between childcare arrangement satisfaction and family-friendly benefit utilization was still significant (see change from $\beta = -.08, p < .01$, to $\beta = -.04, p < .01$), suggesting family-

work conflict partially mediated the effect of childcare arrangement satisfaction on family-friendly benefit utilization. The results of a Sobel test showed that this indirect effect was significant (Sobel $z = -11.45, p < .01$). Next, a significant relationship between childcare quality and family-friendly benefit utilization was found ($\beta = -.08, p < .01$; see Table 19). Adding family-work conflict as an additional predictor of family-friendly benefit utilization resulted in a still significant relationship between childcare quality and family-friendly benefit utilization although the strength of the beta coefficient was reduced (see change from $\beta = -.08, p < .01$, to $\beta = -.02, p < .05$), indicating partial mediation. A follow-up Sobel test was found to be significant (Sobel $z = -13.04, p < .01$), suggesting an indirect effect of childcare quality on family-friendly benefit utilization through perceptions of family-work conflict. Finally, the direct effect of childcare costs on family-friendly benefit utilization was significant ($\beta = .14, p < .01$; see Table 20). However, because the relationship between childcare costs and family-friendly benefit utilization was still significant and increased in strength after controlling for perceived family-work conflict (see change from $\beta = .14, p < .01$, to $\beta = .15, p < .01$), family-work conflict did not mediate the relationship between childcare costs and family-friendly benefit utilization.

In summary, hypothesis 16 was partially supported, demonstrating that perceived family-work conflict partially mediated the relationship between the variables of childcare arrangement satisfaction and childcare quality on family-friendly benefit utilization, as well as fully mediating the relationship between type of care responsibilities and family-friendly benefit utilization. Mediation was not established for family-work conflict between the variables of type of dependent care demands, number

of dependents, supervisor support, perceived job schedule flexibility, and childcare costs on family-friendly benefit utilization.

Hypotheses 17 – 19

To assess whether employment trade-offs influence turnover intentions, three binary logistic regressions were performed. Tables 21 – 23 show the results of the binary logistic regressions for hypotheses 17 – 19. The first binary logistic regression analysis was performed with turnover intentions within the Federal agency as the dependent variable, employment trade-offs as the independent variable, and control variables were also entered into the regression. Employment trade-offs significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards their department, $\chi^2(1) = 138.70, p < .01$, odds ratio = 2.78 (2.35 to 3.30). Employees were 178% $[(2.78-1) * 100]$ more likely to report turnover intentions within their agencies with every one unit increase in employment trade-offs. The second binary logistic regression analysis was performed with turnover intent outside the Federal agency as the dependent variable, employment trade-offs as the independent variable, and control variables were also entered into the regression. Employment trade-offs significantly predicted employees' turnover intent to another Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 100.57, p < .01$, odds ratio = 2.40 (2.02 to 2.84). Employees were 140% $[(2.40-1) * 100]$ more likely to indicate turnover intentions to another Federal agency with every one unit increase in employment trade-offs. The third binary logistic regression analysis was performed with turnover intentions outside the Federal government as the dependent variable, employment trade-offs as the independent variable, along with control variables being entered into the regression. Employment trade-offs was a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention towards the Federal government, $\chi^2(1) = 115.76, p < .01$,

Table 21
 Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Department Turnover Intentions with Demographic Variables and Employment Trade-Offs

Variable	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald Statistic</i>	<i>Odds Ratio</i> ¹
Demographic Variables				
Gender	.49	.20	5.47*	1.61 (1.08 to 2.41)
Age	-.13	.11	1.51	.88 (.71 to 1.08)
Marital Status	.14	.24	.32	1.15 (.71 to 1.85)
Education Level	.14	.08	3.24	1.15 (.99 to 1.34)
Employment Status	-.63	.32	3.85*	.54 (.29 to .99)
Hours Worked	.41	.21	3.86*	1.50 (1.00 to 2.23)
Government Tenure	-.15	.06	6.88**	.86 (.77 to .96)
Time Spent Commuting	.30	.06	20.94**	1.35 (1.19 to 1.53)
Total Family Income	-.06	.03	3.78	.95 (.89 to 1.00)
Annual Salary	-.10	.04	5.49*	.91 (.84 to .98)
Exec. Branch-Legislative Branch	.11	.11	.83	1.11 (.89 to 1.39)
Exec. Branch-Judicial Branch	-.43	.11	15.38**	.65 (.53 to .81)
Region	.11	.18	.38	1.12 (.78 to 1.61)
Employment Trade-Offs	1.02	.09	138.70**	2.78 (2.35 to 3.30)

N = 7,526

¹ Confidence Intervals in Parentheses

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

Table 22
 Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Agency Turnover Intentions with Demographic Variables and Employment Trade-Offs

Variable	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald Statistic</i>	<i>Odds Ratio</i> ¹
Demographic Variables				
Gender	.06	.21	.10	1.07 (.71 to 1.61)
Age	-.28	.11	6.91**	.75 (.61 to .93)
Marital Status	.11	.23	.21	1.11 (.70 to 1.76)
Education Level	.08	.08	.89	1.08 (.92 to 1.27)
Employment Status	-.35	.29	1.48	.71 (.41 to 1.24)
Hours Worked	.50	.19	6.45*	1.64 (1.12 to 2.41)
Government Tenure	-.08	.05	2.06	.93 (.84 to 1.03)
Time Spent Commuting	.40	.06	42.97**	1.49 (1.32 to 1.67)
Total Family Income	-.04	.03	2.05	.96 (.90 to 1.02)
Annual Salary	-.09	.04	4.79*	.91 (.84 to .99)
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	.24	.09	6.59*	1.27 (1.06 to 1.53)
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	-.36	.09	16.78**	.70 (.59 to .83)
Region	.14	.18	.61	1.15 (.81 to 1.62)
Employment Trade-Offs	.87	.09	100.57**	2.40 (2.02 to 2.84)

N = 7,528

¹ Confidence Intervals in Parentheses

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

Table 23
 Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Public Sector Turnover Intentions with
 Demographic Variables and Employment Trade-Offs

Variable	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald Statistic</i>	<i>Odds Ratio</i> ¹
Demographic Variables				
Gender	.28	.22	1.65	1.32 (.86 to 2.02)
Age	-.44	.12	12.74**	.64 (.51 to .82)
Marital Status	.19	.26	.55	1.21 (.73 to 2.01)
Education Level	.16	.09	2.85	1.17 (.98 to 1.40)
Employment Status	.75	.28	7.43**	2.11 (1.23 to 3.62)
Hours Worked	.66	.20	10.34**	1.93 (1.29 to 2.88)
Government Tenure	-.25	.06	15.51**	.78 (.69 to .88)
Time Spent Commuting	.35	.07	23.84**	1.41 (1.23 to 1.63)
Total Family Income	-.04	.03	1.36	.96 (.90 to 1.03)
Annual Salary	-.09	.04	4.25*	.92 (.84 to .99)
Executive Branch-Legislative Branch	.24	.10	5.14*	1.27 (1.03 to 1.55)
Executive Branch-Judicial Branch	-.21	.09	5.33*	.81 (.67 to .97)
Region	-.04	.20	.03	.96 (.65 to 1.43)
Employment Trade-Offs	.91	.08	115.76**	2.49 (2.11 to 2.94)

N = 7,517

¹ Confidence Intervals in Parentheses

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

odds ratio = 2.49 (2.11 to 2.94). Employees were 149% [(2.49-1) * 100] more likely to have turnover intentions outside the Federal government with every one unit increase in employment trade-offs. These results show support for Hypotheses 17-19, as employment trade-offs were found to be positively related to department, agency, and Federal government turnover intentions, suggesting that the more employment trade-offs workers participate in, the higher the intentions to leave their department, agency, and the Federal Government are reported.

Again, for a full summary of the support found for each of the hypotheses tested (1-19), please see Table 24 and for a comparison of results of the mediation tests for each

family and work domain variable across the family adaptive strategies of employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family friendly benefit utilization, refer to Table 25. Also, Table 26 contains a summary of the direct and indirect effects of the family and work domain variables on each family adaptive strategy.

Table 24
Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Findings
<i>Antecedents of family-work conflict</i>	
H1: Caregiving responsibilities → Family-work conflict	Not Supported
H2: Number of dependents → Family-work conflict	Not Supported
H3: Exceptional care responsibilities → Family-work conflict	Supported
H4: Supervisor support → Family-work conflict	Not Supported
H5: Perceived job schedule flexibility → Family-work conflict	Supported
H6: Childcare arrangement satisfaction → Family-work conflict	Supported
H7: Childcare quality → Family-work conflict	Supported
H8: Childcare costs → Family-work conflict	Supported
<i>Antecedents of employment trade-offs</i>	
H9: Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	Supported

Table 24
 Summary of Hypotheses (continued)

Hypothesis	Findings
<i>Family-work conflict as a mediator of the relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs</i>	
H10: Caregiving responsibilities → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	Not Supported
Number of dependents → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	Not Supported
Exceptional care responsibilities → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	Supported
Supervisor support → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	Not Supported
Perceived job schedule flexibility → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	Partially Supported
Childcare arrangement satisfaction → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	Partially Supported
Childcare quality → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	Partially Supported
Childcare costs → Family-work conflict → Employment trade-offs	Partially Supported

Table 24
 Summary of Hypotheses (continued)

Hypothesis	Findings
<i>Relationship between employment trade-offs and workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization</i>	
H11: Employment trade-offs → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	Supported
H12: Employment trade-offs → Family-friendly benefit utilization	Supported
<i>Antecedents of workplace withdrawal behaviors</i>	
H13: Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	Supported
<i>Antecedents of family-friendly benefit utilization</i>	
H14: Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	Supported

Table 24
 Summary of Hypotheses (continued)

