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DOES FAMILY CONSTRAIN WORK?

**AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF THE IMPACT OF FAMILY
SITUATION OVER CAREER DECISIONS**

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In the last years, there has been a growing awareness toward the fact that private life and career experiences are intimately and inextricably intertwined (e.g. Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Greenhaus & Powell, 2011; Poelmans, 2005). This increasing interest has been fueled by recent trends such as the rising women's and mothers' participation rate in the labour force, the heightened number of dual-income partners, the increasing child and elder care burden, and the recognized life value and societal norm that work-family balance is gaining (OECD, 2016a). All these factors, together with the development of a long hour culture, frequent unpaid overtime, changing work time and work intensification, caused in workers a problem of incompatibility between work and personal life (Alhazemi & Ali, 2016; Naithani, 2009). Accordingly, a continuously increasing number of individuals considers their family situation when making career decisions, in order to ease the reconciliation of these two domains (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Masterson & Hoobler, 2015). Indeed, as Greenhaus and Kossek pointed out, "an examination of the contemporary career, that is, the career enacted in the early portion of the twenty-first century, is particularly timely in light of substantial changes in the economy, work organizations, and families over the past several decades that have transformed careers in significant ways that are likely to continue for the foreseeable future" (2014, p. 362). Moreover, even though work-family interdependencies are well established in the literature, it still remains overlooked how these interdependencies affect the way through which individuals make decisions (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014).

Personally, I choose to explore this specific issue because it is a theme that recently touched me in first person several times. In particular, I am wondering from a while how (and if) business men and women are able to manage the equilibrium between two of the most relevant domains in the adult life: family and work. Therefore, I started to look for researches in this field of analysis, but I was not able to find agreement among scholars on the nature and strength of the bond between family life and career behaviours, presumably because it is still an overlooked topic, and because it involves knowledge of different disciplines. Indeed, Greenhaus and Powell highlighted that from a managerial perspective “it is important to understand employees’ consideration of their family situation when making work decisions, not only because it appears to be a common phenomenon but also because it has generally been ignored in the theoretical, work-related decision-making literature” (2012, p. 247). Finally, I was particularly interested in the results of this investigation due to the fact that I will hopefully be in the near future a young worker that someday will probably first-hand experience what does it mean to have a career and a family to manage.

Concretely, I divided the dissertation in four main chapters. In the first chapter it is introduced the field of analysis and it is examined the societal, cultural, and institutional context in which the study takes place, which is dynamic and constantly evolving. Thereafter, in chapter two I went through a literature review of the studies dealing with the interdependences between private life and career decisions. In particular, an analysis of the different perspectives adopted by researchers regarding work-family conflicts and enrichments was made. Finally, I articulated the three main research questions, to which I tried to find an answer in the subsequent chapters. Indeed, in chapter three, it was investigated theoretically the role that individual-level and country-level moderators may have on the relationship between family life and career decisions. In conclusion, the fourth chapter was dedicated to the empirical analysis of the model proposed and the interpretation of the results thus obtained.

CHAPTER 1

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT AND CURRENT CONTEXT

Work and family are undoubtedly two of the most relevant domains that characterize the adult life. Thus, the real challenge for organizations, governments and policy-makers in general in the next future will be to design and adopt a robust and sustainable set of policies able to adapt to changes in family and household structures that are nowadays shaping our societies and socio-economic outcomes (OECD, 2011a). In particular, these trends are the growing number of women entering the labour market, the consequent increase in dual-income couples (i.e. couples where both households are in paid employment), the increasing child and elder care burden, and the heightened value attributes to the life outside work; taken all together, it appears quite clearly that they are changing the way in which family and work are interrelated (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Dai, 2016; OECD, 2016a; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Greenhaus & Ten Brummelhuis, 2013; Naithani, 2009).

1.1 THE COMPLEX RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK AND FAMILY DOMAINS

Before focusing on the current situation, it is important to underline that until the 1970s, researchers had always treated the two spheres of work and home life as totally independent from each other (Clark, 2000). Indeed, considering that the workplace and the private house were kept physically separated and that people seldom were used to bring their work home, it was easy -and quite truthful- to assume that there were not interactions at all between the two elements. Moreover, the role of man and woman could be defined as fixed and rigid at that time, since males were generally the only breadwinners, while females took care of the house and of the children, if any (e.g. Parsons & Bales, 1956). This clear division of roles encouraged the idea that work and family did not have anything in common, and that they were not interconnected.

Yet, in the last decades of the XX century, researchers have started to consider family and work as an open system; indeed, few theories were born, and several studies were done in order to explain their interdependence. Just to cite some of them, Near, Rice & Hunt (1980) examined empirical studies trying to understand the nature of the relationship between aspects of the work life and aspects of the life off the job, and if they are in some way dependent from each other. Staines (1980) stated that even if work and family were physically and temporally separated, there are aspects that determine a “spillover effect” from one sphere to the other, and that these aspects are mainly composed of emotions, attitudes and behaviours. Furthermore, Pleck, Staines and Lang (1980) tried to analyse if there are conflicts among the two variables, and to identify the types and quantify the interferences among job and family life. One year later, in 1981, Greenhaus and Kopelman, started to examine the inter-role conflict experienced by men and women when dealing with their work, family, and personal lives. A few other researches in the next years studied the work-family relation, among which, in particular, Crouter and Garbarino highlighted how “the impact of work on family life and the effects of family life on the world of work have recently been the topic of surveys and reports by such organizations as General Mills and Better Homes and Gardens, an indication that the perspective is becoming part of the mainstream of American thought” (1982, p. 145). With time, it emerged also the first attempts to extend the work/family conflict concept (e.g. Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Starrels, 1992), and it began to be analysed the theme of how to stimulate an alliance between the working environment and the private life; finally, it started to

be investigated the problem of how to help employees in handling family and work matters with harmony (Crouter, 1984; Becker & Moen, 1999; Clark, 2000). The consequences of the relationship between these two elements have also received researchers' attention: for example, Schneer and Reitman (1993) and Parasuraman, Purohit and Godshalk (1996) analysed the effects of the perceived level of work/life balance on personal career success and work and life satisfaction. However, as it will be explained later in this chapter, more recent researches shed light on the fact that there are actually some other important variables that depend on the equilibrium of these two life fields, and that should be taken into account.

Again, starting from the XXI century, the theme of the interdependence between work and family has been receiving a new wave of interest by researchers of this area. In fact, there is an increasing awareness toward the fact that individuals' private life and working experiences are intimately intertwined (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Maertz Jr. & Boyar, 2011; Colombo & Ghisieri, 2008; Poelmans, 2005), and this awareness has been encouraged in recent years by several changes that are deeply shaping worldwide societies.

1.2 DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGES IN WORK AND FAMILY ENVIRONMENTS

Trends such as the rising number of females and mothers in the labour market and the consequent increase of dual-earner families have been stimulating the interest of scholars in analysing the blurred boundaries between these two domains (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Greenhaus & Ten Brummelhuis, 2013). Looking at the data, it is possible to observe how females' labour market participation rate shifted from less than 45% in 1970 to 58% in 2008 (OECD, 2010). Afterward, until 2010, the number of employed women in the OECD countries continued to rise, despite the economic crisis of 2008-2009: the inactivity rate of women (aged 15-64) continued to fall from 36.1% to 35.7% (Eurostat, 2010).

A particular mention should be done to the United States' case, in which the number of women in the labour force is significantly increased: after the WWII, in 1948, the 32,7% of the United States' female population in working age was under employment, while in 2016 it was 56,8% (for a total of 74,6 women in the civilian labour force), representing the 47% of the whole U.S. workers (DeWolf, 2017; Dai, 2016).

An overall picture of the trends in female labour force participation rate from 2000 to 2016 at country level (in the cases of Turkey, Iceland and Italy) and at community level (for European countries and OECD countries) is showed in Figure 1.1. In detail, there are reported in the graph the extreme situations in terms of female employment rate in 2016 -Turkey was the country with the lowest rate of female labour participation over total female working age population (31,1%), while Iceland had the higher rate (83,6%)- and Italy (48,1%), the average of European countries (61,3%) and the average of OECD countries (59,3%) as point of reference (as it is possible to see in Figure 1.1).

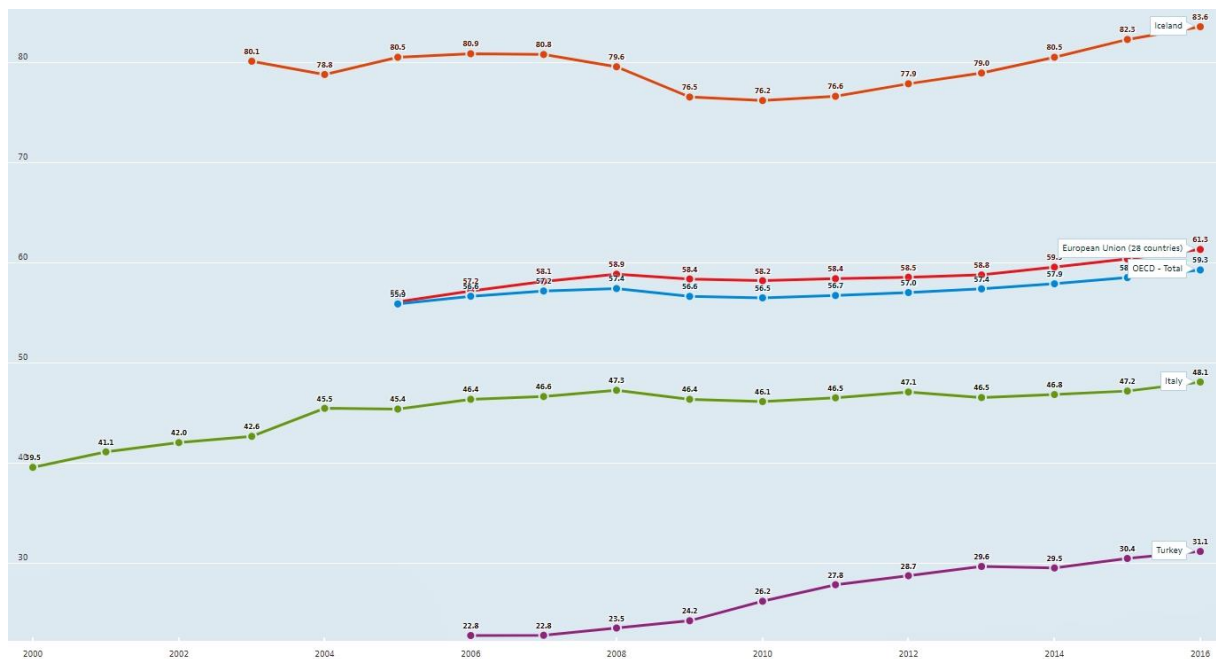


Figure 1.1 – Women, % of working age population, 2000 – 2016.
 Source: OECD (2017c), employment rate.

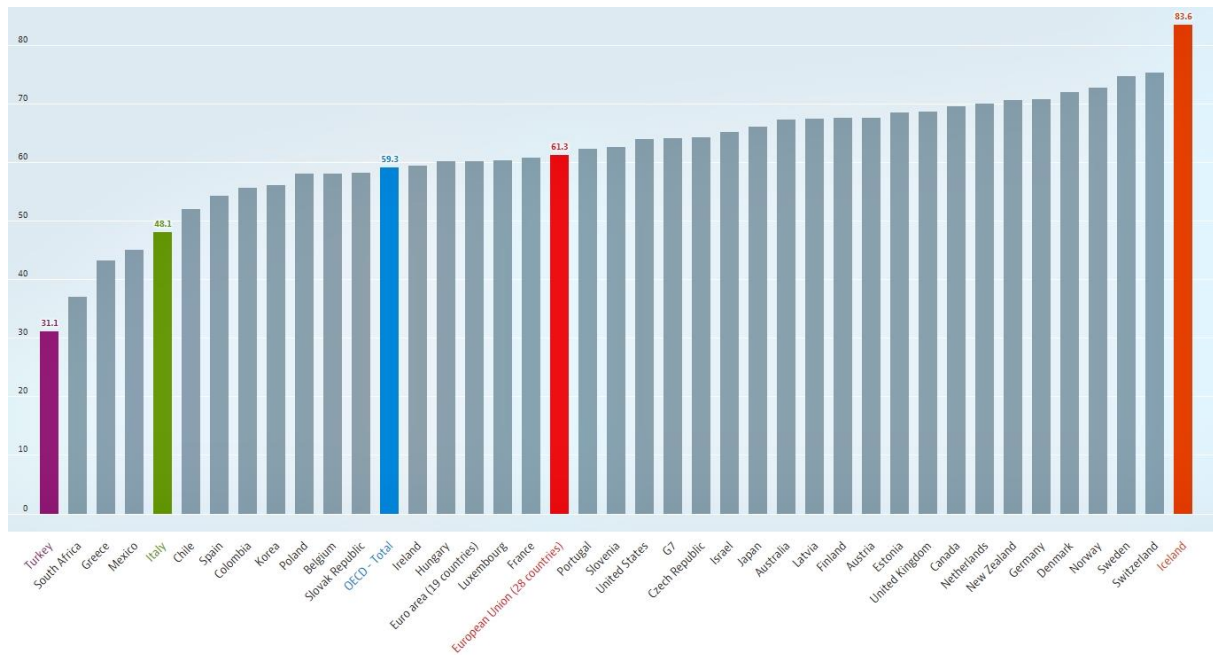


Figure 1.2 – Women, % of working age population, 2016.
 Source: OECD (2017c), employment rate.

As a consequence, as reported by Forbes (2013), the number of dual-earner couples in America increased a lot between 1996 and 2006, registering a growth of 31% in ten years; in 2012, the 59% of American parents were both working, as a study of the Bureau of Labor Statistics shows. In the same article, it is reported that “in a 2013 survey conducted by LearnVest and Chase Blueprint, six in ten Americans told us they believe you need dual incomes these days to afford your dreams” (Forbes, 2013, p.1). Following the same trend, also in the OECD countries families in which the man was the sole earner have been replaced by dual-income families in the first decade of the XXI century (OECD, 2011b). In 2014, across OECD countries there was an average of 56% of all the children aged 0 – 14 that lived in households where both adults were in paid employment (OECD, 2016a).

Considering all these demographic changes, it is important to underline the fact that “the economic vulnerability of families is linked to parents’ incapacity to reconcile employment and parenthood” (OECD, 2011b), and therefore more attention should be paid to the problem of the work/life (i.e. work/family) balance. But what is exactly the concept called “work/family balance”? A worldwide recognised definition is the one given by Frone: “is a lack of conflict or interference between work and family roles” (2003, p. 145) and it is therefore a bidirectional relationship (Abendroth & den Dulk, 2011; Amstad *et al.*, 2011).

Actually, the fragile equilibrium between work and family has also been defined by Clark as “one of the most challenging concept in the study of work and the study of family” (2000, p. 748).

Recently, several studies have examined the balance between career experiences and home experiences, stating that its achievement is a societal norm and a life value that is gaining growing interest and that is considered a crucial issue both for individuals and organizations (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; AlHazemi & Ali, 2016; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). Indeed, there is a spread tendency toward a heightened importance attributed to the quality of life outside work (Clark, 2000), and individuals are increasingly making job-related decisions on the basis of family considerations and private life variables (Greenhaus & Powell, 2010). In fact, one of the main ways to facilitate the management of the work/life balance is clearly taking into consideration the elements of the private life when making important career decisions (Masterson & Hoobler, 2015). In particular, Greenhaus and Powell (2012), two of the most recognized authors in this field of analysis, theorised the concept of “family-related work decisions” to define the phenomenon for which career choices are determined by family issues; some other recent authors developed then this complex phenomenon. Examples of this type of decisions could be a more flexible working schedule (in time and/or location), the choice to deny a relocation or a promotion, a special care leave, or a request for a part-time job in order to be able to manage in a better way the relation between home life and work in terms of time, energies, and responsibilities (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). As Clark stated, “individuals can shape to some degree the nature of work and home domains, and the borders and bridges between them, in order to create the desired balance” (2000, p. 751).

Moreover, these substantial changes in families, economy, and organizations have been developed in an environment of work uncertainties, characterized by a job insecurity that has led people to make more frequent career decisions during their working life (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011), and these decisions are nowadays significantly influenced by their home circumstances (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). As a matter of fact, an increasing number of men and women customize their career on the basis of individual choices made to accommodate personal and/or family preferences (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Valcour & Ladge, 2008).