Hypothesis	Findings
<i>Family-work conflict as a mediator of the relationship between family and work domain variables and workplace withdrawal behaviors</i>	
H15: Caregiving responsibilities → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	Not Supported
Number of dependents → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	Not Supported
Exceptional care responsibilities → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	Partially Supported
Supervisor support → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	Not Supported
Perceived job schedule flexibility → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	Partially Supported
Childcare arrangement satisfaction → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	Partially Supported
Childcare quality → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	Partially Supported
Childcare costs → Family-work conflict → Workplace withdrawal behaviors	Not Supported

Table 24
 Summary of Hypotheses (continued)

Hypothesis	Findings
<i>Family-work conflict as a mediator of the relationship between family and work domain variables and family-friendly benefit utilization</i>	
H16: Caregiving responsibilities → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	Not Supported
Number of dependents → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	Not Supported
Exceptional care responsibilities → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	Supported
Supervisor support → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	Not Supported
Perceived job schedule flexibility → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	Not Supported
Childcare arrangement satisfaction → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utiliz.	Partially Supported
Childcare quality → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	Partially Supported
Childcare costs → Family-work conflict → Family-friendly benefit utilization	Not Supported

Table 24
Summary of Hypotheses (continued)

Hypothesis	Findings
<i>Consequences of employment trade-offs</i>	
H17: Employment trade-offs → Department turnover intentions	Supported
H18: Employment trade-offs → Agency turnover intentions	Supported
H19: Employment trade-offs → Public sector turnover intentions	Supported

Table 25

Summary of the Mediating Effect of Family-Work Conflict on the Relationship Between Family and Work Domain Variables and the Family Adaptive Strategies of Employment Trade-Offs, Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors, and Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization

Domain Variable	Employment Trade-Offs	Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors	Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization
Caregiving responsibilities	No Mediation	No Mediation	No Mediation
Number of dependents	No Mediation	No Mediation	No Mediation
Exceptional care responsibilities	Full Mediation	Partial Mediation	Full Mediation
Supervisor support	No Mediation	No Mediation	No Mediation
Perceived job schedule flexibility	Partial Mediation	Partial Mediation	No Mediation
Childcare arrangement satisfaction	Partial Mediation	Partial Mediation	Partial Mediation
Childcare quality	Partial Mediation	Partial Mediation	Partial Mediation
Childcare costs	Partial Mediation	No Mediation	No Mediation

Table 26
 Direct Versus Indirect Effects (through Family-Work Conflict) of all Family and Work Domain Variables on the Family Adaptive Strategies of Employment Trade-Offs, Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors, and Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization

Family and Work Domain Variables	Family Adaptive Strategy		
	Employment Trade-offs	Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors	Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization
Dependent Care Responsibilities			
Type of Dependent Care	None	D	D
Number of Dependents	None	D	None
Type of Care Responsibilities	D/I	D/I	D/I
Organizational Supports			
Supervisor Support	None	None	None
Perceived Job Schedule Flexibility	D/I	D/I	D
Childcare Arrangement Characteristics			
Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction	D/I	D/I	D/I
Childcare Quality	D/I	D/I	D/I
Childcare Costs	D/I	D	D

Note.

D = Direct effect of the family/work domain variable on the family adaptive strategy is significant

I = Indirect effect of the family/work domain variable through family-work conflict on the family adaptive strategy is significant (e.g., Full or Partial Mediation has been established)

None = Neither the direct or indirect effect of the family/work domain variable on the family adaptive strategy is significant

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

The overall purpose of this research was to extend the literature on work-family issues by investigating the mediating mechanism of family-work conflict on the relationship between family and work domain variables and an employee's decision to participate in employment trade-offs among Federal government employees. This research is important for several reasons. First, this study responds to work-family conflict scholars' assertion that more research is needed observing the effects of family obligations in interfering with work obligations, as most work-family research concentrates on studying the influences of work interfering with family (Crouter, 1984; Eby et al., 2005; Kanter, 1977; Netemeyer et al., 1996; Voydanoff, 2005a; Wiley, 1987). Next, the few empirical studies which have examined the antecedents to employment trade-offs have neglected to incorporate any theoretical frameworks to explain the mediating mechanisms that drive family and work domain variables to affect employment trade-offs. This study draws from a variety of work-family conflict theories (e.g., role conflict theory, the rational view, resource drain theory, and the scarcity hypothesis) to create a model which proposes the linking mechanisms between a variety of family and work domain variables on employment trade-offs in order to fully understand the mediating process through which family-work conflict influences the relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs and tests empirically the model.

Another purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among employment trade-offs and the family adaptive strategies of workplace withdrawal

behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. Given the dearth of empirical research that explores the associations among different family adaptive strategies, by examining the relationship between employment trade-offs with other family adaptive strategies it can be determined whether employees who make employment trade-offs also participate in multiple family adaptive strategies in an attempt to meet their work and family responsibilities. Examining the relationship amongst the three family adaptive strategies is particularly important because it also allows for a fuller understanding of the multiple ways in which employees attempt to negotiate and manage their work and family obligations.

An additional contribution of this research was to address whether there are consequences to making employment trade-offs in the form of turnover intentions. Due to empirical research which has shown that participating in employment trade-offs has been associated with lower levels of perceived success in balancing work and family life (Keene & Quadagno, 2004; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Wierda-Boer et al., 2008), lower levels of self-rated overall health (Fredericksen-Goldensen & Scharlach, 2001), and lower levels of self-esteem and perceived work opportunities (Carr, 2002), it is important to assess whether engaging in employment trade-offs is related to turnover intentions.

Overview of Findings

The rest of this chapter presents the study findings, discussing and interpreting the results of each hypothesis. Explanations for the relationships observed in the study are presented below and are discussed according to the groupings of variables in the model. Practical implications for employees and organizations are then discussed. Finally, this

chapter concludes with the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

Dependent Care Responsibilities

The first set of variables focus on the characteristics of the family domain: caregiving responsibilities, number of dependents, and type of care responsibilities (typical versus exceptional). Theory argues that increased responsibilities in the family sphere that occur from caring for children and adult dependents should make it more challenging to fulfill work demands (Neal et al., 1993). Furthermore, the results add to the work-family literature since few other studies have examined how multigenerational caregiving demands affect family-work conflict and participation in family adaptive strategies. Multigenerational caregiving responsibilities were found not to be significantly related to family-work conflict and there was no support that family-work conflict mediated the relationship between caregiving responsibilities and family adaptive strategies. Approximately 16% of the sample were caring for children and adults, suggesting that the number of Federal government employees in the sandwich generation is substantial. Employees with combined child and adult dependent care responsibilities actually showed roughly equivalent mean scores on family-work conflict ($M = 1.86$) than did employees with either children alone ($M = 1.93$) or adult dependents alone ($M = 1.71$). Surprisingly, results across these three groups of employees show that mean scores are not particularly high for family-work conflict. Mapping results onto the item rating scale indicates most respondents with children, respondents with adult dependents, and respondents with combined child and adult care demands *rarely* experience family-work conflict.

An examination of the relationship between caregiving demands and family adaptive strategies revealed that there were no differences in the number of employment trade-offs made amongst the three groups. Also, employees with only childcare responsibilities and employees with multigenerational care responsibilities stated that they engaged in more workplace withdrawal behaviors than employees with only adult care responsibilities. Furthermore, employees with only childcare responsibilities utilized more family-friendly benefits than employees with multigenerational care responsibilities and employees with only adult dependent care responsibilities. The prediction that multiple caregiving responsibilities would increase the number of family adaptive strategies made as compared with employees with only one type of dependent care responsibility as result of perceiving higher levels of family-work conflict was not supported.

One explanation for these findings is that it may be that care providers who have been in the workforce have already implemented effective methods for overcoming conflict between the work and family domains. As the study only asked about family adaptive strategies that were utilized in the previous 12 months, any strategies that were used before participants completed the 2006 Federal Employee Dependent Care Survey were not assessed. Since 91% of the respondents in the sample reported having been employed with the Federal government for 3 years or more, participants may have already established ways of successfully achieving a balance between work and family roles. Employees who are unable to resolve conflict may simply exit the workforce and their numbers, consequently, are not counted in the study survey.

Another explanation for these findings may relate to variables associated with the level of responsibility that one assumes for dependent care responsibilities. That is, many workers may have either combined their caretaking responsibilities in conjunction with other members of their household (e.g., a spouse, a sibling, or a nanny) or may have assigned this responsibility to someone else in the household. The majority of the participants reported being married or living with a partner (75.8%) and working a full-time schedule (96%) of 40 hours or more (95%), suggesting that the sense of responsibility to care for one's dependents may have been diminished if other members within the employee's family network are participating in caregiving activities. Since they are not assuming a primary share of the family responsibilities, conflict between family and work is decreased or avoided altogether. Furthermore, the research by Buelens and Van den Broeck (2007) indicates that public sector employees tend to prioritize family over work and perhaps do not perceive a high level of conflict between the two domains. In other words, an employee's own values may mandate a prioritization for family whenever there is the potential for conflict between the family and work, thereby ameliorating perceptions of family-work conflict.

Based on previous research (Byron, 2005; Eagle et al., 1997; Grandey & Croponzano, 1999; Michel et al., 2011; Netemeyer et al., 1996), it was expected that the more dependents one was responsible for, the less time and energy there would be to devote to workplace responsibilities, thereby increasing family-work conflict levels. The results of the study did not support this hypothesis. Also, mediation was not established with family-work conflict between number of dependents and the family adaptive strategies. Furthermore, there was also no direct relationship found between number of

dependents with employment trade-offs and family-friendly benefit utilization. The only direct effect that was significant for number of dependents was on workplace withdrawal behaviors (e.g., tardiness, leaving work early, and absenteeism), with the more dependents one is responsible for, the more workplace withdrawal behaviors being made.