1.3 FAMILY-FRIENDLY WORKING ARRANGEMENTS AND WELFARE STATE REGIMES

In order to help men and women in fulfilling their growing willingness to have both a satisfying career and a pleasant family life, several welfare state regimes have been implemented in order to stimulate a redistribution of time and responsibilities during adults' working life (Torres *et al.*, 2007). Due to the fact that changes in the structure of families and households would shape the socio-economic outcomes of the future, it is important for governments to track them and analyse how they will evolve over time (OECD, 2011a). Indeed, as reported by a study conducted by Eurostat (2015), the balancing of working and family life has getting more and more policy attention. It is also fundamental to underline, though, that policies in this field should not only be directed at encouraging the activity rates of the working-age population, but instead at promoting a more flexible and autonomous management of people's lives and careers, fostering a better work/life balance perceived by citizens (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2007).

In this direction, it emerged in a recent report *The Future of Families to 2030* that there is a significant increasing demand for more flexible jobs, both in terms of time and place (Haber Kern, 2011). A more autonomous determination of the working schedules and the possibility to use the teleworking are two of the most acknowledged and promoted practices in order to reach a good work/family life balance (OECD, 2011a). Given this growing sensibility toward the harmonization of the two spheres, in a study carried out by OECD it was introduced the definition of family-friendly workplace: it is the one which “supports for a better reconciliation of work and family life, include part-time work, flexible working hours, days off to care for sick children, employer-provided parental leave and/or childcare support, teleworking or school-term working” (2007, p.7). Focusing on flexibility in working time arrangements, some governments' policies regulate employees' rights to adopt more flexible workplace practices. In the Netherlands, for example, employees of companies with more than nine employees can modify their working hours for any reason. In Sweden, employed parents are authorized to reduce their working hours until the time their youngest child begins to attend the primary school. Moreover, the UK government has established the right to request flexible working hours for parents with children under 6 years old (OECD, 2007). In detail, Austria, Germany, Denmark, Finland, and Sweden are the countries with the highest proportion of

companies (on average around 60%) that provide flexible working time, together with Ireland and the United Kingdom (in which the proportion is around 55%). On the other hand, in the United States, 37% of employees could self-manage the hours of start and end of their working day (OECD, 2010). Overall, among the OECD countries, 87% of enterprises guarantee at least some kind of work flexibility in the working time schedule to their employee (OECD, 2016b). A complete picture of the proportions and types of flexible work provided by companies in OECD countries can be seen in Figure 1.3.

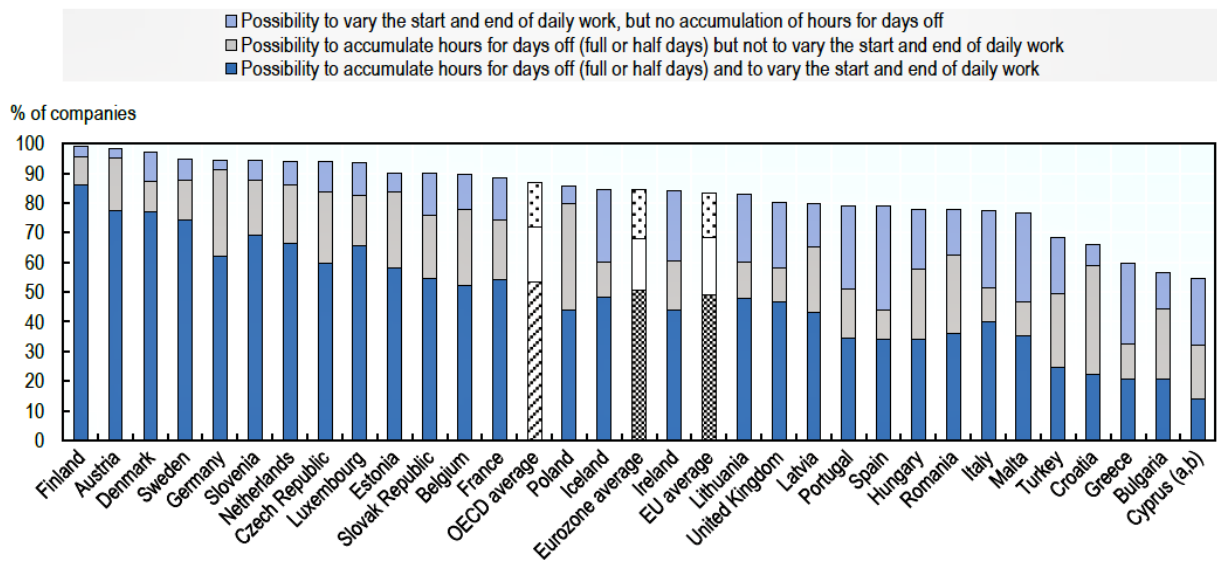


Figure 1.3 – Proportion (%) of companies that report providing flexible working time arrangements to at least some employees, 2013.
Source: OECD (2016b).

Another family-friendly practice that can be found in some organizations is the one that allows employees to work from home, supporting them in handling of work and family commitments (OECD, 2016b). Even if the supply of telework has enlarged among European countries in the last years (in 2003, 16% of EU enterprises employed teleworkers while in 2006 the percentage was risen to 23%), there are still substantial differences among OECD countries in the supply of telework arrangements and yet most of working men and women have never used telework in their last working years (i.e. in Italy nine employees out of ten are currently in this situation) (OECD, 2016c; OECD, 2011a). Moreover, due to the fact that enterprises nowadays create more flexible workplaces and that careers are getting boundaryless, the autonomy and the decision-making process of the individual became more and more central,

because the chance to self-manage the working time and the possibility to telework from home have blurred significantly the existing work/family boundaries (Kossek & Lambert, 2004).

The possibility of having a more flexible working time is even more relevant in the event that workers are also parents. In particular, men and women with children often ask for working time arrangements such as teleworking, childcare facilities at the workplace, taking paid or unpaid leave, taking extra time off to look after relatives in addition to the traditional tools for having a greater control over their working hours, working more or less hours when needed (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2007).

Actually, this increase in the value attributed to the quality of life outside work is also shaping the conditions of the leave policies in different societies; these policies concern mainly children's and elder's care. Regarding child-related leave policies, parental rights have significantly expanded in the in the last decades in the majority of the OECD and EU countries (OECD, 2017a; Prpic, 2017; Thévenon & Solaz, 2013). In fact, the willingness to give children a good start in life by supporting parents with more favourable leave policies and a more flexible work organization, and consequently helping them to reach a good work/life balance, has been the focus and the motivating force behind recent European and national efforts that are leading enterprises to a more family-friendly approach (European Commission *et al.*, 2014). As reported by Thévenon and Solaz (2013), the main objectives of these leaves are: give support to parents in achieving work-life balance, promote initiatives that will allow employees to have the number of children that they desire, encourage the women labour market to increase the economic growth, fight against family poverty, and finally foster child development and wellbeing. As previously stated, the increase in the length and availability of paid leave (also in the field of paid father-specific leaves) moves in accordance to this tendency for more family-friendly workplaces (OECD, 2017a). Across OECD countries, on average mothers have no more than 18 weeks around childbirth as paid maternity leave, and almost all OECD countries provide mothers with paid leave maternity of at least three months (OECD, 2017b). In a study promoted by the European Parliament it emerged that among the EU Member States, it is offered a form of leave reserved for mothers at the time of birth in every single country, and the leave period can vary from 14 weeks (e.g. in Germany) until a maximum of 58 weeks (e.g. in Bulgaria) (Prpic, 2017). On the other hand, the United States is the only country that does not guarantee on a national basis a statutory right to paid leave (OECD, 2017b).

Nevertheless, even if all EU Members have some kind of mothers' leave entitlement around the time of birth, not all the EU countries provide a paternity leave, and they are on average of shorter periods with respect to the one reserved for mothers (OECD, 2017b). Indeed, seven states do not have yet any provision in this sense: Croatia, Austria, Cyprus, Germany, Slovakia, Luxembourg, and Czech Republic (Prpic, 2017). Moreover, the paternity leave guaranteed by the Member States are very different in terms of time and generosity; an example could be the case of Slovenia, that currently permits fathers to take seven weeks. Again, Finland has a provision that allows nine weeks as paternity leave, which is in sharp contrast with the conditions in countries like Netherland or Malta, where fathers have just two days of leave (Prpic, 2017).

Moreover, in some countries, the traditional forms of children-related leave are integrated with an additional period of leave that is reserved to employees that need further time to take care of their children; it is called in different ways, but it is substantially a "childcare or home care leave" (Moss, 2014). This kind of leave can be taken right after the other leaves (creating in this way a sort of continuum in the suspension period from work) and it could be paid or unpaid, depending on the country that provides it. It is important to specify, however, that this so called "childcare leave" is actually adopted by just five countries (Portugal, Norway, Croatia, Finland, and Iceland), and that it is less common than mother, father and parental leaves. Furthermore, its use may be restricted to certain conditions (e.g. in Croatia the child must be younger than three years old) (Moss, 2014). Also, in two other countries (Estonia and Hungary), workers are allowed to take a limited period of leave in case of special family needs related to their children (Moss, 2014).

Additional public policies that may help families in reconcile their work and home commitments are the one aimed at giving support and benefits that are reserved only to families and children; other types of spending in social policy areas (e.g. in health and housing) could also support families, but they are not included in this study since they are not exclusively and not strictly related to the work/home interdependencies (OECD, 2017d). Particularly, the focus will be on the public spending in childcare and pre-school services. Among OECD countries, the average spending on early childhood care and education is 0,7%, but there are actually large disparities from country to country: whereas in the Nordic countries, New Zealand and France the public expenditure on childhood care and education is around 1% (where the top is reached by Iceland that invests 1,8% of its GDP in that kind of services), it is lower than 0,5% in

countries like Japan, Turkey, Portugal, Estonia and the United States (OECD, 2016e). In it important to underline that the role of local governments is often central in financing, and sometimes also in providing, childcare services (OECD, 2016e). A graphical representation of the percentage of GDP spent in childcare and pre-primary education by each OECD country in 2013 is reported in Figure 1.4.

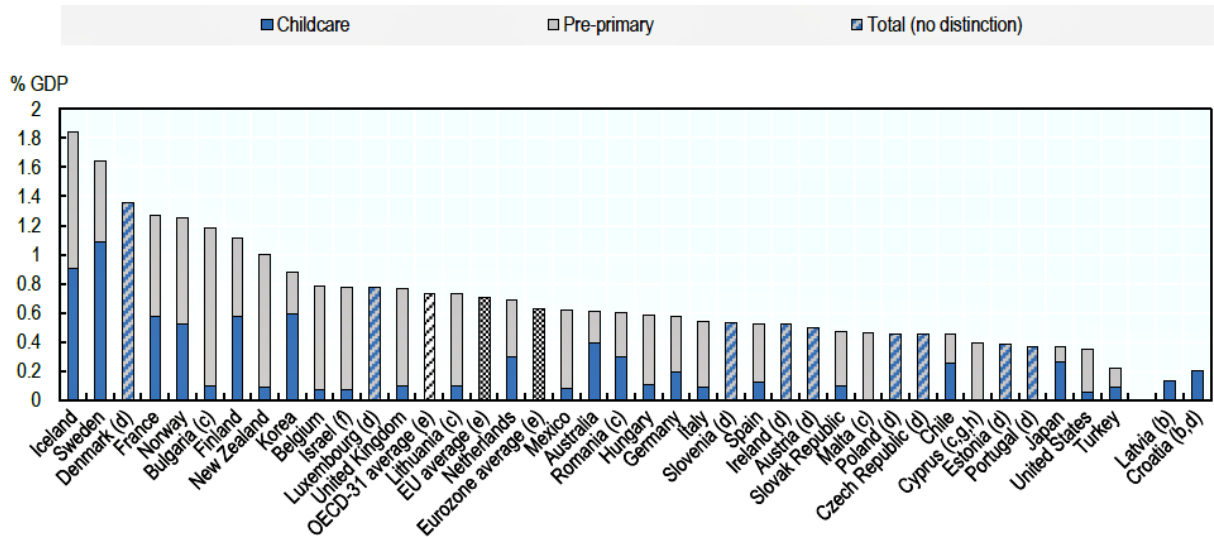


Figure 1.4 – Public expenditure on childcare and pre-primary education and total public expenditure on early childhood education and care, as a % of GDP, 2013. *Source:* OECD (2016e).

To sum up, while public expenditures to sustain families -and in particular mothers- is significantly developed in the Nordic countries, in some eastern countries and in France, there is generally a low level of investments in Anglo-Saxon and continental countries, just as it is in southern Europe (Torres *et al.*, 2007). Also, the literature focused on work-care balance has been interested in the relation between maternity benefits and childcare services as a key to successfully reconcile parenthood and employment (Torres *et al.*, 2007).

Finally, it could be noteworthy to mention the case of Belgium, where it exists an additional type of leave, a right given to employees to break from employment for childcare or other personal reasons. It was defined by Moss (2014) as a “career break”, a one-year leave that can be increased up to five years maximum and that could be considered as an “innovative and unique entitlement” (Moss, 2014, p. 19).

This widespread movement toward more favourable and flexible leave policies is comprehensible if we consider both the current EU directive and the International Labour Organization (ILO) convention on maternity, paternity and parental leave in general (OECD, 2017b). In particular, “the European Parliament has been very vocal in supporting more generous leave policies, as exemplified by its 2010 amendment of the Commission proposal on the 2008 Maternity Leave Directive, which aimed at extending the period of leave by two weeks and adding provisions for paternity leave that did not exist in the original Commission proposal” (Prpic, 2017, p. 7). Furthermore, European Parliament adopted a *Resolution on creating labour market conditions favourable for work-life balance* (2016/2017(INI)), which aimed at a higher maternity protection, a more developed and spread paternity leave, a better coordination among the different types of leave, an extension in terms of time for the minimum parental leave (from four to six months), and a higher financial compensation (Prpic, 2017). Finally, the Women’s Rights and Gender Equality Committee shed light on the fact that there is an unsatisfactory usage of leave by men and it asked for new proposals focused on improving the work/life balance as part of the Commission Work Programme 2017 (Prpic, 2017).

For what concerns the situation outside the Europe, the ILO is working on the improvement of maternity rights and it is also influencing toward this direction the EU policy-making; specifically, ILO suggested 18 weeks as minimum time for maternity leave, and stated that leaves are a delicate issue, due to the fact that they are linked to health outcomes both for mothers and children (Prpic, 2017). If the policies about maternity and paternity leave among EU Member States are various and quite different, the one concerning the parental leave are even more complex: the European directives require that each Member State provides at least four months of parental leave, and this principle is respected by all the countries and fully overcome in some of them (e.g. in Slovakia and Hungary, where the period of leave could last until the child is three years old) (Prpic, 2017).

Among the last reforms that cover also the theme of family leave policies, the Jobs Act put in place in Italy in 2017 must be mentioned (L. May 22nd, 2017, n. 81). One of the primary goals that the government has established is the reconciliation between women’s life time and working time and the promotion of ever-innovative business welfare systems (Lavoro, M. D., n.d.). The Jobs Act therefore goes in this direction, particularly with regard to maternity protection and the enhancement of parental experience. Besides, self-employed workers finally will be able to benefit from parental leave; mothers registered with the “gestione separata INPS”

(a sort of special fund for self-employed workers) will be more protected, and to adopted or foster parents will be granted their rights to parental leave or to enforce the prohibition of night work (Lavoro, M. D., n.d.). Moreover, the Act covers also the evolving need for more flexibility, guaranteeing less rigid working hours, teleworking, and the possibility of parental leave on a per hour basis with the aim to merge the personal needs of workers, including self-employed, and business enterprises (Lavoro, M. D., n.d.).

A brief in-depth analysis of the United States’ policies regarding leave policies could be useful in order to complete the overall picture of the situation in this field. As already mentioned, the United States are the only country that does not offer a statutory entitlement to paid leave; however, in recent times the willingness to introduce new policies in this area has emerged in the election campaign of Hillary Clinton. In the article *The enormous ambition of Hillary Clinton’s child-care plan* published by The Washington Post (2016), it is written that “Clinton’s child-care proposal follows her push for paid family leave and universal preschool”. This claim was probably determined by an increasing attention given to the relation between work and family issues: from a survey did by the Department of Labor between 1999 and 2000, for example, it came to light that 3.5 million people in the US wanted leave for family or medical reasons but could not take it; the explanation was that almost 80% of those who did not take the leave could not afford to do so (Ray, Gornick, & Schmitt, 2010). A clear picture of the American situation on the theme of parental leave appears from Figure 1.5.