While the majority of work-family studies support that there is a positive relationship between the number of dependents in the household and family-work conflict, some studies have failed to find any association (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006; Boyar et al., 2003; 2008; Patel et al., 2006). These studies have attributed the lack of significant effects to sample and measurement issues. Including variables that are associated with the number of dependents such as perceived family demands or perceived level of family responsibilities may provide insight into whether employees experience family-work conflict as a result of number of dependents since this variable is often used as a proxy for gauging family demands and responsibilities (Boyar et al., 2003; Rothausen, 1999). Boyar et al. (2008) found a positive relationship between the number of children living at home and perceived family demands but found that the relationship between the number of children living at home and family-work conflict was not statistically significant. This suggests that number of dependents may influence family-work conflict indirectly through perceptions that were not measured in this study such as perceived family demands.

Failure to observe a statistically significant effect of multigenerational caregiving responsibilities and number of dependents on family-work conflict may also reflect the fact that most caregivers in the sample with children have teenagers or school-aged children rather than young children (e.g., toddlers, preschoolers). Employed caregivers

faced with simultaneous daycare and eldercare decisions may be more likely to experience family-work conflict than those with children in school full time who require less hands-on care and attention.

Research has suggested that caring for a dependent with exceptional care responsibilities requires a significant amount of time, energy, and resources to devote towards the dependent and these demands often inhibit the capabilities of individuals to fulfill their obligations at work (Roundtree & Lynch, 2006). Findings did support that compared to workers with typical care responsibilities, workers with exceptional care responsibilities experience higher levels of family-work conflict. The relationships between type of care responsibilities with employment trade-offs and family-friendly benefit utilization were fully mediated by family-work conflict and the relationship between type of care responsibilities and workplace withdrawal behaviors was partially mediated by family-work conflict. This is consistent with the notion that dependents with a disability or chronic illness place great demands on an individual's time, energy, and resources and decrease the available resources necessary for completing work role commitments, thus, requiring the implementation of a family adaptive strategy as a solution to balance their work and family responsibilities (Kagan et al., 1998; Rosenzweig et al., 2002; Stewart, 2009). Moreover, statistics from the sample show that almost 14% of respondents are employees with exceptional care responsibilities indicating a high proportion of Federal employees with such responsibilities. Support for this hypothesis extends the research on the work-family issues of employees with dependent care responsibilities by examining a population of individuals that has been underresearched in the literature, as research has concentrated primarily on understanding

the work-family demands and challenges of employees with typical care responsibilities (Warfield, 2005).

Overall, the findings from this study suggest that while researchers should continue to examine the full range of dependent care responsibilities experienced by employees, particular attention should be directed to those employees who are caring for dependents with exceptional care responsibilities. A difficult challenge facing these employees is that their caregiving demands often necessitate a high degree of permeability and flexibility with crossing the boundary between work and family (Rosenzweig, Malsch, Brennan, Huffstutter, Stewart, & Lieberman, 2011). Human resource (HR) professionals can support the needs of employees with exceptional care responsibilities through increased access to programs that provide flexibility. Indeed, the study's findings support that employees with exceptional care responsibilities are likely to utilize family-friendly benefits such as alternative work schedules and telework to help them achieve a successful work-family balance. Writing from a social work practitioner perspective, Freedman, Litchfield, and Warfield (1995) state that social work professionals need to be aware of the challenges faced by employees of dependents with exceptional care responsibilities. They note that it will be important for social workers to provide information about and referrals for existing resources as well as mobilizing and advocating for needed services and supports. The authors maintain that social workers can help create opportunities for employees with exceptional care responsibilities to meet, share information, and support other caretakers in similar circumstances. In addition, HR practitioners must be able to offer workplace programs such as employer

resource and referral programs that can provide counseling and other services which can offer emotional support, including seminars, workshops, and support groups.

Organizational Supports

The second set of variables focus on the characteristics of the work domain: supervisor support for dependent care responsibilities and perceived job schedule flexibility. Previous empirical research has demonstrated that supervisor support is negatively related to family-work conflict (Frye & Breugh, 2004; Karatepe & Kilic, 2007; Karatepe & Uludag, 2008a; O'Driscoll et al., 2003). Contrary to expectations, regression results showed that supervisor support for dependent care responsibilities had no significant relationship with family-work conflict. In addition, family-work conflict did not mediate the relationships between supervisor support with all three family adaptive strategies. Upon closer examination of the correlation table (see Table 5), results do show that there is a small, statistically significant negative correlation between supervisor support and family-work conflict ($r = -.08, p < .05$). Furthermore, the correlation table also reveals small, significant relationships between supervisor support and all three family adaptive strategies ($r = -.03, p < .05$ for employment trade-offs; $r = -.04, p < .05$ for workplace withdrawal behaviors; $r = .18, p < .05$ for family-friendly benefit utilization), though the correlations between supervisor support with employment trade-offs and workplace withdrawal behaviors are near zero and suggest no practical significance. However, once the control, caregiving responsibilities, and organizational support variables were entered together into a regression model, the effect of supervisor support on family-work conflict, employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization were no longer significant. Of particular

importance, the correlation between supervisor support and perceived job schedule flexibility was quite high ($r = .61$). It may be that perceived job schedule flexibility may be sharing a large portion of the variance with supervisor support and the addition of perceived job schedule flexibility in the regression model may be causing changes in the regression coefficient of supervisor support. This finding may suggest that supervisor support may indeed predict family-work conflict and family adaptive strategy participation in alternative models of conflict between the work and family spheres.

Also, it should be noted that the item measuring supervisor support for dependent care responsibilities was a global measure of overall perceived supervisor support for family responsibilities and did not take into account the multiple dimensions associated with demonstrating supervisory support for family issues. Hammer et al. (2011) have identified four dimensions of family-supportive supervisor behaviors, which consist of emotional support, instrumental support, role modeling behaviors, and creative work-family management. Using such measures may yield significant findings in future research. However, findings are consistent with research by Boyar et al. (2008), who found that both work social support and work-family support did not impact perceived family demands (the perception of the level and intensity of responsibility within the family domains). It may be that employees perceive their supervisor as being supportive of their family obligations, yet it has little effect on family demand perceptions, which have been shown to predict perceptions of family-work conflict (Boyar et al., 2008). In summary, while supervisor support was not found to be associated with family-work conflict and the family adaptive strategies, the results do suggest that additional studies of

how supervisor support influences the family adaptive strategies and work and family experiences of Federal employees are warranted.

Theory and research support that a reduction in family-work conflict occurs with high levels of perceived job schedule flexibility since employees can rearrange their work hours to accommodate their dependent care responsibilities when issues or emergencies arise without having to compromise on their work responsibilities, which they can then complete at a different time (Hill et al., 2004; 2008). Findings did support the hypothesis that the work domain variable of perceived job schedule flexibility was negatively related to family-work conflict. The findings also showed that the relationships between perceived job schedule flexibility with employment trade-offs and workplace withdrawal behaviors were partially mediated by family-work conflict. Employees who perceive that they have flexible work schedules can respond to family needs by adjusting workplace attendance times, thereby limiting the amount of family-work conflict they experience which decreases the likelihood that they will make employment trade-offs and engage in workplace withdrawal behaviors. This line of reasoning is supported by Barnett's (1998) assertion that job schedule flexibility is a distal condition that affects the participation in family adaptive strategies.

The current research study highlights the importance of examining the influence of organizational support variables on family-work conflict and participation in family adaptive strategies. By providing assistance in creating flexible working conditions, organizations can create work environments that will lead to favorable perceptions of job schedule flexibility, thereby improving employees' capabilities to manage their dependent care responsibilities together with their work responsibilities.

Childcare Arrangement Characteristics

The third set of variables focus on the family domain variables associated with childcare arrangement characteristics: childcare arrangement satisfaction, childcare quality, and childcare costs. Previous research supports that employees who have problems with their childcare arrangements are likely to hold negative attitudes towards managing their work and childcare responsibilities (Kossek, 1990; Kossek & Nichols, 1992). Furthermore, when parents are satisfied with their childcare arrangements they report less amounts of family-work conflict (Aycan & Eskin, 2005; Goff et al., 1990; Payne et al., 2010). Replicating past research, this study found that childcare arrangement satisfaction was negatively related to family-work conflict. In addition, childcare arrangement satisfaction displayed direct effects on all three family adaptive strategies, demonstrating that employees who were satisfied with their current childcare arrangement were less likely to make employment trade-offs, engage in workplace withdrawal behaviors, and utilize family-friendly benefits when compared to employees who were not satisfied with their current childcare arrangement. Mediation analyses showed that family-work conflict perceptions partially mediated the influence of childcare arrangement satisfaction on the family adaptive strategies of employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization. It is probable that the working parents in our sample that were not satisfied with their current childcare arrangement had difficulty meeting all of their workplace obligations successfully since they were likely to be disrupted at work through spending time worrying about their child's well-being, considering changing their childcare

arrangements, and searching for alternative care providers, thus affecting their choice to implement a family adaptive strategy.

One of the major concerns of working parents is with the quality of childcare their child receives. The more that a parent believes that their childcare provider is communicative, dependable, and attentive to their child's needs, the more likely the employee will not be distracted at work and will be able to fulfill all work-related obligations while experiencing less role conflict between the work and family domains. Indeed, Barnett and Gareis (2006) demonstrated that parents with school-aged children experienced job disruptions when they were concerned about the quality of their child's after-school arrangements. The present study found support that among employees with childcare responsibilities, employees who had high quality childcare were less likely to perceive family-work conflict when compared to employees who had low quality childcare. Similar to childcare arrangement satisfaction, family-work conflict mediated the relationship between childcare quality and employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization. The childcare quality measure included multiple questions assessing a variety of factors related to childcare quality including overall quality of the care, dependability of the caregiver, qualifications of the caregiver, caregiver attentiveness, and safety of the childcare environment. This research suggests that when working parents experience difficulties with these factors, childcare quality interferes with a parent's effectiveness in completing their work responsibilities and likely leads to employees having to enact a family adaptive strategy to cope with their levels of family-work conflict.