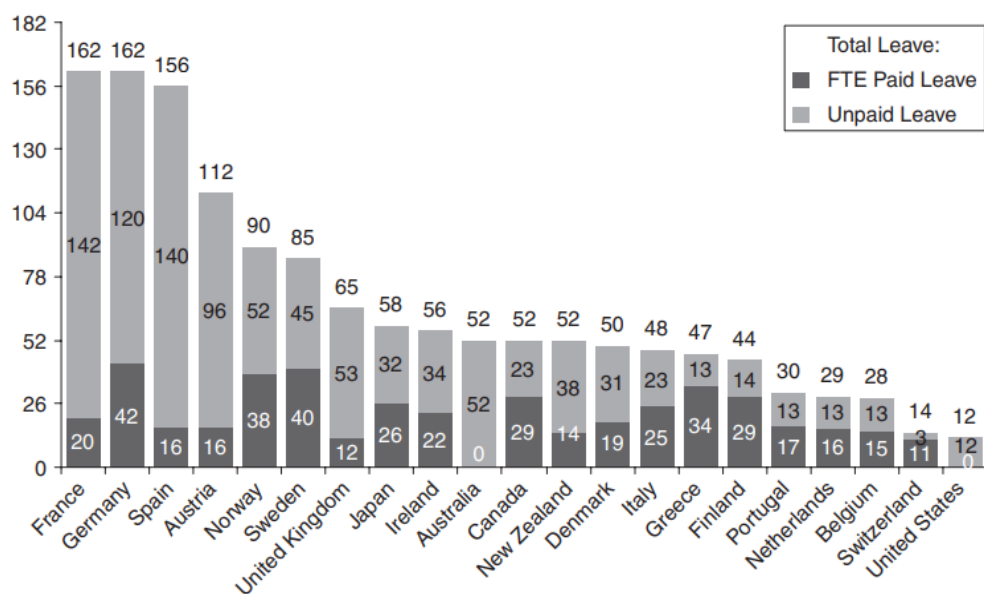


Figure 1.5 – Total and FTE paid leave for mothers in couples, in weeks.
Sources: Ray, Gornick, & Schmitt (2010); Ray (2008).

As illustrated also in Figure 1.5, there are currently no statutory paid leaves in the United States; the Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993 (29 U.S.C. § 2601) represents the only legislative attempt to respond to the demand of workers concerning the children' and elderly parents' care. It requires that "all employers, including States, grant employees conditional leave for personal and family medical emergencies" (Simmons, 2000, p. 350) and in particular it allows employees with specific formal prerequisites to take a maximum of 12 weeks of unpaid leave in order to take care of the employee, spouse, parent, or child, or for pregnancy, or for adoption or temporary care of a child. However, even if the Congress passed this Act because workers wanted leave policies in order for women and men to reconcile work and home needs, an important aspect is that it falls into the unpaid leaves category (Simmons, 2000). Just four states of America by 2016 have integrated this law with other additional family leave provisions: California, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and New York (National Partnership for Women & Families, 2015). Considering all these aspects, it is possible to observe how the American situation is still hugely different from the one characterizing OECD and European countries in terms of child-related leave policies.

It could be also interesting to note that in some of the countries in which there exists a parental leave, but it is not sufficiently compensated (65% of the minimum monthly wage in the country is considered the threshold), other arrangements are adopted to help families to find a good work and home life balance (European Commission *et al.*, 2014). For instance, parents may decide to combine the parental leave with a part-time work after the period of break; in an Eurostat survey (2013), it is reported that in 2011 in the EU the 32% of working women that had one child under 6 years old had a part-time job, and this percentage generally grows as the number of children increases (European Commission *et al.*, 2014). This decision is made more frequently by women: in fact, even if employment rates tend to be similar for males and females when they are in their twenties, their path diverges when they become parents (OECD, 2011b). Indeed, in numerous countries women labour participation rate falls when they have young children, and this sharp choice between home and work is particularly accentuated in Asian OECD countries (Asian Development Bank, 2015; OECD, 2011b).

In conclusion, it appears quite intuitive that even if all employed mothers take a paid time free from work during the first period after their child's birth, the entity of this leave and the different behaviours of mothers after that period strongly depend on the differences in parental leave provisions and on the childcare support's policies at country level (OECD,

2011b). Also, regardless the parenthood of workers, the increasing desire to balance work and home life is turning the demand for part-time jobs into an appealing option for a lot of employees (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014).

Another central theme in the field of family-friendly policies is the management of the elder's care and the family-leave provisions in this specific case. Indeed, aside from maternity, paternity and parental leave rights, employees may be entitled to more days of leave that will allow them to reconcile their work and family commitments; in particular, some of these provisions are specifically meant to allow and support the care of elderly people in the household (OECD, 2010). Most of the OECD countries offer additional entitlements to leave if there are sick or ill members of the family, but the extent of these leaves is very different from state to state (OECD, 2016d). In the majority of cases, are considered "family members" only the partners or spouses, parents and in some country the siblings; just few countries (for instance Netherlands, Austria and Sweden) include in the sphere of applicability also household members in a broader and more general sense (OECD, 2016d). Generally, these types of leave are divided in two categories: short-terms leaves that are put in place in case of a non-serious illness, and long-term leaves, that are requested in case of serious or terminal illness of a family member; in both cases the leave is provided on a "per episode" basis (OECD, 2016d). The nature of the leave (paid or unpaid) vary significantly from country to country, even if normally short-term entitlements are paid while longer-term leaves for serious or terminal illness of a family member are less likely to be paid. Nevertheless, in both cases there are some exceptions: for instance, in Greece, France, Japan, Belgium, the United Kingdom and the Unites States leaves included in the first category are unpaid (OECD, 2016d). On the other hand, in Belgium workers that take long-term leaves because they have to care for a seriously ill family member can have the right to receive lump-sum payments for a maximum of one year; again, the care leave is unpaid in Germany, but employees can obtain from the Federal Office for the Family and Civil Engagement an interest-free loan if certain formal conditions are satisfied (OECD, 2016d). In addition, Japanese workers can take a family care leave for a maximum period of 93 days during the entire life of each subject member of the family in order to care for a spouse, elderly parents or other family members due to serious illness or disability; in that case, the leave is paid at 40% of his/her earnings (Moss, 2014).

The theme of elderly care is destined to become a central issue in future societies, considering above all that the decrease in fertility rate that is taking place in the last few years may mean in the near future a higher use of professional care in old age. Moreover, the growing number of divorced and separated parents may lead to increasing difficulties in nurturing enduring relationships with children, that consequently could diminish the willingness to provide informal care by family members within the kin network (Haber Kern, 2011). Eventually, there is another aspect that should be considered by current legislations: in most of the OECD countries, only close members of the family are entitled for care leaves; however, this limitation does not reflect the changes that the family structure is experiencing in recent years. In particular, more and more families are assuming non-traditional family forms and a solution that could be further developed to this phenomenon is the possibility to offer an extending care-leave entitlement to members of the household in general and beyond, or to permit the transfer of care leave rights (OECD, 2011a).

An overall picture of the different family-friendly arrangements and welfare state regimes aimed at reallocating time and responsibilities during adults' working life is drawn in the table in the Appendix 1.

1.4 CONCLUSIONS ON THE INTERDEPENDENCE BETWEEN PRIVATE LIFE AND CAREER DECISIONS

Taking into consideration all these changes that are currently shaping our societies, and the shifting in values that will be decisive in the future policy-making process of countries, the main goal of this work is to analyse if and in which way some elements of the private life of workers would have a significant influence on career decisions, with a focus on individual attitudinal and behavioural aspects.

The issue is particularly relevant also because several studies observed that employees who are not able to manage in a proper way their work and personal life perform less effectively and show a lower commitment and perceived satisfaction with respect to others (Abendroth & Den Dulk, 2011; Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002; Crouter, 1984). Moreover, conflicts and tensions between these two spheres may cause the decline in birth rates, discrimination against women in the labour market and limitations on the quality of life (Allen *et al.*, 2000). In a study

carried out by Alhazemi and Ali, the work/life balance is defined as “a wide concept which includes appropriate equilibrium between career and aspiration on one hand, compared with pleasure, vacation, and family life on the other” (2016, p. 74). Starting from this premise, the authors stated that the presence of this so-called work/life balance is fundamental in the delineation of the individual performance at home as in personal life; indeed, a worker with a good work/life balance could participate in a better and significant way to the growth and success of the firm itself (Alhazemi & Ali, 2016).

Finally, Mitchell and colleagues (2001) pointed out the fact that leaving a job is particularly costly both for individuals and organizations, and it is therefore essential to understand how to retain valuable employees. In the article emerged quite clearly that people will be willing to stay in a company if they are satisfied with their job and if they are committed to their company (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001). Thereafter, a body of empirical research cited by the authors suggests that many nonwork factors are very important for the level of attachment, and therefore retention and turnover avoidance; specifically, these “off-the-job factors” (family emotional attachments, interactions between work and family, conflict between the roles in the two latter domains, and the presence of children and/or a spouse) were actually more significative predictors of leaving a job than, for instance, organizational commitment (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001).

In conclusion, the growing participation of women in the labour market, the increasing number of dual-earner couples and the consequent difficulties in managing caregiving responsibilities (both for children and/or other family members), in conjunction with a heightened importance attributed to the balance between work and private life and a raising demand for flexible jobs (in terms of working time and place) determined a fade of the boundaries between work and home (Allen *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, the fact that most of the employees’ careers are deeply influenced by their home situation and experiences (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010), “ignoring the connections between career and home limits our understanding of career dynamics for a sizeable segment of the workforce” (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014, p.362).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH QUESTION

After having analysed in brief the historical development over the years of the topic that we are dealing with, and after having understood the context in which the study currently takes place, it could be useful to deepen the different points of view that researchers adopted dealing with the complex relationship between work and family domains. Thereafter, there will be presented the main research questions and the proposed model under investigation.

2.1 LITERATURE REVIEW: THE DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVES OF RESEARCHERS

As introduced in chapter one, starting more or less from the 1970s until today, several approaches were developed in order to understand and explain the relationship between the two spheres of work and family in adults' life. As a consequence, different -and sometimes opposite- theories and models were born to explain this baffling phenomenon called "work/family interdependence". Perhaps, the first element to be defined is the definition that was given to the two entities under analysis by researchers in this field of studies, since they are not static and clearly identified in all the investigations.

Greenhaus and Powell outlined the concept of family situation as a set of “family-related pressures, demands, responsibilities, or needs that call for the attention of a focal individual and have potential implications for the well-being of the individual's family” (2012, p. 248). Among these variables, it could be found the fact of being married (or in a long-term relationship) or not; the absence/presence and number of children and their age; hypothetical responsibilities toward elderly family members or close parents or friends; the medical, psychological, social, and financial needs of members of the family; the career orientation of the partners; and the dual-earning family nature (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). As it could be noticed, these variables of the family situation that influence work decisions belong to two main categories: structural characteristics that describe the family unit, and perceived needs of family members (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Moreover, Bratcher (1982) highlight that family is in most of the cases the main and most powerful “emotional system” we belong to during our entire life, and it determines and shapes its path and outcomes, including working experiences.

For what concerns the work sphere, there are diverse opinions regarding the definitions of “work” and “career”. In particular, it has been said that the difference between a job and a career depends on the number of working hours per week (forty in the former case and sixty in the latter); however, the most recognised definition seems to be the one proposed by Greenhaus and Kossek (2014), which moves in the opposite direction stating that it does not depend on the number of hours spent working. On the contrary, they view the career simply as “the evolution of work experiences over the life course” (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014, p. 362), and in this way the restrictive limit that has historically characterize the definition of career (as high-commitment, long working hours, rapid promotions, and stability in an occupation) was rejected, and every person involved in work-related activities could say to have his or her own career.

Given these premises, the following literature review will deal with both the concepts of family, work, and career; particularly, it will be illustrated how researches studied the nature and the extent of the interactions between these domains. Afterwards, it will be discussed also why and how their complex balance is nowadays receiving more and more attention by scholars.

Starting from the second half of the XX century, the relationship between work and home life was analysed in various research themes that developed within the work-family arena. Indeed, different studies and empirical researches have served as theoretical basis in order to develop the two most recognised and dominant concepts in the connected literature: the work-family conflict (WFC) and the work-family enrichment (WFE) (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). Shortly before Kanter in the book *Work and Family in the United States* officially dismantled the “myth of separate worlds”, that at that time was considered “the most prevalent sociological position on work and family” (1977, p. 8), a new and fertile branch of research that were not built on notions of work and family as separate life spheres has started to emerge (Kossek & Lambert, 2004). After that, the number of papers regarding the work/family relationship increased swiftly, and from the Eighties until the first decade of the XXI century the PsychInfo database pointed out 1800 citations connected with the field of work/family interdependence (Colombo & Ghislieri, 2008). Some examples of early researches that highlighted the existence of a bidirectional influence between work and family are the ones of Near, Rice, and Hunt, that stated that “it remains plausible that various aspects of work influence a wide range of individual attitudes, behaviors, and experiences in other domains of life (e.g., family life)” (1980, p. 416). Other authors that explored this research field were Crouter (1984), that defined his paper as an exploratory investigation of the family’s impact on the workplace; and Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) that once again underlined the fact that there was a growing belief that work and family domains are actually interdependent.

Clearly, I cannot provide in this short chapter an exhaustive review on the issue, since the literature is quite broad and branched in several fields of analysis (e.g., sociology, management and organizational behaviour, economics, psychology, family studies), and it is articulated according to different perspectives (e.g., conflict, enrichment, balance). Indeed, starting from more or less the 1970s, a lot of theories have been developed and tested, and the perspectives adopted were many. So that, I will focus on models that belong to the fields of management and organizational behaviour related to individual behaviours, that at the end determine personal choices in the work-family arena.

2.1.1 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT: DEFINITION AND MAIN CAUSES

Essentially, as previously mentioned, the theories that were developed in the last decades can be categorized in two main groups, depending on their conception of the work-family interface. The models that belong to the group of work-family conflict are fundamentally based on the assumption that the engagement in different roles (each one with its particular set of needs and expectations) might cause in some people an inter-role conflict (Kahn *et al.*, 1964). In fact, Greenhaus and Beutell defined the work-family conflict as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (1985, p. 77), and specifically this pressure, that renders difficult to reconcile the two roles, gives birth to three foremost forms of conflicts: a time-based conflict, a strain-based conflict, and a behaviour-based conflict. The first source of conflict is caused by the fact that the different roles may be in competition for an adults’ time: indeed, the time that he or she would spend on actions related to one role, normally cannot be devoted to actions connected with another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The strain-based conflict hypothesizes that work stressors may produce anxiety, tension, depression, fatigue, apathy, and irritability in other roles; in this sense, the roles are incompatible due to the fact that the pressure or strain originated by one role makes it difficult to satisfy the demand coming from another (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Eventually, the last component is the behaviour-based conflict: it emerges when patterns of behaviour that are appropriate for one role are not compatible with the expectations of other roles, and therefore adjustments by the individual are required; if a person is unable to do these adjustments, he or she will be likely to experience an inter-role conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

More concretely, Pleck, Staines and Lang (1980) affirmed that there are some characteristics of “behaviour involvement” that are significantly more likely to provoke a work-family conflict, which are a demanding work schedule (especially the afternoon shift), a high number of working hours a week, frequent overtime, and psychological or physical high commitment. In a specular way, the number of hours per week dedicated to family activities and responsibilities are positively related to the value of family-to-work conflict, since as we mentioned before, the influence is bidirectional in nature (Frone, 2003). Psychological involvement represents another variable able to stimulate an interference between the two domains of work and family (in both the directions); indeed, Frone (2003) stated that high levels

of psychological involvement in a specific role (e.g. work) might lead one to be mentally concerned about that role even if physically located in the space of the second role (e.g. family), and this overlap could make it complicate to perform efficiently a task required by the second role. A solution might be found in social support provided both by work and family: in fact, it has been demonstrated to be a potential element for the reduction of the work-family conflict.

In addition, albeit most researchers have focused on the conflict generated by the inter-role environment, some other have begun to investigate the personality traits as relevant components of the work-family conflict (Frone, 2003). In particular, the author identified different characteristics like extraversion, hardiness, mastery, positive affectivity, as personal resources that may help the individual in coping with the problem of managing roles at work and at home, thus avoiding the likelihood (or simply reducing the level) of work-family conflict. On the other side, different personality characteristics such as neuroticism and negative affectivity may have an opposite effect on the work-family conflict, increasing its likelihood, since that specific traits are signs of a deficit in the ability to avoid problems at work and home (Frone, 2003).

Finally, Allen and colleagues (2000) tried to produce a comprehensive review of the possible negative outcomes of the work-family conflict, revising also different empirical analysis. Some years later, Frone (2003) drew some conclusions in the definition of this negative outcomes related to the level of work-family conflict perceived by workers both in the work domain (i.e. poor job performance, job dissatisfaction, and job withdrawal), in the family domain (e.g. poor family performance, family dissatisfaction, and family withdrawal) and in individual domain (unhealthy behaviours, and poor mental and physical health). The same study based on the three categories of potential outcomes was done almost a decade later by Amstad and colleagues (2011); in particular, in their study they provided a comprehensive representation of the relationship between both directions of work-family conflict, and they analysed also other domain-unspecific outcomes (e.g. related to physical and psychological health). A picture of all the tested relationships is shown in Figure 2.1.