Researchers have asserted that high childcare costs affect family-work conflict because parents with high costs spend time being preoccupied with this expense and/or spend time trying to find an alternative childcare arrangement that is more affordable, leading to increased levels of family-work conflict (Payne et al., 2010). Consistent with expectations, childcare costs were revealed to have a positive relationship with family-work conflict, as well as a positive relationship with all three family adaptive strategies, suggesting that financial resources are a major challenge to employees with childcare responsibilities. Family-work conflict partially mediated the relationship between childcare costs and employment trade-offs but did not mediate the relationship between childcare costs with workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization, suggesting that other factors such as perceived available resources (e.g., financial, community resources) may be affecting how childcare costs influences these two family adaptive strategies. Nevertheless, the research supports work-family researchers' concerns that economic issues need to be incorporated into models predicting family-work conflict and family adaptive strategies (Barnett, 1998; Drago & Golden, 2006; Poms et al., 2009; Voydanoff, 2005; Williams & Boushey, 2010). The average respondent stated that they spent between \$100 to \$150 a week on childcare, suggesting that the typical Federal employee with a child can expect to pay between \$4,800 and \$7,200 per year in childcare costs. The average annual salary for the Federal employees in this sample was ranging between \$59,001 to \$65,000, resulting in employees spending 8 to 11% of their annual income on childcare expenditures. For working parents, affording childcare can be difficult and may be a source of stress for parents who are worried about such expenses. Interestingly, childcare costs still impacted

perceived family-work conflict, employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization even after controlling for childcare quality and childcare arrangement satisfaction. This helps to rule out the alternative explanation that childcare services are lower in cost due to the quality level of such services.

Childcare is an important part of family life for many Americans and a critical support for working parents, since without childcare most parents would be unable to work and take care of their family. Researchers are beginning to understand that the influence that childcare has on a child's developmental outcomes is enduring and it is imperative for parents that this influence be positive (Lamb, 1998; Love et al., 1996; Vandell et al., 2010). Our findings support Barnett's (1998) assertion that an individual's concerns and worries associated with childcare increases the likelihood that employees will implement family adaptive strategies, such as employment trade-offs, so as to improve the quality of the relationships within their family network. This study also provides support that family-work conflict partially mediates the relationships between childcare arrangement characteristics and the enactment of employment trade-offs, as well as workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization. It is important to note that the correlation analyses amongst the three childcare arrangement characteristics suggest that these childcare arrangement characteristics are loosely related to each other and represent unique constructs. Childcare arrangement satisfaction showed no relationship with childcare costs ($r = -.02$) and a moderate relationship with childcare quality ($r = .31$), while childcare quality showed a small relationship with childcare costs ($r = -.15$). This is consistent with previous research which found that childcare arrangement satisfaction, childcare quality, and childcare costs contributed unique

variance to family-work conflict and are separate constructs from one another (Payne et al., 2010; Poms et al., 2009).

An interesting implication of the results is that employers can identify who is stressed over their childcare arrangements and provide services such as childcare subsidies and employee assistance programs that will offer resources and referral services to reduce concerns over workers' childcare arrangements. Results also underscore the importance of community leaders and policymakers to increase legislation to improve childcare quality, increase access to childcare, and to make childcare more affordable. The National Association of Childcare Resource and Referral Agencies has published a list of steps that should be taken by the Federal government and by state governments to help more families receive and afford high quality childcare for their children (Mohan, Reef, & Sarkar, 2006). This list contains a variety of policy recommendations including increasing the amount of funding that states must set aside to improve the quality of childcare and providing resources to help childcare providers meet minimum training requirements established by states, enabling providers to promote the social, emotional, physical, and cognitive development of children.

Family-Work Conflict and Family Adaptive Strategies

An important finding of this research was demonstrating that there is a positive relationship between family-work conflict and employment trade-offs. Inherent in the research investigating the predictors of employment trade-offs was the central assumption that employees make trade-offs as a result of the conflict that arises from family obligations interfering with work-related responsibilities. Researchers have provided support that heavy family demands are likely to influence a person's decision to engage

in employment trade-offs (Ammons & Edgell, 2007; Mennino & Brayfield, 2002). Despite this research which supports that family characteristics affect participation in employment trade-offs, no empirical research on employment trade-offs has included a measure of family-work conflict to directly explore the relationship between family-work conflict and employment trade-offs. This study extends the work-family literature by providing a potential linking mechanism between the antecedents of employment trade-offs as suggested by previous research studies, demonstrating that when employees perceive that their family responsibilities interfere with their work responsibilities, they are likely to make an employment trade-off to reduce their level of family-work conflict. It also builds upon theoretical and qualitative studies by providing quantitative support that family-work conflict contributes to an employee's decision to participate in employment trade-offs.

As predicted, perceived family-work conflict was found to be positively related to employees' workplace withdrawal behaviors. Also according to expectations, a positive relationship was demonstrated between family-work conflict and family-friendly benefit utilization. These results reinforce previous findings that participation in the family adaptive strategies of workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization results from family-work conflict (Amstad et al., 2011; Anderson et al., 2002; Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Gignac et al., 1996; Goff et al., 1990; Haddock et al., 2006; Hammer, et al., 2003; Hepburn & Barling, 1996; Kossek, 1990; MacEwen & Barling, 1994; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005; Secret, 2000; Thompson et al., 1999; Voydanoff, 2002; 2005b). Moreover, findings support the idea that withdrawal from work may be viewed as an adaptive mechanism that individuals are using to cope with

their own stress around work and family. Hammer et al. (2003) argue that considering workplace withdrawal behaviors as an adaptive family strategy takes a different stance from the traditional viewpoint found in the organizational behavior literature that withdrawal is a negative outcome for the individual. While there are likely to be unfavorable outcomes resulting from having to engage in workplace withdrawal behaviors such as lower productivity levels, these behaviors are used as a way of managing employees' family-work conflict. Through being late or skipping work, employees with increased family responsibilities will be able to spend less time at their job and more time towards fulfilling their family responsibilities.

The results also suggest that work-family research studies should examine family-friendly benefit utilization as an outcome of family-work conflict. As the majority of studies often include family-friendly benefit utilization as a predictor of family-work conflict (Kelly et al., 2008), additional research is needed to create more complete models of how family-friendly benefit utilization affects and is affected by family-work conflict. Perhaps utilization of family-friendly benefits may be considered an outcome or reaction to perceiving family-work conflict, resulting from increased perceptions of family responsibilities interfering with work responsibilities (Secret, 2000; Voydanoff, 2002; 2005b). Theories of work-family conflict suggest that employees with heavy family demands who are having trouble fulfilling their workplace obligations may be more willing to utilize family-friendly benefits to manage the conflict between the work and family domains. It is likely that family-friendly benefit utilization occurs amongst employees who are struggling to deal more effectively with their family-work conflict, hoping that usage of such benefits will reduce levels of conflict in the future.

Employment Trade-Off's Relationship to Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors and Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization

Although previous studies suggest that employees may engage in multiple family adaptive strategies to reduce their levels of family-work conflict (Barnett, 1998; Blair-Loy et al., 2002; Haddock et al., 2006; Neal & Hammer, 2007), there is still little empirical support for the proposition that employees use several family adaptive strategies together. This study examined the relationships among employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization and found that all three family adaptive strategies were positively correlated with each other. Taken together, this implies that individuals do implement a variety of strategies to aid in meeting their various work and family demands. Barnett (1998) asserts that an employee's choice to enact numerous family adaptive strategies signals the many commitments and responsibilities that employees have for themselves and for others in their social system. Employees who have heavy family responsibilities may not be able to achieve successful work-family balance by only implementing one family adaptive strategy but instead must engage in multiple strategies to reduce the competing pressures of work and family demands.

Family-work conflict as a mediator of the relationship between family and work domain variables and family adaptive strategies

Perhaps the most important contribution the present study makes is investigating the role that perceived family-work conflict functions in mediating the relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs. The expectation that family-work conflict would mediate the relationship between family and work

domain variables and employment trade-offs was partially supported. That is, family and work domain variables may be viewed as a demand or constraint, which starts by exacerbating perceived family-work conflict, and then influences a worker's decision to participate in an employment trade-off as an attempt to reduce the high levels of family-work conflict created by employees' family and work domain variables.

Mediational analyses, which were conducted to illuminate the process by which family and work domain variables influence workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization, provided results that demonstrate family-work conflict to partially mediate these relationships. Table 25 shows a summary of the mediating effect of family-work conflict on the relationship between family and work domain variables and the family adaptive strategies of employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization. This table shows that the pattern of mediation effects is, for the most part, consistent across the three types of family adaptive strategies, suggesting that the mediator of family-work conflict by which family and work domain variables influence participation in family adaptive strategies may be similar across all three family adaptive strategies. While theory suggests that the effects of family and work domain variables on workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization may be mediated by family-work conflict, this is the first study to empirically test these indirect and direct effects with family-friendly benefit utilization and only the third study examining family-work conflict as a mediator in the relationship between family and work domain variables and workplace withdrawal behaviors (Barling et al., 1994; Hepburn & Barling, 1996).

Evidence of partial mediation amongst the variables of perceived job schedule flexibility, childcare arrangement satisfaction, childcare quality, and childcare costs, denotes a clear implication that other mediators exist. Three other variables that may mediate the relationship between these family and work domain variables with employment trade-offs include perceived work-family conflict (work interfering with family), perceived work and family demands, and role overload. First, perceptions of work-family conflict may influence engagement in employment trade-offs, as heavy work demands inhibit an employee from meeting family responsibilities, thus contributing to a person's decision to make an employment trade-off as a means of reducing conflict between the work and family domains. Next, perceived demand is a global perception of the level and intensity of responsibility within the work and family domains (Boyar et al., 2008). It is likely that perceptions of work and family demand may also partially mediate the relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-offs since perceived family and work demands increase pressure to attend to obligations in both domains, causing interrole conflict which individuals may try to reduce through implementing an employment trade-off. Finally, role overload refers to how overwhelmed individuals feel by their work and family responsibilities as well as their perception of the time they have available to meet these responsibilities (Perry-Jenkins, Goldberg, Pierce, & Sayer, 2007), which may be an additional mediating factor affecting the relationship between family and work domain variables and employment trade-off decisions. Employees with high caregiving demands may participate in an employment trade-off because their caregiving demands result in a perception that they are overwhelmed by their work and family duties and do not have

the time to fulfill these obligations, thus requiring a strategy to be made to decrease this strain. These three variables should be examined and tested empirically in subsequent studies. Nevertheless, the findings help to identify the reason why family and work domain variables affect an employee's decision to implement the family adaptive strategies of employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, and family-friendly benefit utilization.

Consequences of employment trade-offs

This study found that employment trade-offs were found to be positively related to department, agency, and Federal government turnover intentions, indicating that the more employment trade-offs workers participate in, the higher the intentions to leave their department, agency, and the Federal Government are reported. While organizational researchers have begun to include family-related variables and perceptions of interrole conflict into models of turnover (Cohen, 1997; Hom & Kinicki, 2001), none of these models have included whether making employment trade-offs can affect turnover intentions. Organizational researchers estimate that the average costs of employee turnover attributable to conflict between work and family roles vary from 50 to 200% of an employee's annual salary (Kelly et al., 2008). In addition, turnover can lead to work operations being disrupted, lower morale, and increased hardship placed on the remaining employees (Maertz & Campion, 1998). Such consequences signal the importance in examining employment trade-offs as a variable in models that predict turnover. Furthermore, the results of this study suggest that participation in employment trade-offs may serve as a warning sign to the organization that an employee may be contemplating

leaving the organization. Organizations can possibly intervene to prevent turnover by providing flexible working solutions to manage competing family and work demands.

Interestingly, the study's findings support other empirical studies which have found that engaging in employment trade-offs is associated with unfavorable outcomes including lower levels of perceived success in balancing work and family life (Keene & Quadagno, 2004; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Wierda-Boer et al., 2008), lower levels of self-rated overall health (Fredericksen-Goldensen & Scharlach, 2001), and lower levels of self-esteem and perceived work opportunities (Carr, 2002). Theoretically, making employment trade-offs should result in favorable outcomes, since individuals implement employment trade-offs as a way to reduce family-work conflict and to better manage their work and family obligations. However, our findings seem to denote that there is no empirical support for this theoretical assumption as negative job attitudes in the form of turnover intentions are observed when participants engage in an employment trade-off. The results help to strengthen Mickel and Dallimore's (2009) claim that experiencing tension is typically associated with trade-offs and that despite any positive outcomes that may result from making employment trade-offs (e.g., reduced levels of interrole conflict), individuals cannot completely eliminate the tensions or conflict around the work and family domains, thereby allowing for negative outcomes to be simultaneously experienced. A trade-off implies a compromise or loss and using such a strategy may necessitate an individual to modify their personal goals around work and family which may be considered undesirable to the individual (Wierda-Boer et al., 2008). If the trade-off is believed to be a necessary but unfavorable accommodation, the individual may still have trouble adjusting to managing the conflict between work and family, thereby having

thoughts of quitting their current job, perhaps to find a new job with a more family-friendly workplace culture so that family responsibilities do not interfere as much with work responsibilities.

These findings also support the distinction of examining various types of turnover intentions that are unique to Federal government employees. While these three types of turnover intentions are highly correlated with each other, Federal workers may seek to keep their employment with the Federal government, electing to choose a job in a different department in their current organization or deciding to seek employment opportunities in a different agency which allows them to retain their status as a Federal employee and maintain their organizational identity as a government worker as well as keep their current benefits package. It is of note that the positive relationship found between employment trade-offs and turnover intentions was still significant even after controlling for government tenure since correlation results show a small, negative relationship between government tenure and turnover intentions.

While the purpose of this dissertation was to examine how employment trade-offs influenced turnover intentions at the department, agency, and public sector levels, it is interesting to note from the correlation analyses in Table 5 that workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization were also positively related to department, agency, and public sector turnover intentions (logistic regression analyses confirm these results). Based on research that shows that workplace withdrawal behaviors are related to thoughts of quitting the organization (Hom & Kinicki, 2001), it is not surprising that such a finding was replicated amongst this sample of Federal employees. However, it was unexpected to see that family-friendly benefit utilization was related to

higher turnover intentions for employees. Family-friendly benefit utilization should mitigate turnover intentions as several studies have shown that turnover intention or actual turnover is ameliorated when family-friendly benefits are available in an organization (Allen, 2001; Aryee, Luk, & Stone, 1998; Baughman, DiNardi, & Holtz-Eakin, 2003; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). It may be that the workers in this sample took on more daily responsibilities for dependent care once they began using family-friendly benefits, thereby, maintaining their current level of family-work conflict and continuing to think about leaving their department, agency, or the Federal government. Similarly, finding support that family-work conflict perceptions predict family-friendly benefit utilization suggests that employees who use multiple family-friendly benefits probably have the greatest family demands. This group of employees may continually experience high levels of conflict between the work and family domains no matter how many benefits are being used.

Practical Implications

There are numerous implications of this study for employees, managers, and organizations. It is imperative that employees with heavy family demands that are considering making a family adaptive strategy be aware of the potential relationships that are associated with actually implementing a strategy. While a reduction in family-work-conflict levels may be a positive outcome resulting from making an employment trade-off, it is likely that negative outcomes develop simultaneously as work-family tensions may persist and work-family goal modification is considered a source of stress to individuals (Mickel & Dallimore, 2009; Wierda-Boer et al., 2008). Since it was found in the current study that engaging in employment trade-offs (as well as workplace

withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization) was positively related to turnover intentions, in conjunction with past research showing that participating in employment trade-offs has been associated with lower levels of perceived success in balancing work and family life (Keene & Quadagno, 2004; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Wierda-Boer et al., 2008), lower levels of self-rated overall health (Fredericksen-Goldensen & Scharlach, 2001) and lower levels of self-esteem and perceived work opportunities (Carr, 2002), efforts to successfully manage both work and family domains through enacting an employment trade-off may result in unintended negative consequences for the employee if the trade-offs is seen as a necessary but unwanted adjustment to help balance the conflict between work and family. Moreover, while workplace withdrawal behaviors may be considered an adaptive strategy that allows employees to be able to spend less time at their job and more time towards fulfilling their family responsibilities, they still consist of a variety of counterproductive job behaviors such as tardiness, leaving work early, and absences, all of which are frowned upon by supervisors and organizations and are considered detrimental to the productivity of the individual. Finally, using multiple family-friendly benefits may not decrease levels of family-work conflict if high levels of family responsibilities persist, regardless of how many benefits are offered by the organization, resulting in unfavorable job attitudes persisting. It is recommended that employees who are faced with competing role demands use caution when participating in family adaptive strategies and be aware of the possible relationships that may result from their usage (e.g., high turnover intentions, unfavorable work-family balance perceptions), especially since longitudinal research studies regarding the effectiveness of these strategies have not been conducted.

As the results demonstrated that family domain variables such as caregiving responsibilities and childcare arrangement characteristics impact perceived family-work conflict and participation in family adaptive strategies, careful consideration of workers' unique types of caregiving situations will be necessary. Given the wide range of dependent care responsibilities that employees attend to, HR practitioners need to be aware of and address the complete range of family care situations when assisting employees. Moreover, the findings in this study support that family-work conflict relates to participation in family adaptive strategies, which suggest that organizations can decrease employment trade-offs and withdrawal behaviors by offering a variety of accommodations to help employees meet family needs. HR practitioners must provide employees with the flexibility to manage their own work and family responsibilities in a manner best suited to their particular situations and specific needs. In addition, supervisors should be trained on what available work-life policies the organization offers that promote flexibility to ensure that employees receive assistance from the organization in meeting their work and family obligations.

Organizations and managers must also be aware that when an employee makes an employment trade-off, job turnover intentions are likely increased. Practically speaking, these results have bottom-line implications for organizations. Employee turnover costs companies millions of dollars each fiscal year (Sagie et al., 2002). If participation in family adaptive strategies corresponds to higher turnover intentions among Federal employees (who represent roughly 2 percent of the United States workforce), then it is imperative for researchers and organizations to pay attention to the family needs of their employees as a way to reduce financial costs for the organization.

Limitations

Despite the contributions this study makes to the work-family conflict literature, the study has limitations that should be noted. First, due to the self-report nature of the data, this introduces common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) which refers to the degree to which correlations are inflated due to a methods effect. This may inflate the relationships found between constructs since participants' perceptions are influenced by subjective biases and may not be as accurate as using other measures which are objective such as looking at employee records to examine family-friendly benefit utilization rates, turnover rates, workplace withdrawal behaviors, etc. However, researchers state that common method bias should be considered a serious issue only if there appears to be a pervasive influence that systematically inflates the observed relationships (James, Gent, Hater, & Corey, 1979). While the influence of common method bias cannot be discounted from the present study, Matthews and Fisher (2010) suggest that common method bias is not a significant issue of concern in studies such as the current study, which has a wide range of individual-level correlations, the absence of multicollinearity, and no non-intuitive relationships. Nevertheless, researchers should replicate these results using objective measures of these variables.