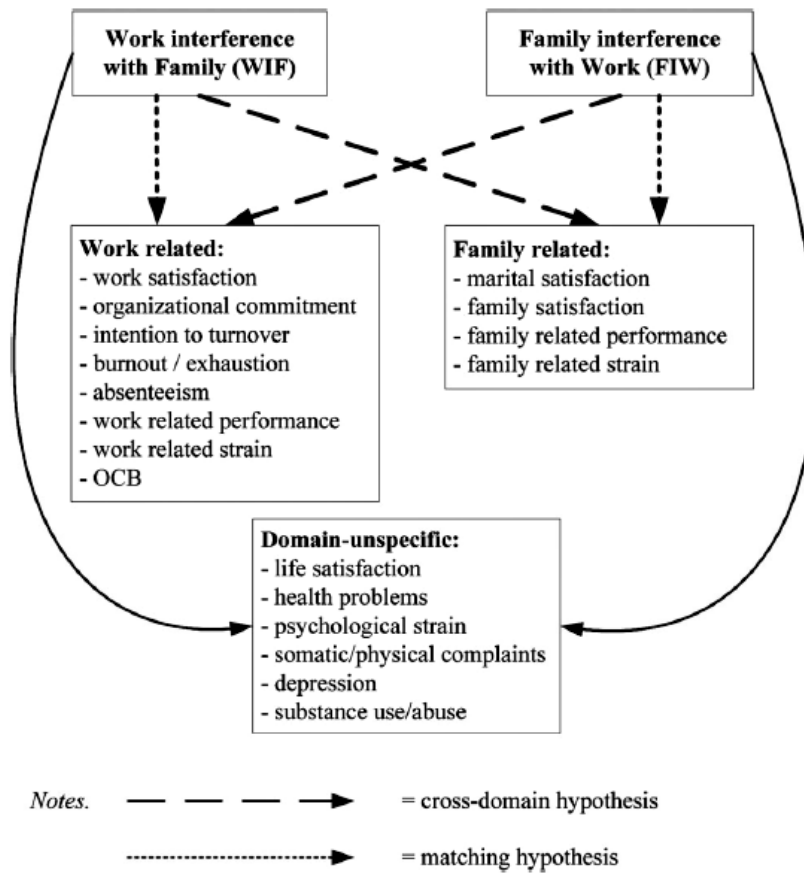


Figure 2.1 – Framework of study variables and hypotheses in the study of work-family interference and family-work interference.
Source: Amstad and colleagues (2011).

The results of the meta-analysis confirmed the assumption of Amstad and colleagues (2011) about the relationship between work-family conflict and the related outcomes; the only variable that resulted non-significant was found in the family-work type of interference and was the “family performance”. A clear example of this interdependence between work and home can be seen in most of the dual-earner couples: they often experience a lack of time (especially if they have young children), and consequently they tend to spend less time taking care of the family (in particular of children and/or parents) and enjoying less leisure activities; and the conflict resulting from this time constraint (in conjunction with strain-based and behaviour-based constraint) may have important consequences in their relationship and lifestyle (Dai, 2016).

2.1.2 WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT: DEFINITION AND MAIN BENEFITS

Even though the work-family conflict has been a dominant topic in researches about work and family domains, individuals can try to minimize this role conflict through an effective transitioning from one role to another (Allen *et al.*, 2014). Indeed, starting from the Eighties, some researchers have also explored the process by which the interaction between one sphere and the other could strengthen or enhance the outcomes in one (or both) of them, going against the negative role interference expressed by the work-family conflict theory (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). Over the years, many theories suggesting a positive relationship between work and family were born; concepts labelled as positive spillover (Frone, 2003; Crouter, 1984; Piotrkowski & Crits-Christoph, 1981; Staines, 1980), enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Sieber, 1974), facilitation (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Mark, 2000), and compensation (Lambert, 1990; Staines, 1980; Champoux, 1978) emerged from different studies, and shed light on the possible positive interdependencies between the two domains (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). This emerging trend characterized also several studies in psychological (Lenzenweger, 2004) and in organizational behaviour fields (Luthans, 2002), which were focused on strengths rather than weaknesses in understanding the complexity of multiple roles interdependencies. In addition to the conflict-related concepts that were already mentioned, a brief review of some of the main theories in the positivist perspective might be useful to understand the different facets that characterize the relationship between work and family.

First of all, the most admired and recognised perspective on the relationship between work and family is the spillover theory, which postulates that employees transfer the emotions, attitudes, abilities, and behaviours that they develop at work into their home life and vice versa (Alhazemi & Ali, 2016; Crouter, 1984; Piotrkowski & Crits-Christoph, 1981; Staines, 1980). This process can be positive or negative, but the common opinion in the literature is that the spillover model is based on the assumption that there is a positive relationship between work and family; in other words, “a change in one domain leads to a parallel change in another domain, such as suggested by a positive correlation between job and family values” (Frone, 2003, p. 147).

Indeed, the concept of spillover is often associated to the construct of enrichment, and it is generally related to the idea of “positive influence” (Carlson *et al.*, 2006); moreover, many studies suggested that having multiple roles influence in a positive way the individual wellbeing (Colombo & Ghislieri, 2008). This perspective is based on the theory of Sieber (1974), that goes against the role conflict theory stating that there are instead several multiple benefits and resources that can be obtained through the participation in different roles. In particular, Greenhaus and Powell proposed a new theoretical model, defining the work-family enrichment broadly as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role. Work-to-family enrichment occurs when work experiences improve the quality of family life, and family-to-work enrichment occurs when family experiences improve the quality of work life” (2006, p.73). More specifically, work-family enrichment takes place when resources (e.g. physiological, psychological, knowledge, skills, and abilities, developed, social capital, flexibility, and material resources) are not considered as limited, but rather the resources generated in one role are considered capable of improving the performance in the other role (Maertz, Jr. & Boyar, 2011).

This synergy can occur through two main mechanisms: the instrumental and the affective mechanisms (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). In the first case, it occurs when there is a direct transfer of resources from the Role One to the Role Two, improving the performance of the latter. On the other hand, the affective mechanism takes place when positive feelings that were generate in Role One have a positive influence on Role Two, through an increase in energy, in a higher focus, or in a helping behaviour (Maertz, Jr. & Boyar, 2011; Rothbard, 2001). Furthermore, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggested that also the personal fit and the role salience between the two roles could strengthen both these transfers (affective and instrumental). Finally, starting from the definition given by Greenhaus and Powell (2006), Carlson and colleagues (2006) have hypothesized a multidimensional measure of both work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment. For describing the first relation, they identified three main components: (personal) development, affect (i.e. mood and attitude gains), and capital (i.e. psychosocial resources). The elements of the family-to-work enrichment, instead, are affect, development, and efficiency (i.e. resource gains of time and efficiency) (Maertz, Jr. & Boyar, 2011; Carlson *et al.*, 2006).

A theory complementary to work-family enrichment approach and spillover theory is the compensation theory theorized by Staines (1980), which affirms that “an inverse relationship exists between work and family such that people make differing investments in each in an attempt to make up for what one is missing in the other” (Clark, 2000, p. 749). For instance, it could be the case of an individual with an unsatisfying family life that participate in working activities in order to try to gain satisfactions to replace -and in some ways, fill the gap left by- the failure in his or her personal life, and vice versa (Staines, 1980). In particular, two main forms of compensation were distinguished in the literature: the first one occurs when a person decreases his or her involvement in the domain that is less satisfying in order to be able to increase it in a more satisfying domain (Lambert, 1990), while the second compensation happens when a person remedies to dissatisfaction in one sphere by searching rewards in another sphere (Champoux, 1978). Some authors, however, consider the compensation model as a negative one, which postulate an adverse relationship between work and family, since an experienced dissatisfaction in one role (life domain, such as family), may cause a reduction of time and energy devoted to that role, favouring instead the second life domain (e.g. work) in an effort to make up for the lack of satisfying experiences in the first domain, and this process creates interdependence of work and home lives (Colombo & Ghislieri, 2008; Frone, 2003).

At the beginning of the XXI century, Grzywacz and Mark (2000) developed a different perspective about the facilitating influence that may arise from work and family interaction. This work-family facilitation “represents the extent to which participation at work (or home) is made easier by virtue of the experiences, skills, and opportunities gained or developed at home (or work)” (Frone, 2003, p. 145). As well as the work-family conflict, Frone affirmed that also the work-family facilitation is bidirectional in nature, and it means that it can be possible that work facilitates family life (work-to-family facilitation), but also that family facilitates working life (family-to-work facilitation).

After this brief analysis of the literature in the work-family field, it is impossible to deny that there is an incredible “functional commonality and conceptual overlap” among all the theories stating a positive relationship between work and family: in particular, all the positive spillover, enhancement, positive compensation, and positive compensation are based on the assumption that there are numerous multiple benefits and resources that can be obtained through the participation in different roles, and that the interdependence between work and home domains has a positive influence on the individuals’ life (Maertz, Jr. & Boyar, 2011). Indeed,

notwithstanding some conceptual shades that differ among these positive perspectives, they all assume that the most important element is the transfer of resources and/or emotions from one domain to the other, and this transfer leads to a better and more effective functioning in the second domain (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014).

Once all these different models and perspectives have been analysed, it is important to brought them together in order to develop a complete and dynamic understanding of how work and family life influence each other (Frone, 2003). But still, they do not adequately explain, predict and help to solve the issues that people face when dealing with these two domains' management, and in particular how individuals can handle responsibilities in work and family spheres (Clark, 2000). As observed by Clark, the majority of the researches in this field have been atheoretical, and they have been focused only on explaining the relationship between work and family, rather than trying to propose a way through which shape this relation in a positive way; moreover, the author affirmed that spillover and compensation theories have the huge limit of considering individuals as reactive only, while actually they could engage also in active behaviours with the purpose of shaping and modelling their environments.

2.2 THE RISING IMPORTANCE OF WORK/FAMILY BALANCE

In this chaotic and dynamic research field, while scholars were still trying to understand the direction and the strength of the interdependence between family and work, it has emerged another related concept: the work/life balance. As already defined and deepened in chapter one, starting from the XXI century, the value that individuals attributed to the work/life balance has begun to rise, especially due to substantial demographic and behavioural changes in the worldwide societies (e.g. increasing participation of women and mothers in the workforce; consequent increasing participation of dual career couples in the labour force; increasing child and elder care burden; increasing health and well-being considerations) (Naithani, 2009).

All these factors, together with the development of a long hour culture, frequent unpaid overtime, changing work time and work intensification, caused in workers a problem of incompatibility between work and personal life (Naithani, 2009). Indeed, a study carried out by Beauregard (2007) revealed that the for the 49% of UK working population, balancing work and family commitments was a real issue and that growing priority is placed on balancing work-

related activities and the rest of life. This rising attention might be determined also by the fact that right before the new century (and during the Great Recession caused by the financial crisis of 2007-2008), a lot of young workers have seen their parents experience job losses after years of hard work, long hours, and loyal service (Beauregard, 2007; Loughlin & Barling, 2001). Consequently, the authors supposed that this new generation of workers is less prone to make such a similar sacrifice at the expense of family or leisure time, and that they will be more interested in pursuing a more balanced lifestyle rather than achieving more traditional work goals (Beauregard, 2007; Loughlin & Barling, 2001).

A premise about the definition and interpretation given by scholars to the term “work/life balance” should be done though, since the concept has been seen through different perspectives by different authors. Indeed, even if some researchers described work/life balance as an equilibrium that allows individuals to maintain an overall sense of harmony in life (Clarke, 2004), or a satisfactory and well-functioning integration between life at work and at home, with a reduced role conflict (Clark, 2000), other authors such as Frone (2003), Greenhaus and colleagues (2003), and Clark and colleagues (2004), consider the concept of work/life balance only as a “work/family balance” or as a “work/family fit”. Moreover, while on one hand Darcy and colleagues (2012) defined the work/life balance in a general way, stating that it includes “family, community, recreation and personal time”, on the other hand Duxbury (2004) defined it as a combination of role overload, work to family interference and family to work interference, and also Greenhaus and Allen (2006) stated that it represents the degree to which the roles of work and family spheres are well-matched with the personal priorities of people - both in terms of satisfaction and effectiveness- (AlHazemi & Ali, 2016). In the following analysis, it will be adopted the perspective of Frone (2003), Greenhaus and colleagues (2003), Clark and colleagues (2004), Duxbury (2004), and Greenhaus and Allen (2006), and thus the term “work/life balance” will be considered as corresponding to “work/family balance”.

In detail, the literature review suggest that the variable called work/family balance is actually a multidimensional concept, that needs to be studied both in terms of direction of influence (work-to-family versus family-to-work) and type of effect (conflict on one side and facilitation on the other side) (Frone, 2003). A scheme of these dimensions of influence that determine the outcome of the work/family balance is reported in Figure 2.2.

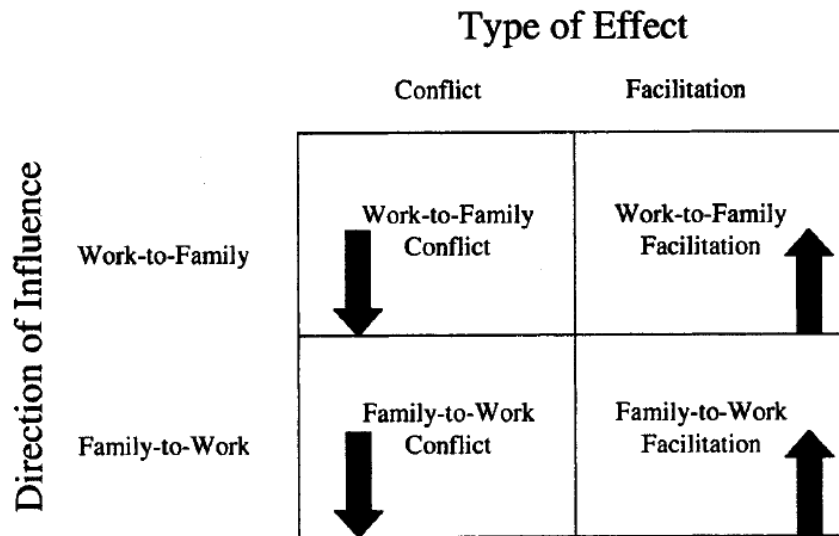


Figure 2.2 – Dimensions of work-family balance.
Source: Frone (2003).

Moreover, during the last two decades the theme of the work/life balance has become a societal norm and a life value that is attracting the interest of a growing number of people (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; AlHazemi & Ali, 2016; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014), especially due to the significant revolution in the work environment caused by economic uncertainty, an increase in business fierce competition, and several organizational restructurings (Alhazemi, & Ali, 2016). It is also important to underline that this phenomenon involves both workers and enterprises, and it is probably not going to fade in the near future, since this consideration has its foundation on the predictable changes that the family is passing through as well as the ones that are nowadays shaping the work environment (Amstad *et al.*, 2011). Indeed, due to the fact that attitudes and values connected with the work/family balance are determined also by the family of origin and by the exposure to current labour force's trends, and since the number of mothers under paid employment is rising, this employment path could have a significant influence on the mentality and behaviour of young women when they are dealing with the process of deciding their career choices (Beauregard, 2007; Duffield, 2002). As a matter of fact, as Beauregard said, "both young women and young men now appear to desire a more integrated approach to work and family, rather than the dominance of one area of life over the other" (2007, p. 103), and this will have clear implications for the importance attributed to the work/life balance in future careers, the ones of children grew up with different family structures and values regarding the integration of work and family domains.

Thus, considering that work/life balance is a wide concept that implies a proper equilibrium between career and aspiration on one hand, and pleasure, vacation, and family life on the other, it is fundamental for employees to find a harmonious and holistic combination of work and home experiences, matching individual behaviours with personal life priorities (Alhazemi & Ali, 2016; Bailyn *et al.*, 2001). More concretely, this means that it is essential to understand workers' considerations on their family lives while dealing with work decisions, because the relevance attributed to the quality of life outside work has become a spread principle among people (Clark, 2000). As a direct consequence, individuals are nowadays making more and more work-related decisions based on their family situation and private life elements of influence, and this mechanism happens because this kind of behaviour would help them in the achievement of a desirable work/life balance (Greenhaus & Powell, 2010). Specifically, as introduced at the beginning of this study, it has recently been coined by Greenhaus and Powell (2012) the term "family-related work decisions", that refers specifically to the phenomenon just described: the decision of employees to choose some elements of their careers depending on their family characteristics, needs, and concerns.

In particular, in the following section of the chapter, the aim is to analyse the most relevant theories that shed light on the influence that family factors have (or should have) on career decisions, since from a managerial perspective the aspects related to work-related outcomes are the more interesting ones, and because it is a concept that has often been ignored in the theoretical, work-related decision-making literature (Fouad *et al.*, 2016; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012).

2.3 THE INFLUENCE OF FAMILY ON WORK: AN EVOLUTION OF THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

Starting from the observations just made, the following part of the chapter will propose few perspectives on careers that take into account the interdependencies between work and home experiences (as previously examined) during the life course, and that are therefore appropriate especially for the contemporary carers. The adoption of perspectives that assume that there are actually interconnections between work and home spheres could help us in understanding the career paths experienced by contemporary workers (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014).

In particular, the authors stated that this attention is fueled also by the fact that technological, economic, and social changes have characterized worldwide societies in the past decades, and consequently organizational careers have been flanked by less-traditional patterns of career of modern employees. A summary of the most important changes that characterize contemporary careers can be seen in Figure 2.3.

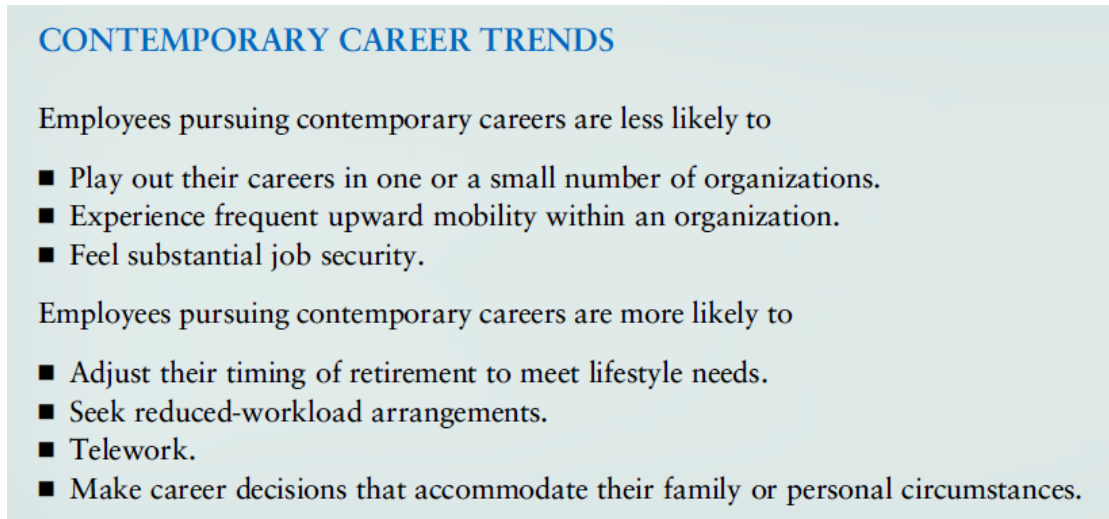


Figure 2.3 – Contemporary career trends.
Source: Greenhaus and Kossek (2014).

Actually, it exists just one branch of research in the field of organizational psychology and organizational behaviour that has investigated the interdependence between work and family domains; in fact, in spite of an increasing and already quite well-developed literature regarding the work-family relationship, organizational careers have been always analysed in isolation from the other areas of the employees' lives (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). This neglected aspect of the individuals decision-making process is although rather important, especially considering that nowadays many women, and a growing number of men, are likely to customize their careers in response to personal priorities and/or family demands (i.e. they may reduce their working hours, use telework, or take leaves in order to accommodate family or personal circumstances). Therefore, contemporary careers could be better comprehended if it is taken into consideration the way through which employees' private lives influence career decisions (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014).

In the last decades, just a handful of authors have started to examine this complex but still central theme in the fields of sociology, management and organizational behaviour, economics, psychology, and family studies. A brief literature review of the studies and theories that belong to that category are summarized below.

2.3.1 THEORIES AND OUTLOOKS OF CAREER DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

In general, researches on individuals' choices within the work-family sphere are based on the concept that each person creates and modifies his or her work and family role demands depending on the decisions he or she makes (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). In particular, the concept of "decision" has been defined as a choice that an individual makes between alternative actions when he or she -as decision maker- has enough control over the situation to have a choice (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010; Hastie, 2001).

Starting from this premise, one of the first authors that studied these emerging awareness and interest in the work/life balance caused by several social and demographic changes, was Schein (1996), that revisited his own theory of career anchors. The model is based on the idea that a person's career anchor "is his or her self-concept, consisting of 1) self-perceived talents and abilities, 2) basic values, and, most important, 3) the evolved sense of motives and needs as they pertain to the career" (Schein, 1996, p. 80). Schein also emphasized that from the time in which the self-concept has been shaped, it becomes a "stabilizing force", an anchor, and it represents the values and attitudes that a specific person is not willing to give up when making a decision. So that, beyond the original five career anchors theorized by Schein in the mid-1970's (technical/functional competence, managerial competence, security and stability, creativity, and autonomy and independence), he recently considered another element as a branch on the "security and stability" anchor: the "life style" anchor. It is not referred to economic stability like the other, but it concerns instead the stability in the personal overall life path, it is related to a harmonious integration between career and personal and family concerns in order to obtain a coherent general path, i.e. the life style (Schein, 1996). For instance, a worker that attributes importance to the life style anchor, probably is less willing to move too often for getting career advancements, but he or she would rather prefer to put down roots in a certain location, placing higher priority on the work/life balance (Beauregard, 2007).

This tendency toward more autonomy and concern for self, appeared quite clearly in an empirical study performed by Schein himself in the 1960s and then again in the 1980s: he observed that the 50% of his executive students that pointed out technical/functional or general managerial as primary competences of interest in the 1960s, changed its priority and selected “life style” as its first and most important career anchors in the 1980s. Then, Schein (1996) concluded his analysis stating that this increasing value attributed to autonomy and life style (as previously defined) is for sure a healthy trend, considering the way in which world is going and changing.

Few years later, Poelmans (2005) examined the nature and the extent of the influence of family on work decisions, hypothesizing an active role played by men and women. In particular, he introduced the “decision process theory”, which suggests that individuals during their life are involved in a stream of work-family decisions, and their choices made in one domain (i.e. work) are influenced by elements that characterize the other domain (i.e. family) (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010; Poelmans, 2005).

After that, Greenhaus and Powell (2012) tried to fill at least partially the lack of studies regarding the influence of family factors on a variety of work decisions; in fact, they believe that even if the understanding of this mechanism of influence is fundamental, it has largely been ignored in the theoretical literature concerning the work decision-making topic. They also specified that “overall, family factors have played a minor role in extant theory and research on decisions in the work domain despite their presumed importance” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012, p. 247). Therefore, the authors started from the decision process theory introduced by Poelmans (2005), and they recognised the role centrality of work-family decisions of individuals on their lives; moreover, they took into consideration few other theories related to the phenomenon by which employees “create and modify” their work and family role engagement through the choices they make (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). In particular, they focused on the investigations that had been done so far on the work/family conflict (Frone, 2003; Allen *et al.*, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Pleck, Staines & Lang, 1980; Kahn *et al.*, 1964) and work/family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Sieber, 1974); furthermore, they mentioned in their review the importance of the time management strategies, which state that the amount of time that an individual devotes to work or family domains and the management of that time are both related to the work/family conflict experienced by workers (Adams & Jex, 1999). Thus, they tried to provide a conceptual

framework of analysis introducing the concept of “family-relatedness of work decisions” (FRWD), with which they describe all the possible and different effects that a certain family situation may have on work-related decisions (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Greenhaus and Kossek (2014) described the family-relatedness of work decisions as a framework aimed at capturing the degree to which family characteristics (such as the number of children or the need to care for an elder family member) are considered when making work-related choices (i.e. to quit a job, to accept a promotion or to relocate), and a tool useful for identifying the steps of the decision-making process that individuals follow when they make work decisions that will have a high impact on family. In their own words, Greenhaus and Powell defined the family-relatedness of work decisions as “the extent to which an individual's decision-making process and choice of a course of action in the work domain are influenced by a family situation in order to foster a positive outcome for the family” (2012, p. 247). They also specified -as first assumption- that there is not a unique direction or a particular form of the work-related decisions, but rather that each person makes a choice characterized by a high level of family-relatedness because he/she believe that between all the alternatives, it is the best decision for the purpose of getting a positive outcome in the family domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). As second assumption, the authors stated that due to the fact that choices may be determined by numerous criteria, the actual extent to which a work-related decision is influenced by the personal family situation should be seen as a continuum (to which extent is it based on family factors) rather than a dichotomy (is it influenced by family considerations or not) (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). An example reported by Greenhaus and Powell (2012) in their paper is the case in which an employee decision of leaving a job or not might be hypothetically be determined by different factors (such as family, work, and community), and in particular family considerations may play a continuum of roles, starting from “no role” until “very significant role” in the decision that is finally made.

Specifically, Figure 2.4 represents the family-relatedness of work decisions framework proposed for understanding the influence of family characteristics and demands on work-related decisions, including the elements that moderate both the impact of family on decisions in the work field and the effect of the choice on the favourability of the outcome for the family sphere.

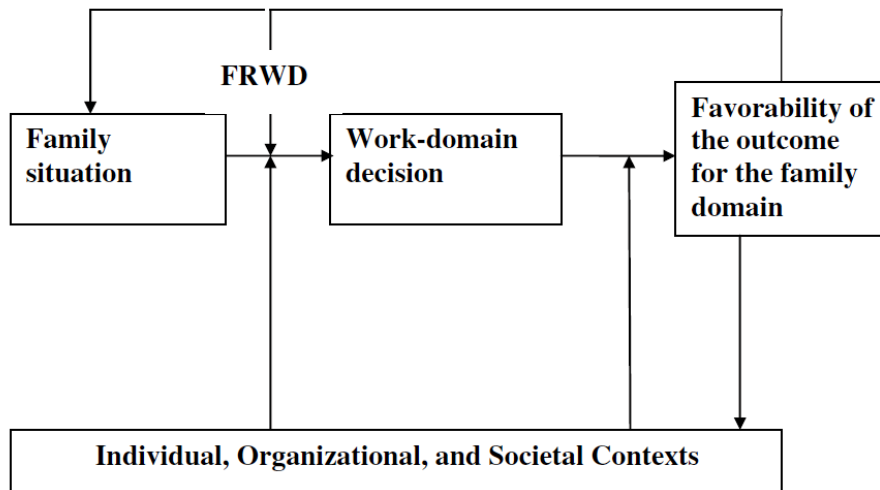


Figure 2.4 – Family-relatedness of work decisions (FRWD): a framework for examining the impact of family situations on decisions in the work domain.
Source: Greenhaus and Powell (2012).

With the term “family situation”, Greenhaus and Powell (2012) mean the set of significant responsibilities, commitments, demands, needs and pressures coming from the family domain that should not be ignored because they could lead to consequences for the welfare of the family. Essentially, these variables are related to structural features of the family unit, that includes status of the individual (if he or she is married or in a long-term relationship); the presence or absence of children, their age and amount; the responsibility within the family to care for an elder member (e.g. a parent); the different needs that family members may have (i.e. financial, medical, and psychological); and the career aspiration of the partners (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Furthermore, their conceptual framework recognizes the role of the three main levels that interfere with the strict relationship between family situation and work-domain decision: the societal, organizational, and individual level (Masterson & Hoobler, 2015; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). It is important to highlight, though, that the FRWD model differs from previous theories because it analyses the main meanings and consequences of the associations between variables of the family domain and work-related decisions, while recent review has focused solely on these associations, ignoring usually their implications (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010).

Again, the theory of the family-relatedness of work decisions (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012) has been further expanded some months after its introduction by the same authors, that suggested the different stages of the cognitive processes through which individuals pass when they make career choices considering their family situation (Powell & Greenhaus, 2012). In addition to that, in 2014, Zhang and Foley developed a new model starting from the FRWD theory: in particular, their perspective of “prioritizing work for family” (PWF) is aimed at understanding how Chinese employees manage the work-family interface. Basically, they came to the conclusion that even if for Western countries the work-related decisions made by individuals should take into consideration the family members’ demands and expectations (Powell and Greenhaus, 2012; Greenhaus and Powell, 2012), the Chinese employees are subjected to a stronger sense of obligation to their family members (such as partner, parents, and children) (Zhang & Foley, 2014). Finally, Masterson and Hoobler (2015) reexamined the family-relatedness of work decisions model, focusing on the individual level: indeed, they underlined that there are new ways in which employees (both men and women, particularly if dual-income couples) interpret their family roles, and the implications that this identity influences their work-related choices. The study, hence, was aimed at discovering how contemporary workers construe their family identity -focusing in particular on a couple level of analysis- and deepening the exploration of the FRWD theory (Masterson & Hoobler, 2015). Essentially, the authors tried to develop the concept of “family roles”, that individuals can mean in different ways: “care-based roles reflect relational values, while career-based roles encompass achievement-oriented values. To this point, it is important to note that both women and men can construe their family identity in terms of care and/or career, reflecting shifts in societal understandings of gender roles” (Masterson & Hoobler, 2015, p. 78).

The last theory related to the family-work interface and the influence of the former over the latter was developed in 2017: Schooreel, Shockley, and Verbruggen put in evidence that if we consider the societal changes in the labour market and in life values (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014), it is quite intuitive to understand why the number of men and women that have to find a balance between work and their other roles and responsibilities has grown terribly. Therefore, the most immediate way for them to simplify the reconciliation of their multiple roles and commitments is to consider family issues and demands when making job-related decisions (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Previous researches have already partially dealt with this issue, but Schooreel, Shockley, and Verbruggen (2017),

tried to extend this concept and introduce and develop the idea of “home-to-career interference”. In particular, they defined this interference as a negative factor, stating that it represents “the extent to which people perceive that their private life has constrained their career decisions to date” (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017, p. 125). However, their analysis was limited in nature, since the unique aim of their research was to explore the implications of the home-to-career interference on the career satisfaction of dual-earner couples; in the study, Schooreel, Shockley, and Verbruggen (2017) actually got to the conclusion that home-to-career interference occurs and it could induce a lower individual’s career satisfaction. Indeed, they called for a greater investigation of the “career penalties” that can be associated with a particular type of family structure/situation, since the process which determine a certain career-related decision-making is still overlooked (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017).

2.4 THE RESEARCH QUESTION: FAMILY FEATURES AND CAREER DECISIONS

Once verified that in the last decades there has been a significant demographic and social change that shaped radically the relationship between work and family domains; that from more or less the 1970s researchers started to analyse this trend and to understand that these two spheres were actually intimately intertwined (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Greenhaus & Ten Brummelhuis, 2013); that individuals (and organizations) are more and more aware of the importance of the quality of life outside work, and are therefore increasingly interested in achieving (and supporting) a good work/family balance (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; AlHazemi & Ali, 2016; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014), it became quite intuitive to understand why a growing number of men and women are nowadays customizing their career on the basis of individual choices made to accommodate personal and/or family preferences (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Valcour & Ladge, 2008) and why in the last two decades there has been an increasing proliferation of theories linked with the issue of the influence of family on career decision-making (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Poelmans, 2005).

Starting from this overall picture, the present research aims at exploring the effects of family structure and demands on career behaviours, starting from the family-relatedness of work decisions conceptual framework developed by Powell and Greenhaus (2012). In particular, the main goal will be to understand how specific family characteristics (i.e. variables related with the size and the structure of the household; and to the time, energies, and responsibilities connected with a certain type of family unit) could predict workers' attitudes and behaviours when making career decisions (and when developing career intentions). This decision was driven also by the fact that several researchers called for further analysis in this field, that remains still poorly understood and investigated (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Lee & Maurer, 1999). Eventually, due to the fact that the FRWD model has never been tested so far, an empirical examination will be carried out in order to understand the nature, direction and extent of the influence of family in the work-related decisions making process.

CHAPTER 3

INDIVIDUAL AND COUNTRY LEVEL MODERATORS

Once defined and investigated the existing influence of elements of the family structure on individual career decisions, it is important to observe that there are other contextual variables able to affect and shape the nature, direction, and strength of this effect. In this regard, the chapter will deal with a literature review of the main theories about potential moderators of the relationship between family situations and work-related decisions; and at the end, it will be presented the complete overview of the research model.

3.1 MODERATORS OF FAMILY-RELATEDNESS OF WORK DECISIONS

First of all, an in-depth analysis of the moderators proposed by Greenhaus and Powell (2012) in their family-relatedness of work decisions theory will be carried out in order to understand which are, according to them, the main potential variables that may have an impact on the link between elements of the family domain and decisions in the work domain.

Specifically, in their conceptual model, they included individual, organizational, and societal contextual factors as moderators of the main relationship under investigation: the authors identified few factors belonging to the three level of analysis (individuals, organizations, and societies) that might moderate relations between family conditions and work decisions (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012).