Another limitation of the study is its cross-sectional design in which survey data was collected in one single point of time. Cross sectional designs prevent researchers from inferring any causal relationships between study variables (Bobko & Stone-Romero, 1998). As the study variables were not manipulated in an experiment nor investigated, it is not possible to identify temporal effects or causality. Future researchers

should replicate the effects presented here using a longitudinal design and multi-source data.

Furthermore, our data came from respondents working for a single employer, the Federal government. This may increase the likelihood of reduced variance in important study variables such as family-work conflict and employment trade-offs due to the normative influence of a single organizational culture (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989). However, because the data were collected across a variety of Federal agencies, each with their own subculture, this likely mitigates the effect of a single organizational culture influencing participants' responses.

Also, the participants in the sample consisted of Federal government employees who were primarily in white collar positions which may limit the generalizability of the findings. However, the examination of the work-family experiences of Federal government employees is a unique contribution to the work-family literature as this is a population not typically studied by work-family researchers (Dolcos & Daley, 2009). The Federal government is the largest employer in the United States (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010) and statistics show that more than 60 percent of Federal workers are between the ages of 40 and 59 years old (Congressional Budget Office, 2007), suggesting that this is a particularly relevant group with which to investigate how dependent care responsibilities influence family-work conflict and decisions around family adaptive strategies. Also, since research has demonstrated that public sector employees are more motivated to achieve work-family balance by spending more time with their families and working fewer hours than private sector employees (Buelens & Van den Broeck, 2007), utilizing this sample offers an opportunity to examine how family and work domain

variables influence employment trade-offs in a population with unique work-family attitudes and demographics. Indeed, as was demonstrated in this sample of employees, Federal workers may experience low levels of family-work conflict due to a number of reasons beyond their attitudes towards work-family balance. Public sector jobs are often highly structured environments with clear organizational goals and set work hours (Wright, 2001), allowing for employees to maintain boundaries between their work and family domains with little spillover occurring from one domain into the other. Moreover, government employees may not place as much importance on their work roles, thereby possibly decreasing the likelihood that family-work conflict is experienced if an individual is not as preoccupied with their work roles as much as their family roles. Research studies have supported this proposition by showing that public sector employees are less committed to their organizations and value achievement less than private sector employees (Buelens & Van den Broeck, 2007; Khojasteh, 1993; Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2006; Posner & Schmidt, 1996). While examining this specific segment of the population has advantages, whether our findings are representative of private sector employees or blue collar workers remains an issue to be explored, particularly since these two groups of employees are likely to be exposed to different types of work stressors such as longer work hours and blue collar workers face reduced access to a range of flexible schedule options which may make them more susceptible to conflict between work and family (Swanberg, Pitt-Catsouphes, & Drescher-Burke, 2005).

This study also responds to any generalizability concerns by examining a unique sample of employees with dependent care responsibilities often not utilized in such research. First, the sample is much larger than samples typically found in work-family

studies, with over 8,500 participants. One of the common research criticisms noted by work-family scholars is that the samples that are used in work-family research are homogenous, often excluding underrepresented populations such as sandwich generation employees, employees with exceptional care responsibilities as well as excluding non-traditional familial configurations such as single parent households (Allen et al., 2000; Casper et al., 2007; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). In the current study, 37.4% of respondents were men, 24.2% were single, 16.3% had both child and adult care responsibilities, and 13.5% had exceptional care responsibilities (see Table 1). Due to the prevalence of work-family conflict (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2011; Lockwood, 2003), the inclusion of a heterogenous sample with a variety of familial arrangements and demographic characteristics including a high proportion of men, members of the sandwich generation, employees with exceptional care responsibilities, and single employees may offer a more descriptive and generalizable representation of how family and work domain variables operate to impact family adaptive strategy choices amongst workers with dependent care responsibilities than prior research.

It is important to note that there are additional limitations associated with the measures used in this study. This is primarily because the data used in this study was taken from a larger Federal investigation into dependent care needs and the items used were developed with constraints and restrictions imposed by an internal review process which outweighed the wishes of the researchers. One such limitation is the use of single-item measures. Typically, researchers have presumed that the reliability of a single-item measure cannot be estimated, and that if it could be estimated, these measures would have low reliability estimates. However, research shows that reliability levels can be

estimated and that single-item questions can be acceptable measures of constructs (Nagy, 2002; Wanous & Hudy, 2001; Wanous & Reichers, 1996; Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). Furthermore, many of the single-items used in the study were asking about demographic information assessing self-reported facts (e.g., how many dependents are you taking care of, number of dependents, etc.) which is a commonly accepted practice by researchers (Wanous et al., 1997).

Of particular importance to the current study, Matthews and Fisher (2010) conducted a study examining the utility of single-item measures in work-family research. Their research demonstrated appropriate validity evidence for eighteen different single-item work-family constructs (including perceived family-work conflict and supervisor support) in four ways: content validity based on subject matter expert ratings, face validity based on participant evaluations, acceptable psychometric properties based on factor analysis and test-retest reliabilities, and construct validity evidence based on a conceptual model that replicates past work where multi-item measures were used. The results of their study provide support for the reliability, content, construct, and face-validity of the items and demonstrate that single-item measures can be used effectively to assess many constructs relevant to work-family research. Nevertheless, our understanding of employment trade-offs would be enhanced with more multiple-item measures being used in future research.

Another limitation with the measures used in the study has to do with the phrasing of many of the questions asked to participants. Many of the items asked participants to reflect how their dependent care responsibilities influenced their employment trade-offs, workplace withdrawal behaviors, family-friendly benefit utilization, and turnover

intentions instead of simply asking participants how many times the participant engaged in these behaviors. For example, participants were asked “In the past 12 months, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to turn down a promotion?” instead of being asked “In the past 12 months, have you turned down a promotion?”. This may have inflated the relationships found amongst the constructs. Podsakoff et al. (2003) note that item characteristics are sources of common method bias in research which may impact the relationships between variables due to affecting the variance which results in measurement error. Future studies should include measures of these behaviors and attitudes that do not reference participants’ dependent care responsibilities in the wording of the items so as to mitigate common method bias in the research.

An additional limitation of the study is that the items measuring turnover intentions only asked whether participants were leaving their current job to look for a new job in another department, agency, or outside of the Federal government. Even after making a family adaptive strategy, employees with complex family responsibilities may not be able to effectively manage their work and family roles and may seek to quit the workforce altogether to fully attend to the needs of their family. Future research should include turnover intention items that assess whether participants are considering exiting the labor force so that researchers can further understand how family adaptive strategies impact workforce participation.

There were also several issues associated with some of the family adaptive strategy variables. The family-friendly benefit utilization scale asked participants whether they had used a specific benefit to aid with dependent care responsibilities during the past

year. However, no information regarding the frequency with which family-friendly benefits were used was collected. The questions measuring employment trade-offs asked only whether a specific trade-off had ever occurred during the past year and neglected to assess the magnitude, the frequency, or the timing of the trade-off. Mennino and Brayfield (2002) argue that the costs of making some trade-offs may be higher than others. For example, individuals with a high level of family demands may be more likely to refuse a promotion rather than reducing the amount of work-related travel they engage in since a promotion represents more time devoted to the workplace and less time to spend towards family obligations. Furthermore, Mennino and Brayfield (2002) differentiate between employment trade-offs which signal action on the part of the employee versus employment trade-offs that occur from a response to one's environment. Turning down a promotion is an employment trade-off that is made in response to an offer of promotion. Conversely, decreasing work responsibilities or work-related travel suggests that the employee initiated the employment trade-off. Future research should test a model of employment trade-offs that incorporates these differences in employment trade-offs. Nevertheless, despite these limitations, the employment trade-off items used in this study are useful to work-family scholars interested in the decisions that workers make in an attempt to balance their work and family responsibilities.

Future Research Directions

While the 2006 Federal Employee Dependent Care Survey (U. S. Office of Personnel Management, 2006) contains valuable information regarding the dependent care responsibilities, organizational supports, childcare arrangement characteristics, and turnover intentions of Federal employees, the survey lacks important information

regarding variables that are likely to influence and be influenced by employment trade-offs. In particular, it does not allow the examination of how eldercare arrangement characteristics affect employment trade-offs. As the number of older Americans continues to grow due to life expectancy increases (Halpern, 2005; Donnell, Kim, & Kasten, 2007), a resulting consequence is that many working families must incur responsibility for the care of an elderly parent or relative who needs help with activities of daily living. Since studies have shown that employees with eldercare responsibilities report participating in a high number of employment trade-offs (Frederikson-Goldsen & Scharlach, 2001; National Alliance for Caregiving and AARP study, 2009), it is important to assess how a variety of eldercare arrangement characteristics affect employment trade-offs in future research studies.

Also, it is important to examine in future research how employment trade-offs impact non-work related outcomes such as health problems and life satisfaction. Health problems are especially important to pay attention to since employee health has been linked to unfavorable organizational outcomes including reduced productivity (Allen, Hubbard, & Sullivan, 2005; Stewart, Ricci, Chee, Morganstein, & Lipton, 2003) and higher absenteeism (Kivimäki, Vahtera, Thomson, Griffiths, Cox, & Pentti, 1997; Leigh, 1991; Loeppke, Taitel, Haufle, Parry, Kessler, & Jinnett, 2009).