Starting from the individual context, Greenhaus and Powell (2012), and Masterson and Hoobler (2015) suggested that for individuals that have a strong identification with their family role the impact of the family structure on career decisions would be stronger, since they are worried about meeting the requirements and demands of the family members, and they are concerned with their well-being. In detail, the relational identity was defined by Sluss and Ashforth as “as the nature of one’s role relationship, such as manager-subordinate and coworker-coworker. It is how role occupants enact their respective roles vis-a`-vis each other” (2007, p. 4), while relational identification was described as “the extent to which one defines oneself in terms of a given role-relationship” (2007, p.11). Given this premise, the authors observed that a stronger identification with a certain role relationship would lead to a higher connection perceived by individuals toward the relationship, and a greater enjoyment in the way in which they contribute to the well-being of the relationship itself (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Hence, individuals that feel a strong identification with family role are more willing to take into account family circumstances at the moment of making a work-related decision with respect to persons that do not identify strongly with family role relationships (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). For example, following this reasoning, a person’s strong identification with family would cause a greater desire for work/family balance, or a heightened willingness to spend time with family members and to participate more in family activities; therefore, the level of personal identification with family will strengthen (if high) or weaken (if low) the influence of the family situation on decisions in the work sphere (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Moreover, it may be interesting to note that different levels of family identity may clarify why usually family commitments have a stronger impact on work decisions of women than men (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). In addition to that, Greenhaus and Powell (2012) identified a second moderator of the relationship between family structure and work decisions: the specific organizational context in which these decisions are actually made. In particular, they analysed two main elements that could potentially influence the family-relatedness of work decisions: work demands and family-supportiveness of the workplace.

Basically, they theorized that a high-demanding job could reduce the impact of family situation on work decisions, due to the fact that workers think that they do not have the freedom to take into account nonwork factors (i.e. family) when making career decisions (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Furthermore, the family-supportiveness of the workplace is related to the level of organizational culture and supervisors' concern for family issues: specifically, when they do not display concern for family life and demands, employees as well will be encouraged to ignore their family responsibilities, therefore implying a low level of FRWD (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). As a consequence, as Greenhaus and Powell (2012) underlined, an organization that has family-supportiveness policies and culture would moderate the relationship between family situations and career decisions through a strengthening of the relation itself, while an opposite approach of the organization with respect to family support would weaken the family-relatedness of work decisions. Finally, the third contextual variable identified by Greenhaus and Powell (2012) as moderator is the societal environment: however, it has been suggested by Powell, Francesco, and Ling (2009) even though cultural characteristics affect significantly the work-family relation, they have been ignored in most of the literature reviews on the themes of work-family interface and cross-cultural organizational behaviour. First of all, it is provided an explanation of to the concept of "culture" given by Hofstede, that defined it as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (2001, p. 9). Starting from this assumption, Powell, Francesco, and Ling (2009) proposed four selected cultural variables that should be included into theories of work-family interface in order to make them more culture-sensitive and better explain the general phenomenon (i.e. individualism/collectivism, gender egalitarianism, humane orientation, specificity/diffusion). In particular, according to Greenhaus and Powell (2012), there are two of these cultural dimensions that are especially important to the family-relatedness of work decisions theory: individualism/collectivism and humane orientation. In addition to that, some other authors proposed different factors that may interfere with the relationship between family situation and career decisions, adopting various perspectives mainly at individual and societal levels. Indeed, differently from the model proposed by Greenhaus and Powell (2012), the organizational context will not be considered in this investigation. This decision is in line with the idea of some researchers that realized that no family-friendly policy or program can concretely help workers in managing their work and family domains if they are placed into an unsupportive societal and cultural context (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002).

3.2 OTHER MODERATORS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY AND WORK

Starting with the analysis at individual level, it will be carried out a brief literature review of researchers that investigated the effect of specific individual moderators on the relationship between family and work. It is important to specify, though, that the relative literature is still not widely developed and unanimous.

3.2.1 INDIVIDUAL LEVEL: FAMILY IDENTITY, SOURCES OF SUPPORT, AND WFB

First of all, Masterson and Hoobler (2014) started from the assumption of Greenhaus and Powell (2012) that the level of family-relatedness of work decisions that women and men make at work relies significantly on the family identities that they construe. In their article, Masterson and Hoobler (2014) indeed focused on the individual level of analysis, emphasizing the less-studied variable of family identity, though re-examining and expanding the concept of family identity provided by Greenhaus and Powell (2012). The theory is based on the assumption that “the salience of one’s family identity may actually drive behavior and motivation in the workplace” (Masterson and Hoobler, 2014, p. 84). In particular, they hypothesized two main types of family identity (i.e. care and career) that reflect the different meanings that individuals can attach to their family roles (Masterson and Hoobler, 2014); in detail, they proposed that care-based roles represent relational values, while on the other hand career-based roles reflect achievement-oriented values.

A different approach was developed by Carlson and Perrewe (1999), Martins, Eddleston, and Veiga (2002), and Beauregard (2007): they suggested that moderators of the relationship between family situation and work decisions are the sources of support that people receive and that may produce a "buffering effect" that assists individuals in handling work and family commitments. The sources of support identified are basically three: an individual's co-workers, its community, and the household overall financial resources (Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002). Due to the fact that the group work of an employee plays an important role as social group, “the individual's relationships with work group members can be a source of socioemotional support that may help him or her deal with work-family” (Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002, p. 401). The same kind of support is provided by the community in which the

worker is placed and/or provided by other supportive social networks (i.e. partner, other family members); indeed, their ties may be fundamental sources of resource and socioemotional support. Eventually, Martins, Eddleston, and Veiga (2002) pointed out that individuals with a high-level of financial resources can invest more time and energies in their careers, since they are more likely to be able to afford numerous services (e.g. a nanny or child care) that could help them in coping with family and work demands. Therefore, people with greater financial resources are more willing to lessen the “constraint” effect that a demanding family (both in terms of time and energies) may have on career decisions.

However, the individual-level moderator on which the proposed model of this paper will focus is the one already partially deepened in chapter one. Specifically, the literature review analysis has revealed that there is a growing demand for a balanced lifestyle between family and work domains, and this desire also affects the way through which several working-related decisions are made (such as to change jobs, to accept a geographical transfer, or to deny a promotion). Given this premise, it appears quite clearly that the degree of interest and the expectations that individuals have in work/family balance is fundamental in order to understand the strength (and the direction) of the influence that family demographics may have on career choices (Alhazemi & Ali, 2016; Masterson & Hoobler, 2015; Beauregard, 2007; Duffield, 2002). In particular, a review of the key research literature carried out by Beauregard (2007) revealed that career decisions are significantly influenced by personal values, attitudes, and expectations that individuals have regarding how work should be balanced with the other domains of their lives. In fact, the author has come to say that “young people’s expectations regarding how they will combine work and family in the future also play a role in influencing career choice” (Beauregard, 2007, p. 104). Indeed, it is important to emphasise that this kind of behaviour has some relevant implications for both individuals, organizations, and eventually policy makers (Beauregard, 2007).

In addition to the individual-level variables, the literature suggests that there are several elements of the societal environment that may act as moderators.

3.2.2 COUNTRY LEVEL: INSTITUTIONAL AND CULTURAL DIMENSIONS

As Mayrhofer, Meyer, and Steyrer stated, “careers are always careers in context” (2007, p. 215). Therefore, it is always fundamental to understand that careers cannot be seen just as individuals scaling up corporate and professional hierarchies, but instead they are placed in the “intersection of societal history and individual biography” (Grandjean, 1981, p. 1057), and therefore both individuals and contexts should receive considerable attention (Mayrhofer, Meyer, & Steyrer, 2007).

In particular, Mayrhofer, Meyer, and Steyrer (2007) identified four core contextual factors characterizing the past two decades that are a source and general background when drawing the overall picture of the main exogenous factors that influence careers: the contexts of work, origin, society and culture, and global context. A general representation of the model could be seen in Figure 3.1.

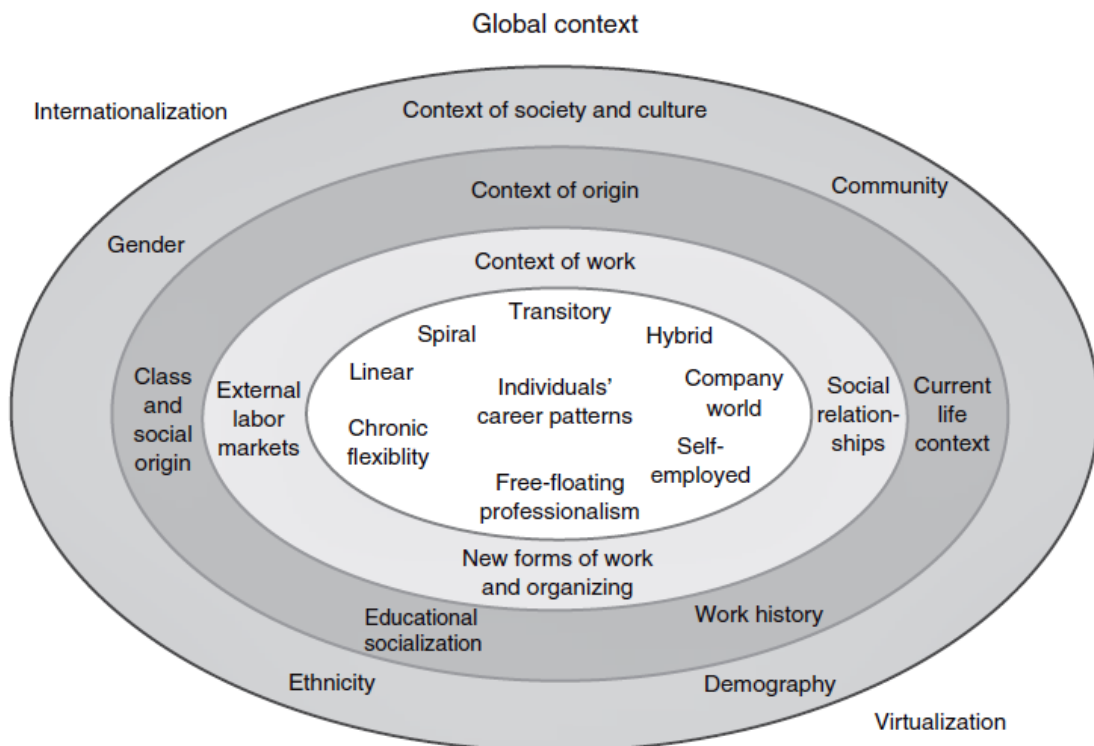


Figure 3.1 – Major contextual factors in career research.
Source: Mayrhofer, Meyer, and Steyrer (2007).

In detail, the first variable -the context of work- represents the primary circle of closeness, and incorporate the features of the economic and institutional situation, the characteristics of the external labour market, the potential new forms of working, and all the work-related social relationships (Mayrhofer, Meyer, & Steyrer, 2007). Secondly, main aspects related to the context of origin are the class and social origin (socioeconomic background of the family of origin), the current life context, the educational socialization (formal education), and the personal work history (e.g. number of employers; the mobility rate; the frequency and pattern of upward mobility; and the relationship between times of employment and unemployment) (Mayrhofer, Meyer, & Steyrer, 2007). The next level, the context of society and culture, is related to gender issues (such as income differential, participation in the labour market, or promotion patterns), ethnicity (e.g. discrimination based on race), the overall demography of the population (age, gender, ethnicity, and similar variables), and lastly the communal and societal ties (for instance integration of individuals into the local context of the civil, political, and religious community) (Mayrhofer, Meyer, & Steyrer, 2007). Finally, Mayrhofer, Meyer, and Steyrer (2007) defined the global context as a set of various different aspects, such as the characteristics of global managers, the global career systems, or the human resource management in terms of expatriation and repatriation, reward, and training of employees.

Most of all, the model of Mayrhofer, Meyer, and Steyrer (2007) is useful in order to understand that there is a call for placing a greater attention for contextual factors in the field of career research. Moreover, the definition of “context” could be interpreted in several ways, depending on the theoretical and disciplinary perspective adopted. In this case, the focus will be on the main aspects of the context that may affect and shape the managerial and organizational behaviour practices at country-level. In this sense, the goal is to shed light on national attitudes, values, policies, and institutions that are aimed at supporting families in managing their personal and work demands and responsibilities. For instance, several government policies may support families through publicly childcare services, statutory leave provisions or practices that encourage flexibility of working practices, and paid or unpaid leave policies (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Abendroth & Dulk, 2011; Lyness & Judiesch, 2001; Starrels, 1992). Furthermore, private-life and family demands like elder or children care provided by family members are not necessarily a “constrain” if there is an adequate social and institutional support able to buffer the effect of time-based and strain-based conflicts

(Abendroth & Dulk, 2011). Indeed, all these family-friendly policies -that have already been analysed in chapter one and are summarized in Appendix one- have a central role in helping families to attend household responsibilities without compromising their work commitments (Lyness & Judiesch, 2001). Again, as suggested by Greenhaus and Powell (2012), employees that reside in a country with the forms of institutional support mentioned before are more prone to take family needs and responsibilities into account when making career decisions; this phenomenon is not only related to the fact that the infrastructures (e.g. flexible working hours, paid parental leave, telework) render the decision more affordable from a practical and financial point of view, but also because the country culture supports and incentivizes the consideration of family situations and values through the availability of these institutional policies (Greenhaus and Powell, 2012).

This growing trend toward more family-friendly entitlements in the working environment could be observed also in several studies of the last two decades: in a research carried out by Becker and Moen (1999), that was based on a sample of 117 interviewed middle-class dual-earner couples, it emerged that most of the respondents had a strongly preference for formal statutory policies that guarantee them some rights such as the possibility to have time-off to care for a sick child or an older relatives. In this direction, due to the limited family-friendly federal policies supporting employees in the United States (as previously analysed in chapter one), single states have begun to fill this gap by themselves (Starrels, 1992). Furthermore, Abendroth and Dulk (2011) came to the same conclusion in their study focused on European countries, affirming that the state should help employees in dealing with the requirements and demands placed on them in both family and work domains. This supportive approach by national policy-makers should be useful in order to break through the real or perceived restrictions that make individuals feel limited in their choices by social pressures and constraints. In this way, through institutions able to help workers in managing the equilibrium between family and work, they will demolish the idea for which career-related decisions and experiences are not the result of people free decisions (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). Concretely, a clear example is the one reported by Greenhaus and Powell (2012) and Powell and Greenhaus (2010): the authors observed that “family-friendly” programs promoted at statutory level and thereafter adopted by organizations (such as child care, elder care assistance, adequate leave policies, flexible work scheduling, and flexible place of working) weaken the effect of family life over career decisions.

An opposite effect could be done by several dimensions of national cultures. Indeed, as stated by Greenhaus and Powell, “dimensions of national cultures may moderate relationships between family-domain factors and work domain” (2012, p. 1032). Just to cite some researchers that deepened the impact of cultural values on the relationship between family situation and work decisions, Powell, Francesco, and Ling affirmed that “cultural influences on the work-family interface have not been acknowledged reviews of the work-family literature or the cross-cultural organizational behaviour literature” (2009, p. 598). Starting from this premise, the authors explored four main cultural dimensions that in their opinion should be considered when dealing with work/family interface, either because they have been already used to explain the work/family interdependence in previous studies (i.e. individualism/collectivism and gender egalitarianism) or because the authors were able to justify that they could be useful to interpret such phenomena (i.e. humane orientation and specificity/diffusion) (Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009). The main objective of the paper was to incentivize the extension of current culture-neutral theories investigating the work-family interdependence and to integrate them with the effect of several dimensions of the cultural context in order to make these theories more culture-sensitive (Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009).

The variables of *individualism/collectivism* and *humane orientation* have been already cited in the first part of this chapter, when analysing the model proposed by Greenhaus & Powell (2012). In particular, the dimension of *individualism/collectivism* is probably one of the most explored cultural dimensions; it is focused on the connections and relationships among people, and on whether they are close to each other and affiliated with groups (collectivistic culture) or whether, instead, persons have weaker connections and they are quite independent (individualistic culture) (Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009; Hofstede, 2001). Hence, as observed by Hofstede (2001), individuals that belong to collectivistic societies (e.g. Guatemala, Bulgaria, and Indonesia) might assign a greater value to the quality of their work-family interdependence than individuals living in individualistic contexts (e.g. the United States, Sweden, and Hungary), since the second are less prone to experience a sense of connectedness, and this will inhibit their concern for the effect that work-related decisions might have on their family, and vice versa for members of collectivistic cultures. Moreover, Powell, Francesco, and Ling (2009) stated that the difference also lies on the possibility for people to receive help by the others; indeed, in collectivistic societies, the link perceived within family members is generally bidirectional in nature: if from one side an individual is dependent on the other members of the

family, he or she is as well obliged to financial and emotional commitments toward the family itself. To conclude, it is important to point out that the dimension of individualism/collectivism seems to be one of the contextual variables that have the greatest effect on the work-family relationship (Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009).

In the second place, *humane orientation* is a dimension that was proposed in the GLOBE study (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004), and represents the degree of encouragement and reward that members of a society acknowledge to other members for being altruistic, kind, and caring (Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009). Moreover, cultures with high degree of humane orientation are characterized by an attention and care for all the people belonging to the society: family, friends, community and also strangers; everyone is concerned for the well-being of others, and support (both financial, material, and emotional) is provided to all the members of the community (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004). As Greenhaus and Powell (2012) underlined, this type of societal context might influence the FRWD in two main ways: first of all, individuals are more stimulated to take family considerations when making career decisions due to the fact that their culture emphasises the value of caring for family needs in order to create strong family relationships; secondly, enterprises might have or develop family-friendly policies in order to give support to their employees in handling work and family responsibilities, since they place more importance to employees' family and personal lives. For all these reasons, cultural context could be a significant moderator in the relation between family concerns and work choices; that is, the relation is strengthened in societies with a higher degree of humane orientation and social support (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012).

As previously mentioned, Powell, Francesco, and Ling (2009) introduced two other societal dimensions. Specifically, cultures that are characterized by a low level of *gender egalitarianism* men are encouraged to perform their work role and women to take care of family responsibilities; therefore, women will be more incentivized than men to take family considerations into account when making work-related decisions (Zhang, Li & Foley, 2014; Lyness & Judiesch, 2008; Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009). On the other hand, Powell, Francesco, and Ling (2009) specify that the degree of *specificity/diffusion* is related to the compartmentalization of work and family domains in a certain culture: individuals living in a “specific culture” are more likely to keep the two spheres separated, while individuals living in a “diffuse culture” are more prone to expect overlays between the two main roles of family and work. The authors concluded their research with a call for further analysis (both tests and

culture-sensitive theories) on the role and influence of other cultural dimensions in the work-family interface, possibly based on a cross-cultural sample of employees coming from nations that are characterised by wide differences in the relevance attributed to cultural values (Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009). Indeed, they underlined the fact that national culture plays a fundamental role in determining the work-family relationship; moreover, they started from the investigation of Ashforth, Kreiner, and Fugate (2000) in order to come to the conclusion that “norms and values related to the cultural meaning and enactment of work influence the nature and strength of the relationship between individuals’ experiences domains” (Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009, p. 598). In addition to that, also Powell and Greenhaus, in their study published in 2010, studied the role of gender egalitarianism in the relation between family-domain factors and work-domain decisions.

In 2015, also Masterson and Hoobler have recalled the theories developed by Greenhaus and Powell (2012) and Powell, Francesco, and Ling (2009), highlighting that the cultural dimensions of individualism/collectivism and the degree to which nations are characterized by humane orientation will determine the strength of the influence of family considerations when making career decisions.

3.3 THE PROPOSED MODEL: THE IMPACT OF FAMILY SITUATION ON CAREER DECISIONS

Finally, after having analysed the different variables used by researchers in order to identify the elements that may potentially interfere in the relationship between family situation and career decisions, the complete framework under analysis in the present research is presented. In detail, the investigation will focus first of all on the core research question: how family structure and family responsibilities impact on work-related dimensions (which is the nature and the strength of the influence). Thereafter, few dimensions will be introduced as moderators in order to better explain the main family-work connection; in particular, these moderators will be divided into an individual-level analysis and a country-level analysis to capture the principal sources of influence, both at personal and national level. Although a more detailed explanation of the model will be discussed in chapter four, a general picture of the proposed framework is represented in Figure 3.2.

DOES FAMILY CONSTRAIN WORK?

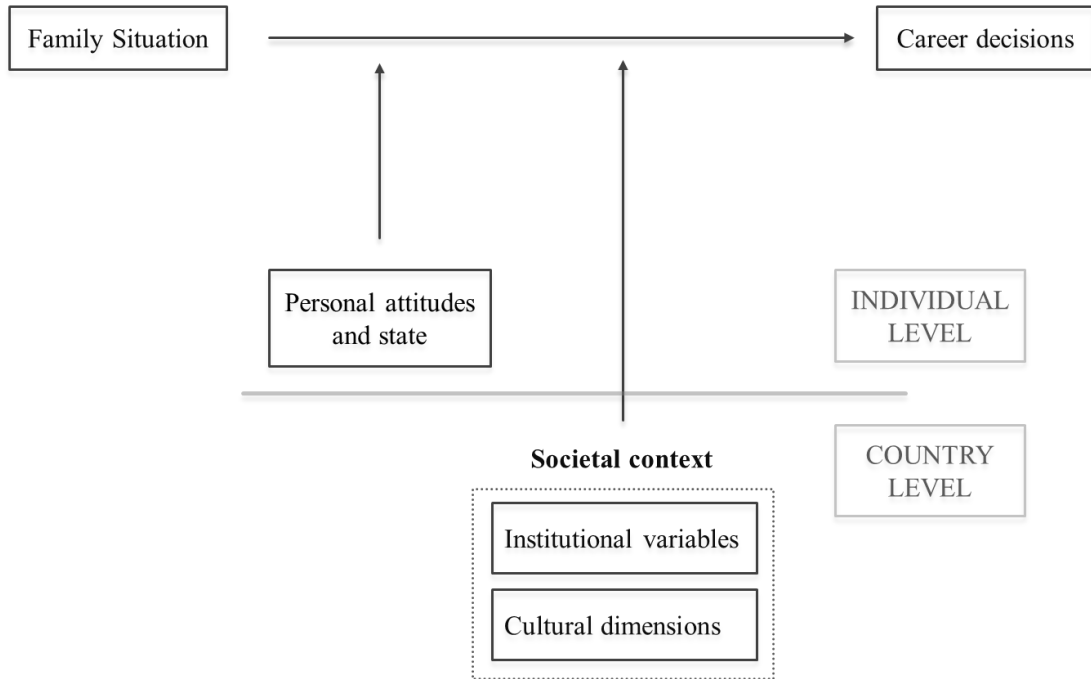


Figure 3.2 – Proposed framework. The impact of family situation on career decisions and its moderators.

CHAPTER 4

EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

In the previous chapters, we defined the field of analysis, we made an overview of the theoretical background that from the 1950s until today has been developed regarding the interdependencies between family and work, and we finally outlined the general model under investigation and its main goals. Therefore, it is now fundamental to further analyse the issue through an empirical analysis. Our core objective is to check whether the theories proposed so far -and the extended model suggested in this research- do actually reflect into empirical reality, but it is also to understand if the theoretical insights studied could be combined together in order to build a unique and coherent framework of analysis. Specifically, the validity of the hypotheses underlying the model will be verified by using a set of world-wide data collected by the 5C Group (Collaboration for the Cross-Cultural Study of Contemporary Careers), that is an international network of researchers interested in career studies.

4.1 PREMISES: THE RATIONALE OF THE STUDY AND ITS CONTRIBUTION

As observed by Schooreel, Shockley, and Verbruggen (2017), in the last decade there has been a growing awareness toward the fact that home and career experiences are closely and inextricably intertwined. This increasing interest has been fostered by recent trends such as the rising women's and mothers' participation ratio in the labour force, the heightened number of dual-income partners, and the recognized life value and societal norm that work-family balance is gaining (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; OECD, 2016a; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). Accordingly, a continuously increasing number of individuals considers their family situation when making career decisions, in order to facilitate an harmonious relationship between the two most important domains of their lives (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Masterson & Hoobler, 2015; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Indeed, as Greenhaus and Kossek pointed out, "an examination of the contemporary career, that is, the career enacted in the early portion of the twenty-first century, is particularly timely in light of substantial changes in the economy, work organizations, and families over the past several decades that have transformed careers in significant ways that are likely to continue for the foreseeable future" (2014, p. 362). Moreover, these trends have developed in years of an uncertain economic environment, that has determined more job-related insecurity and has provoked an increase in the number and frequency of career decisions that people make over their life course (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011); consequently, there are nowadays a lot more opportunities to make work decisions that may be affected by family life (Poelmans 2005).

A consequence of these recent demographic and cultural changes is that most of the theoretical and empirical researches that have been done before the last few years are no longer valid since they are based on assumptions that do not reflect anymore the current society. Moreover, even though work-family interdependencies are well established in the literature, it still remains overlooked how these interdependencies affect the way through which individuals make decisions (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). To fill the gap in updated literature, Schooreel, Shockley, and Verbruggen, (2017) called for further investigations regarding the effects of home-related variables on career decisions, improving the understanding of the outcomes of that decisions. Also Greenhaus and Powell stated that "that it is important to understand employees' consideration of their family situation when

making work decisions, not only because it appears to be a common phenomenon but also because it has generally been ignored in the theoretical, work-related decision-making literature” (2012, p. 247); furthermore, they called for an in-depth analysis of the influence of family dimensions over career decisions especially in light of the emerging phenomenon of dual-earner couples.

Even though the relationship between family and work spheres has been already studied by several authors in the last decades, it is still missing an investigation aimed at understanding the consequences of this relationship rather than its antecedents, as underlined among others by Schooreel, Shockley, and Verbruggen (2017), and Greenhaus and Kossek (2014). Indeed, unlike the numerous researches on the definition and reasons of work-family conflict, enrichment, spillover or compensation, the goal of the present analysis is to study the nature and the strength of the impact of family situations over career decisions. It is important to notice, though, that the study by Greenhaus and Powell in 2012 might be the one that have a similar purpose to ours, since their model explores the effect of family situations on work-related decisions and the favourability of the outcome for the family domain. Nevertheless, the authors have just proposed a theoretical perspective, without supporting the theory with an empirical analysis (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012).

Moreover, some relevant elements that have been largely ignored in the work-family interface literature to date have been introduced in this investigation in order to expand and complete the model: a variable related to elder care has been included in the delineation of “family situation”, and various other variables both at individual level and at (institutional and cultural) country level have been used as moderators between family and career behaviours.

As a matter of fact, the introduction of the theme of the care for the elderly in the definition of the family requirements and responsibilities tries to respond to a call of Starrels (1992) that has not received attention in recent studies. In addition to that, it appears quite clear that the world is ageing rapidly: people that have 60 years old or more in 2015 made up 12.3% of the whole worldwide population, and this percentage is expected to grow up to the 22% by 2050 (United Nations Population Fund, 2015). This demographic trend is responsible for a number of implications for both governments, families and individuals (OECD, 2017e), and therefore the elder care’s need should not be ignored when dealing with family and work interdependencies. Indeed, as Haberkern (2011), Frone (2003), and Bailyn, Drago, and Kochan

(2001) pointed out, the more dispersed and mixed families (i.e. parents and stepparents in separate homes), the increased number of dual-income families or single-parent households, the more geographically scattered siblings and families, and the increased number of divorced, separated and remarried parents cause parents to have greater difficulties in building enduring relationship with their children (if any), and this ultimately lead to a more complicated informal care system within the family network. In turn, this phenomenon -together with the aging population- leads the burden of elder care to be a relevant issue in terms of time, energies and financial investments for new generations. Therefore, it could be considered as one of the family-related variables by most of the employees when making career decision, and thus it should not be kept out of the present analysis.

Another contribution provided by the present study is the addition of individual and national level variables as moderators of the main relationship under investigation. Indeed, it is fundamental to take into account personal values and their relative achievement self-reported by workers in order to understand the different strengths of the influence that various family situations may exert on career decisions (Masterson & Hoobler, 2015; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Moreover, as pointed out by Powell and Greenhaus (2010), all the studies that they reviewed were conducted in only one nation; therefore, they suggested to introduce dimensions of national culture as moderators of the relationships between factors of the family domain and decisions of work domain. This may also help us to comprehend why similar family structures and demands could have very different effects on behavioural attitudes of workers belonging to societies with dissimilar cultural values when they make career-related decisions (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). In this direction, Greenhaus and Powell (2012) recalled the previous study of Powell, Francesco, and Ling (2009) and underlined the fact that still little is known about these “cultural influences” on the work-family interdependence and about cross-cultural organizational behaviour. Indeed, they suggested the development of a more “culture-sensitive” model of the work-family interface, since national culture seems to be particularly relevant for the interpretation of the family-relatedness of work decisions model (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012).

It should be underlined, though, that Greenhaus and Powell (2012) suggested also that there are wide differences among countries regarding the extent to which they offer institutional provisions to support their citizens in managing their family commitments and responsibilities (e.g. with parental leave policies, public childcare systems, gender equity, flexibility in the workplace, and conditions for part-time employees). Consequently, the authors stated that “the existence of strong institutional supports at the societal level moderates the relation between family situations and work decisions, such that the relation is stronger in societies that provide such supports” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012, p. 250). However, despite the theoretical background that has been recently developed supporting this consideration, so far it has not been provided and tested a model that analyse the work-family relationship at cross-national level. In accordance with all these observations, Lyness and Judiesch (2008) explicitly highlighted in their paper the importance of conducting a research at international level rather than assuming that the findings of the investigation will hold across national boundaries and could be therefore generalized.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN: DATA AND METHODS

As introduced in the first part of the chapter, the validity of the model proposed in this research will be tested through the use of a set of data collected by the 5C Group. Specifically, it is an international network based on a shared interest in a more in-depth and globally valid view of how individuals understand their career, career success, and career transitions (Mayrhofer *et al.*, 2016). As Mayrhofer and colleagues specified (2016), the group was born in 2004 with the aim of understanding how people view the concept of career in different countries and cultural clusters; for this reason, it expanded its number of researchers in the following years in order to include scholars from 11 countries reflecting Schwartz’s seven culture clusters (Austria, China, Costa Rica, Israel, Japan, Malaysia, Mexico, Serbia and Montenegro, South Africa, Spain, USA). Hence, the group of researchers has started to conduct a survey whose first phase was only qualitative (semi-structured interviews), and involved workers of 12 countries around the world, selected trying to respect the transnational regions identified by Schwartz in such a way as to incorporate diversity cultural (Schwartz, 2008).

Specifically, the present analysis was inspired by the 5C Group's idea of exploring career behaviours, with a focus on individuals' attitudes, personal situations, and on the context in which they are placed. In detail, our first objective is to verify if, as suggested by the literature of the last decades, different family situations (i.e. in terms of formal family structure and family demands and responsibilities) significantly affect some career decisions made by family members. If so, the goal will be then to empirically examine the strength and the direction of the impact observed. In this investigation, in particular, two main variables related to individual career choices will be taken into account: the employees' intention to quit and their enacted managerial aspirations. Therefore, the first Research Question of this investigation could be formulated as follows:

RQ1: Does an individual's specific family situation (FS) influence his or her career decisions related to the intention to quit from the organization (IQ) and to the enacted managerial aspirations (EMA)? And if so, in which way?

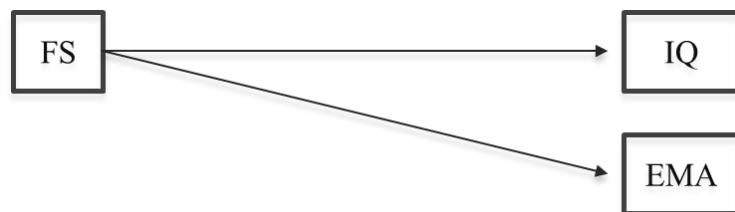


Figure 4.1 – Linear regression model

Then, starting from this premise, it will be explored the effect of individual attitudes and current state with respect to the balance between work and family management, and it will be therefore used as moderator of the main relationship. The aim is to understand in which way the value attributed from workers to the reconciliation of family and work domains and their self-reported level of balance achieved shape the influence of family structure and responsibilities over their career decisions. The choice of using work/family balance as moderator differs from some of the analyses developed around the theme of work-family interface. Indeed, it has been largely used as independent variable in order to explain different work outcomes, such as organizational commitment, employees' performance, voluntary turnover and level of stress in the workplace (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Amstad *et al.* 2011; Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003; Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002;

Allen *et al.*, 2000; Pleck, Staines, & Lang, 1980). In our case, though, the objective of the dissertation is to examine how the family situation is related to some of that outcomes, before calling into question the work/family balance or enrichment. For this reason, the family situation will be used as explanatory variable, and it will impact on career decisions through the so-called work/family balance (in terms of importance and actual achievement), that is considered a moderator. Thus, the second Research Question that will be investigated is the following:

RQ2: Which is the effect of individual attitudes and current state with respect to work/family balance (WFB) on the main relationship under analysis?