An important extension of the present research is to investigate how employment trade-offs can cause people to alter their personal goals, potentially leading to negative outcomes. Conceptualizing work-family balance in terms of goal alignment should be helpful to researchers since employment trade-offs can be more easily understood as facilitating or hindering goal attainment and the adoption of new goals. Since a trade-off

implies a compromise or loss, employees that participate in an employment trade-off likely adjust their goals to incorporate and make sense of the employment trade-off and any subsequent feelings of dissatisfaction from having to change their goals. Prior to the implementation of an employment trade-off, individuals make an assessment of whether there is compatibility between family-oriented goals centered around meeting dependent care responsibilities with their work-related goals of performing all job duties. Based on this assessment, individuals then make adjustments to their goals so as to allow for an employment trade-off to be made. Research has not yet examined the process of how individuals restructure their goals and the cognitive techniques they use when making an employment trade-off. Perhaps people use reappraisal techniques when altering their goals such as reminding themselves that one cannot accomplish everything, assuming that one's original work-family goals must be unrealistic, lowering expectations around their work and family responsibilities, and feeling a sense of relief when letting go of responsibilities in the work domain. While engaging in an employment trade-off may reduce the tensions and strains associated with family-work conflict if an individual's career goals are modified, they may not if the changes are seen as a necessary yet undesirable adjustment made to handle their family-work conflict. Indeed, research suggests that high levels of stress and tension are associated with trade-offs due to the altering of personal goals related to work and family (Mickel & Dallimore, 2009; Wierda-Boer et al., 2008). When an individual's values, goals, and strategies for goal attainment around meeting their family's needs impede with their original goals around their career trajectory, then it is likely that negative attitudes may still persist even though family-work conflict may be reduced.

Another suggestion for future research is to examine the employment trade-off and turnover relationship using the unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Models of voluntary turnover have traditionally been attitude-centered, maintaining that job-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, influence turnover behavior through intervening cognitive processes such as turnover intentions (Lee, Mitchell, Wise, & Fireman, 1996; Sumer & van de Ven, 2007). The current study relies on these traditional attitudinal models of turnover as the underlying assumption of the present research is that employees that engage in an employment trade-off are likely to still experience family-work conflict and maintain negative job attitudes, despite their implementation of a family adaptive strategy. In contrast, the unfolding model of voluntary turnover states that unexpected life events, or shocks, initiate the psychological processes involved in quitting a job (Lee et al., 1994; 1996; Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaniel, & Hill, 1999). Shocks can include a variety of events that may originate from both the work and home environment such as unsolicited job offers, changes in marital status, firm mergers, and having a child (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Inderrieden, 2005). The model proposes that individuals compare the shocks and their surrounding circumstances to their own values, goals, and plans for goal attainment and, if the two are incompatible, this incompatibility prompts thoughts of quitting. It may be beneficial for researchers to consider employment trade-offs as a shock that causes a reassessment of their job. Cutting back on work assignments, turning down promotions, and decreasing work-related travel may cause employees to reevaluate the fit between their values and goals for managing work and family and those supported by their workplace. If the values and goals for work-family balance do not fit with the person's

current job situation or those implied by the shock, they will likely perceive that their needs are not being met and decide to begin the process of seeking a new organization to work for. Incorporating this theoretical model in conjunction with theories of work-family conflict and models of family adaptive strategies may provide a more comprehensive understanding of how family and work roles contribute to turnover decisions.

Future research also needs to incorporate longitudinal research designs to look at the frequencies and types of employment trade-offs and other family adaptive strategies that people make in their individual careers over time. In addition, longitudinal data may help to determine under what conditions do employees participate in family adaptive strategies as they respond to changes in their workplace and family environments to examine the process of coping. Moreover, since individuals engage in family adaptive strategies to reduce family-work conflict and increase their overall quality of life, having data at multiple time points can allow researchers to gauge which family adaptive strategies are effective in reducing conflict between the work and family domains by looking at the levels of family-work conflict after a specific family adaptive strategy has been implemented.

Researchers may also wish to utilize multiple methods of data collection beyond surveying employees. Qualitative interviews would provide opportunities to expand upon how the complex dynamics associated with the work-family interface influence employment trade-offs and other family adaptive strategies. Interviews could ask working professionals directly about the factors that are associated with difficulties in balancing family and work, at what point do they implement a family adaptive strategy,

and whether these strategies are effective or ineffective at maintaining a successful balance.

Furthermore, in future research, it may be more beneficial to researchers to utilize advanced statistical analysis techniques such as structural equation modeling (SEM) when examining the relationships among family and work domain variables on family adaptive strategies. SEM allows the analyst to make quantitative estimates of model parameters and to estimate goodness of fit. This allows researchers to create measurement models of one factor (with the independent variable of family and work domain variables and the mediator of family-work conflict together) versus a measurement model with two separate constructs (family and work domain variables and family-work conflict). Comparisons of these two models will aid researchers in ruling out alternative explanations that family and work domain variables affect family adaptive strategy participation directly instead of through family-work conflict perceptions as hypothesized.

While a measurement model might be informative in studying these variables, such a model may not be the most appropriate to interpret this study's results, given the complex nature of the data. Researchers have noted that software packages (e.g., Mplus, Lisrel) that perform SEM analyses do not adjust SEM estimates for the complex sampling designs that involve stratification and weighting (Valluzzi, Larson, & Miller, 2003). Specifically these authors conducted a literature review of articles that utilized SEM and did not find any examples in the literature of analyses of complex survey data similar to the 2006 Federal Employee Dependent Care Survey using SEM models that make appropriate adjustments for weights and stratification. Even a more recent review

by Aparouhov and Muthen (2006) found that statistical software packages that perform SEM analyses for complex survey designs produce different results even for simple models. Also, researchers still have to compare SEM estimates using latent variables to a regression model using indices of observed variables to identify whether results are consistent (Valluzzi et al., 2003). This study used SAS version 9.2 to conduct the regression analyses to account for both the weights applied to the sample and the stratified sampling so that the resulting variances and standard deviations are more accurate, thereby allowing for a more precise interpretation of the study's results.

Another suggested area for future research is the inclusion of more members of the family and work system when gathering data. Taking a systems view of work-family conflict incorporates the idea that a person's attitudes and behaviors relating to work and family issues are affected by other individuals in the work and family environments. The inclusion of coworkers, supervisors, and family members (e.g., spouse/partner, children, and other relatives in the household) allows an investigation into how other members of the individual's social system affect their family adaptive strategy utilization and other work and non-work related outcomes. Individuals are likely to make employment trade-offs as a couple-level or family-level strategy, incorporating the experiences of how their family members manage the work-family interface into consideration when taking into account the implementation of a family adaptive strategy (Becker & Moen, 1999; Haddock et al., 2001). Expanding upon these studies to examine how a person's family-work conflict influences others in their social system is imperative since research has shown that the level of family-work conflict experienced by an individual can crossover to affect the family-work conflict of a family member (Hammer, Allen, & Grigsby, 1997;

Westman & Etzion, 2005). Crossover research has also demonstrated that an employee's family-work conflict can affect their coworkers' levels of sickness absenteeism and turnover intention (ten Brummelhuis, Bakker, & Euwema, 2010). Through the utilization of multiple perspectives, researchers could further elucidate the specific antecedents and consequences of participating in employment trade-offs and other family adaptive strategies for both the individual and members of their family and work context. Furthermore, an advantage to gathering data from multiple people within the individual's social system is that the validity of the results would be increased and the limitations associated with self-report data would be reduced.

Future studies are also necessary investigating the additional mediating mechanisms that exist in the relationship between family and work domain variables and family adaptive strategies. Our findings showed that family-work conflict perceptions partially mediated the relationships between many of the family and work domain variables and family adaptive strategies. As previously mentioned, other unmeasured perceptual processes may also mediate the relationship between family and work domain variables and family adaptive strategies. Studies should explore whether work-family conflict, perceived demands, and role overload perceptions act as additional mediators between family and work domain variables and family adaptive strategies. Further research is also needed to determine the effectiveness of a wide range of family adaptive strategies beyond those measured in this dissertation. Researchers have begun to identify new family adaptive strategies such as planning and prioritizing activities, changing personal expectations to reduce work-family guilt, finding humor in situations, utilizing positive thinking when faced with unfavorable situations, increasing emotional resources,

and using cognitive reappraisal techniques which focus on cognitive and emotional strategies for handling work-family conflict as opposed to the behavioral strategies primarily discussed in the work-family literature (Baltes, Zhdanova, & Clark, 2011; Neal & Hammer, 2007; Mickel & Dallimore, 2009; Rotondo & Kincaid, 2008). It would be beneficial for researchers to examine additional strategies for managing work-family conflict and how their usage impacts the lives of employees with dependent care responsibilities.

In summary, it is suggested that future research expands upon the contributions of this study by examining additional unexplored antecedents, consequences, and mediating mechanisms of employment trade-offs and other family adaptive strategies through the use of longitudinal data collection and other quantitative and qualitative research designs.

Conclusion

In summary, this dissertation extended the work-family literature by focusing its analysis on a specific but understudied response to family-work conflict, employment trade-offs. Understanding the antecedents, mediating mechanisms, and consequences of employment trade-offs, in addition to employment trade-offs' relationship to other family adaptive strategies is important given the ways in which employees try to negotiate interrole conflict as well as the adverse effects of family-work conflict on an individual's well-being in both their work and family domains (Amstad et al., 2011; Eby et al., 2005). This study developed a clear theoretical link as to why family and work domain variables influence employment trade-offs, suggesting that family and work domain variables are antecedents of family-work conflict and, thus, indirectly related to employment trade-offs

(and the family adaptive strategies of workplace withdrawal behaviors and family-friendly benefit utilization) through perceived family-work conflict.

The results of this study provided empirical support that the relationship between a variety of family and work domain variables and family adaptive strategies are partially mediated by family-work conflict. This research shows that having exceptional dependent care responsibilities, perceived job schedule flexibility, and characteristics associated with childcare arrangements are important variables in predicting employment trade-offs. Knowledge of the factors that lead to employment trade-offs may help organizations to promote policies, programs, and procedures that aid employees in managing the double duties of employment and family. Although additional research needs to be conducted, the present study extends the work-family literature toward a greater understanding of the importance of family adaptive strategies to the functioning of employees with diverse dependent care responsibilities.

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Appendix A

LIST OF ITEMS IN THE SURVEY

Scale/Measure	Item(s)
Dependent Care Responsibilities and Number of Dependents	
	<p>How many people living in your household now are children up to age 18 (but not including age 18)? As before, please count any child(ren) who live with you all the time and any who live with you any part of the year (for example, weekends, summers only), as in cases of joint custody.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> None <input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/> More than 5 <p>How many dependent adults (age 18 and older) do you have under your care now?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> None <input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> More than 3
Type of Dependent Care Responsibilities	
	<p>Do(es) your infant(s) have special needs (physical and/or mental disabilities, for example, mental retardation, autism, cerebral palsy)?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/> Yes <p>Do(es) your toddler(s) have special needs (physical and/or mental disabilities, for example, mental retardation, autism, cerebral palsy)?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/> Yes <p>Do(es) your preschooler(s) have special needs (physical and/or mental disabilities, for example, mental retardation, autism, cerebral palsy)?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/> Yes

Do(es) your kindergartner(s) have special needs (physical and/or mental disabilities, for example, mental retardation, autism, cerebral palsy)?

- No
- Yes

Do(es) your school-aged child(ren) have special needs (physical and/or mental disabilities, for example, mental retardation, autism, cerebral palsy)?

- No
- Yes

Do(es) your teenager(s) have special needs (physical and/or mental disabilities, for example, mental retardation, autism, cerebral palsy)?

- No
- Yes

Do(es) your adult dependent(s) need help with tasks of everyday living (for example, eating, bathing, etc.) or have mental impairments?

- No
- Yes

Supervisory Support

How supportive of your dependent care responsibilities is your supervisor?

- Not at all
- Slightly
- Moderately
- Very
- Extremely
- Not applicable
- Do not know

Perceived Job Schedule Flexibility

How easy/difficult is it for you to change your **scheduled** work hours to handle your dependent care needs on **short notice**?

- Very difficult
- Difficult
- Neither difficult nor easy
- Easy
- Very easy
- Not applicable

- Don't know

Childcare Arrangement Satisfaction

Taking everything into account, how satisfied are you with your current infant care arrangement?

- Very dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied
- Satisfied
- Very satisfied

Taking everything into account, how satisfied are you with your current toddler care arrangement?

- Very dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied
- Satisfied
- Very satisfied

Taking everything into account, how satisfied are you with your current preschooler care arrangement?

- Very dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied
- Satisfied
- Very satisfied

Taking everything into account, how satisfied are you with your current kindergartener care arrangement?

- Very dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied
- Satisfied
- Very satisfied

Taking everything into account, how satisfied are you with your current care arrangement for your school-aged child(ren)?

- Very dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied
- Satisfied
- Very satisfied

Taking everything into account, how satisfied are you with your current teenager care arrangement?

- Very dissatisfied

- Dissatisfied
- Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied
- Satisfied
- Very satisfied

Childcare Quality

Think of the child care you have used for the **past 12 months**.

How often have you experienced difficulties with the overall quality of the care?

- Always
- Frequently
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never
- Not applicable

How often have you experienced difficulties finding dependable caregiver(s)?

- Always
- Frequently
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never
- Not applicable

How often have you experienced difficulties finding qualified caregiver(s)?

- Always
- Frequently
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never
- Not applicable

How often have you experienced difficulties finding child care that meets your child(ren)'s developmental needs (educational, social)?

- Always
- Frequently
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never
- Not applicable

How often have you experienced difficulties finding caregivers that are emotionally responsive to your child(ren)?

- Always
- Frequently
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never
- Not applicable

How often have you experienced difficulties finding a safe child care environment?

- Always
- Frequently
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never
- Not applicable

Childcare Costs

For your child(ren) **too young for elementary school** (usually infants, toddlers, and some preschoolers), how much do you pay in an **average week** for child care? Please provide the **total combined cost of all your child care arrangements that you use during the hours you work for the Federal government.** (Do not include off-work hours for child care, for example baby-sitting arrangements for a movie night out.)

- I do not have any children too young for elementary school
- I do not pay for child care
- \$1 - \$50 per week
- \$51 - \$100 per week
- \$101 - \$150 per week
- \$151 - \$200 per week
- \$201 - \$250 per week
- \$251 - \$300 per week
- \$301 - \$350 per week
- \$351 - \$400 per week
- \$401 or more per week

For your child(ren) **old enough for elementary school and higher grades** (for example, some preschoolers, and kindergartners, school-aged children, teenagers), how much do you pay in an **average week** for child care when school is **IN session** (for example, during the traditional school

year of September – June)? Please provide the **total combined cost** of care arrangements that you use **during the hours you work for the Federal government**. (Do not include off-work hours for child care, for example baby-sitting arrangements for a movie night out.)

- I do not have any children old enough for elementary school
- I do not pay for child care
- \$1 - \$50 per week
- \$51 - \$100 per week
- \$101 - \$150 per week
- \$151 - \$200 per week
- \$201 - \$250 per week
- \$251 - \$300 per week
- \$301 - \$350 per week
- \$351 - \$400 per week
- \$401 or more per week

For your child(ren) **old enough for elementary school and higher grades** (for example, some preschoolers, and kindergartners, school-aged children, teenagers), how much do you pay in an **average week** for child care when school is **NOT in session** (during school breaks, for example, traditional summer holidays)? Please provide the **total combined cost** of care arrangements that you use **during the hours you work for the Federal government**. (Do not include off-work hours for child care, for example baby-sitting arrangements for a movie night out.)

- I do not have any children old enough for elementary school
- I do not pay for child care
- \$1 - \$50 per week
- \$51 - \$100 per week
- \$101 - \$150 per week
- \$151 - \$200 per week
- \$201 - \$250 per week
- \$251 - \$300 per week
- \$301 - \$350 per week
- \$351 - \$400 per week
- \$401 or more per week

Family-Work Conflict

In the past **12 months**, how often have your child(ren) and/or adult dependent care responsibilities kept you from doing as good a job at work as you would like?

- Never

- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

Employment Trade-offs

In the past **12 months**, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to turn down a promotion?

- No
- Yes
- Not Applicable

In the past **12 months**, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to ask for a decrease in work responsibilities?

- No
- Yes
- Not Applicable

In the past **12 months**, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to ask for a decrease in work-related travel?

- No
- Yes
- Not Applicable

In the past **12 months**, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to request a work-schedule change?

- No
- Yes
- Not Applicable

In the past **12 months**, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to delay your return from parental/family leave?

- No
- Yes
- Not Applicable

Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors

Thinking of your work over the **past 12 months**, approximately how often have issues with your dependent care (for both children and adults) caused you to arrive late to work?

- Never
- 1-3 times
- 4-6 times
- 7-9 times
- 10 or more

Thinking of your work over the **past 12 months**, approximately how often have issues with your dependent care (for both children and adults) caused you to leave work early?

- Never
- 1-3 times
- 4-6 times
- 7-9 times
- 10 or more

Thinking of your work over the **past 12 months**, approximately how often have issues with your dependent care (for both children and adults) caused you to take leave because of a sick dependent?

- Never
- 1-3 times
- 4-6 times
- 7-9 times
- 10 or more

Thinking of your work over the **past 12 months**, approximately how often have issues with your dependent care (for both children and adults) caused you to take leave because of an **unplanned** change in your dependent care (for example, provider is unavailable; closed dependent care facility)?

- Never
- 1-3 times
- 4-6 times
- 7-9 times
- 10 or more

Thinking of your work over the **past 12 months**, approximately how often have issues with your dependent care (for both children and adults) caused you to take leave because of **planned** events (for example, school vacation/teacher in-service days)?

- Never
- 1-3 times
- 4-6 times
- 7-9 times

- 10 or more

During the **past 12 months** approximately how many hours of your **leave** have you had to take to meet your dependent care needs (for both children and/or adults)? Estimate to the nearest hour.

- None
- 1
- 2
- 3
- ...
- ...
- ...
- 38
- 39
- 40
- More than 40
- More than 40

Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization

Which of the following work schedules or benefits have you used in the **past 12 months** to manage your dependent care responsibilities? **Mark all that apply.**

- None
- Compressed Work Schedule (CWS)/Alternative Work Schedule (AWS) (A fixed work schedule that enables you to complete an 80 hour pay period in less than 10 days)
- Flexible Work Schedule (FWS)/ Alternative Work Schedule (AWS)/ (A work schedule that allows you to choose arrival and departure times within flexible time bands while maintaining certain agency-determined core hours)
- Part-time work
- Job sharing (where two people share a single job)
- Telework (telecommuting or work-from-home)
- Annual leave
- Sick Leave
- Leave without pay
- Advanced leave
- Leave sharing
- Work off-hour shifts
- "Comp" time
- Credit hours

Do you currently use a Federal Child Care Center? If you are not sure what a Federal Child Care Center is, please see the survey definitions.

- No (**skip to item FP5**)
- Yes

Do you currently participate in the Federal Child Care Subsidy Program? If you are not sure what the Federal Child Care Subsidy Program is, please see the survey definitions.

- No (**Skip to FS4**)
- Yes

Does your agency offer a Dependent Care Flexible Spending Account (DCFSA) now? If you are not sure what a DCSFA is, please see the definitions.

- No
- Yes

Turnover Intentions

In the past **12 months**, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to look for a new job within your current Federal agency?

- No
- Yes
- Not applicable

In the past **12 months**, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to look for a new job with another Federal agency?

- No
- Yes
- Not applicable

In the past **12 months**, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to look for a new job outside the Federal government?

- No
- Yes
- Not applicable