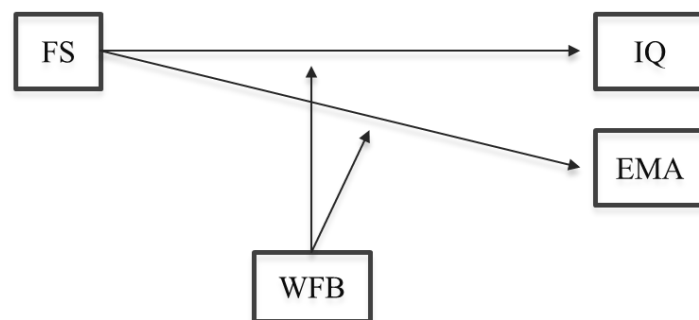


Figure 4.2 – Multiple regression model with the individual-level moderator

Finally, as already analysed theoretically in the literature review of chapter three, it is important not to ignore the societal context in which workers are placed, since it might significantly shape the way through which the family situation influences the career decisions they make. In particular, two main groups of national dimensions affecting the relationship could be defined: the institutional and the cultural contexts. Hence, the investigation will take into account a series of institutional and cultural variables at country level in order to test empirically whether they have an impact on the way through which individuals' family situation shapes career decisions or not. Thus, the last Research Question could be summarised as follows:

RQ3: Which is the effect of country level variables, and in particular institutional and cultural dimensions (respectively ID and CD), on the main relationship under analysis?

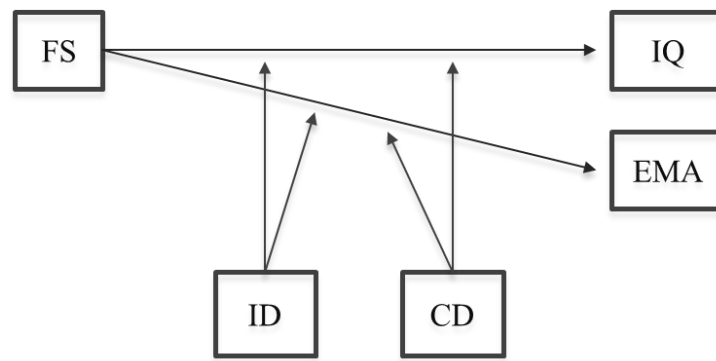


Figure 4.3 – Multilevel regression model that considers also country dimensions as level-2 explanatory variables

4.2.1 SAMPLE

The database used for carrying out the empirical analysis thus has been built by the Collaboration for the Cross-Cultural Study of Contemporary Careers group. The questionnaire that has been used was written originally in English and then translated into the local languages of the different countries involved in the research project by the researchers who are part of the group. Subsequently, it has been implemented the back-translation from local languages into English in order to validate the analysis tool. The sample to which the questionnaire was submitted is a convenience sample, segmented on the basis of the work experience gained by the respondents; in particular, the subjects selected had at least two years of working experience at the time of the questionnaire's submission.

Overall, the data was collected by the group from 2013 to 2017, and the total number of individuals composing the database has reached 17031 units spread among 27 countries. Despite that, the number of responses used for the empirical analysis of this research has been reduced to 12309 cases (72.3%) distributed among 26 countries (96.3%), due to missing or incomplete information and outliers. In addition to that, the reduction of the number of observations is also justified by the fact that, given our interest in management and organizational behaviour, we excluded self-employed individuals and manual workers, assuming that they were not relevant for the ultimate purpose of the present study. The main characteristics of the sample composing the database are summarised in Table 1.

EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

Table 1 - Demographic composition of the sample (N = 12309).

	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (%)		ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (%)
GENDER			AGE		
Male	5959	48.4%	<30	2637	21.4
Female	6307	51.2%	30-50	7109	57.8
			51-60	2197	17.8
			>60	291	2
EDUCATION			SECTOR*		
Primary Education	74	0.6%	Private	7581	61.6%
Secondary school	2769	22.5%	Public	3510	28.5%
Post-secondary; short-cycle tertiary	2464	20.0%	Not for Profit	506	4.1%
Bachelor	3582	29.1%	Mixed	556	4.5%
Master	2783	22.6%	Other	122	1.0%
Doctorate	472	3.8%	OCCUPATION		
			Managers	3240	26.3%
			Professionals	4380	35.6%
			Clerical and Service Workers	2820	22.9%
			Skilled Labour	1869	15.2%
EMPLOYMENT STATUS			HIERARCHICAL LEVEL		
Full-time	10893	88.5%	Low	3866	31.4%
Part-time	1369	11.1%	Middle	4217	34.3%
Unemployed	38	0.3%	High	3982	32.4%
TIME IN ORGANIZATION* (YEARS)			TIME IN JOB POSITION* (YEARS)		
<3	3068	24.9%	<3	4281	34.8%
3-10	5566	45.2%	3-10	5853	47.6%
11-20	2182	17.7%	11-20	1517	12.3%
21-30	1102	9.0%	21-30	534	4.3%
>30	391	3.2%	>30	124	1.0%
SIZE OF THE ORGANIZATION* (EMPLOYEES)			TYPE OF ORGANIZATION*		
<10	1017	8.3%	Domestic	7611	61.8%
10-49	1932	15.7%	Multinational (HQ in your country)	2449	19.9%
50-259	2566	20.8%	Multinational (HQ in another country)	2211	18.0%
250-999	2350	19.1%			
1000-4999	2119	17.2%			
>5000	2304	18.7%			

*Data refers to the organizations in which respondents were working, or to the last firm in which they had worked at the time of the interview.

Moreover, a list of the countries involved in the project (that will be useful in order to develop the second phase of the empirical investigation) is shown in Figure 4.4, where there are also reported the absolute and relative frequency of the respondents belonging to nations under analysis.

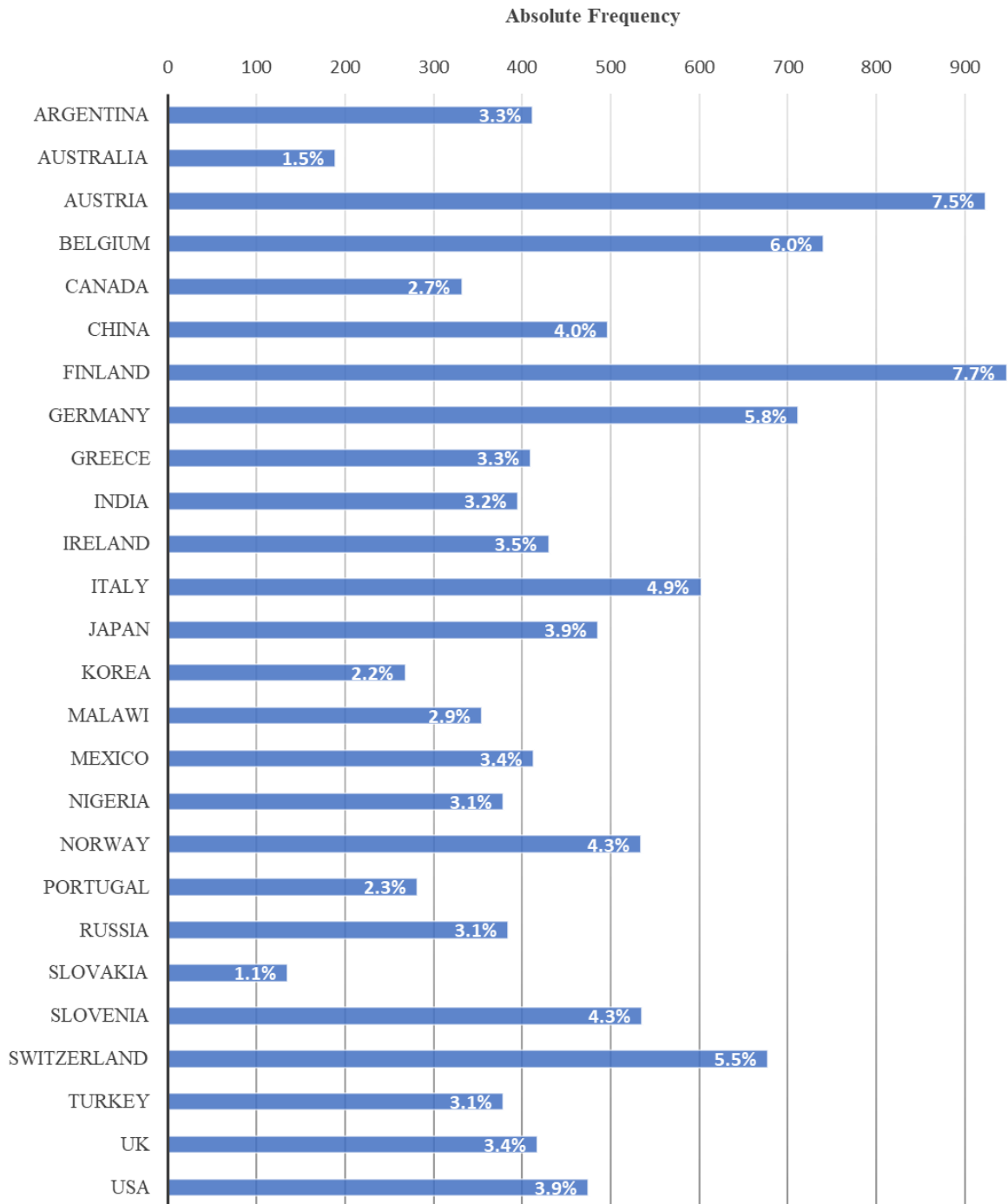


Figure 4.4 – Composition of the sample: absolute and relative frequency (%) of respondents by country.

4.2.2 MEASURES AND EXPECTATIONS

At this point, it is possible to introduce the specific measures used to define the variables of the empirical model; moreover, the main expectations about the results of the analysis and the underlined hypotheses will be explained. Before starting with that part of the analysis, though, an overview of the complete empirical model and of the hypotheses that will be enunciated below is presented in Figure 4.5.

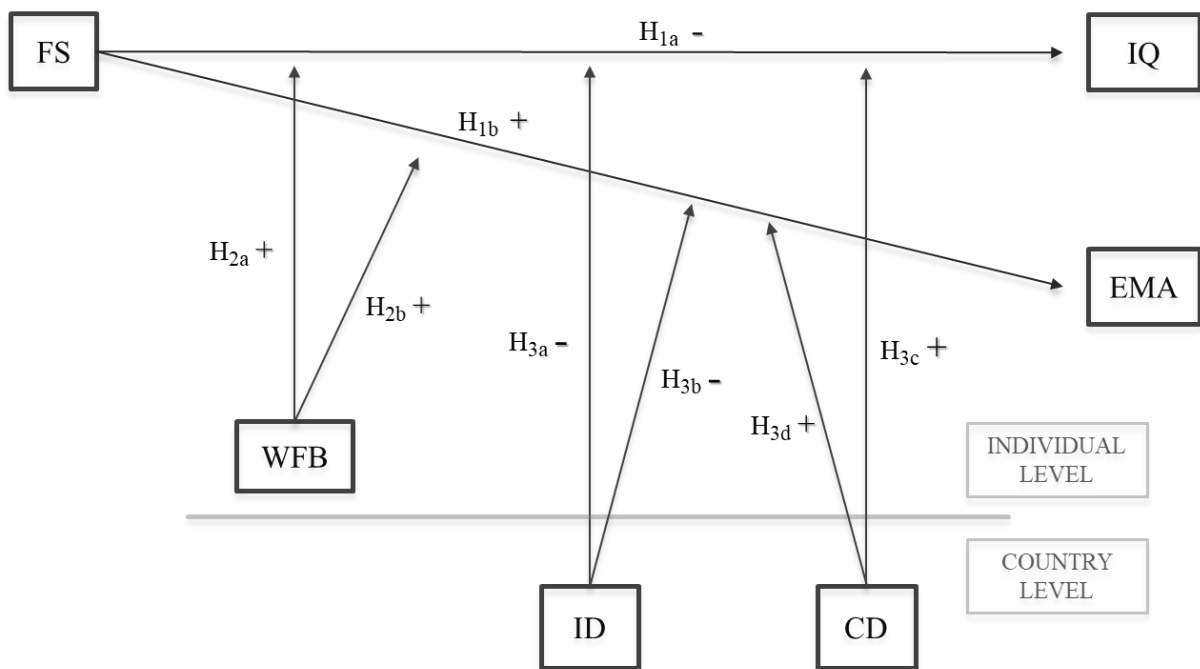


Figure 4.5 – The proposed model: hypothesis and expectations (pluses and minuses represent the directions of the hypothesized relationships).

Family situation (FS) is the unique explanatory variable considered in the model. However, it is important to underline that it is actually an index composed by several dimensions. In particular, the variable includes information about two main aspects related to the concept of “family”: family structure and family demands and responsibilities. In order to measure the elements of the former domain, there were used three standard questions of the questionnaire regarding the marital status, the partner’s employment status, and the presence (and age of the youngest) or absence of children. On the other side, two additional variables

were considered in order to explain family demands and responsibilities that a member of a family may be required to accomplish. Specifically, the interviewed people responded to the question “Are you the primary carer of at least some of these children?” if they previously stated that they have children. Moreover, it has been asked “Do you have other caring responsibilities for family members, friends, neighbours or others (e.g. because they have a long term mental or physical disability or because of old age)? If yes, how many hours a week do you spend caring for them?”. All these five factors were jointly taken into consideration in order to capture all the aspects that may explain why a certain type of personal family life is considered more demanding than others in terms of relational time and energies invested. In particular, these five variables were recoded to render them more readable and usable, and a score was assigned to each of them in order to define a hierarchy among different family situations based on the level of effort and commitment that they require. A summary of the factors used to create the variable “family situation” and their relative scores is represented in Table 2.

Table 2 – Variables composing the Family Situation classification.

DIMENSION	SCORE ASSIGNED	DIMENSION	SCORE ASSIGNED
MARITAL STATUS		PRIMARY CARER OF CHILDREN	
Not in a relationship	1	Not applicable/no children	1
In a relationship	2	No, but I have children	1.5
		Yes	2
PARTNER EMPLOYMENT STATUS		OTHER CARING RESPONSABILITES**	
Not employed	1	No	1
Employed	2	Yes, ≤7 hours/week	1.5
		Yes, >7 hours/week	2
CHILDREN*			
No	1		
At least one ≥6 years old	1.5		
At least one <6 years old	2		

* 6 years old has been chosen as threshold age since the level of care required by children of 5 years old or younger is considered to be higher than the one required by older children, since they are still in the preschool phase (European Commission *et al.*, 2014; American Academy of Pediatrics, n.a.).

** 7 hours has been chosen as threshold of weekly hours used for other caring responsibilities because it is the mean of the sample, and it could represent a division between those who employ a significant amount of time to care for others and who does not. The choice is also quite in line with the CESifo DICE report of 2010, in which it is stated that men and women dedicate on average 9 hours a week caring for elderly and disabled relatives.

After having choose and classified the five variables composing the family situation, it has been done a ranking of the different types of families that may exist, expanding the model proposed by Schneer and Reitman (1993). In particular, the authors introduced a model based only on three variables for defining the family structure: marital status, employment status of the partner, and presence or absence of children. The result was a ranking of six types of families that an individual may have, in which the less demanding is the one composed by a single person without children, and the more demanding one is the one in which there is a couple with children and both the parents work (Schneer & Reitman, 1993). In the present investigation, however, two variables have been added in order to calculate the level of commitment that a family demands, considering also elements related to the caregiving role that people may have. Therefore, we identified fifteen categories of families to which the individual might belong, and which are characterized by different degrees of effort and responsibilities required. In particular, the classification goes from the less demanding family (single worker, without children, and without caring responsibilities toward others) to the more demanding family (dual-earner couple with children, in which the individual under investigation is the primary carer of at least one child of 5 years old or younger, and he or she has also to care for other family members, relatives or friends for at least 7 hours a week). All the possible combinations of features that generate different kinds of family situation and their classification are reported in Appendix 2.

Intention to quit (IQ) is the first dependent variable taken into account. It reflects the willingness of employees to leave their current organization, looking for a new job or going out of the labour market. The decision to choose this variable was led by the fact that leaving an organization often has profound implications for an individual's career, and it should therefore be in-depth analysed (Frone, 2003). Indeed, as a premise, it is important to point out that the intention expressed by respondents to voluntarily leave their organizations is a direct antecedent and a proximal predictor of the actual turnover (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010; Mitchell *et al.*, 2001; Stroh, Brett, & Reilly, 1996; Lee, & Mowday, 1987; Steers, Mowday, & Porter, 1979). In order to measure the personal intention of leaving, interviewed people responded to a three-item, 7-point Intention to Turnover subscale introduced in the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann *et al.*, 1979). Even though it is largely recognised in the literature, we decided to test the reliability and internal consistency of the selected scale through

a Cronbach's alpha test. Normally, in studies investigating an attitude, high levels of alpha values indicate that the subjects examined show a consistent attitude regarding each item belonging to the dimension considered. In our case, the Cronbach's alpha calculated on the three-item scale is equal to 0.92, and this result supports the hypothesis that items have a high internal consistency, and thus the scale utilized is appropriate to measure the individual's intention to quit. In addition to calculating the Alpha coefficient of reliability of the scale, it should also be interesting to examine the dimensionality of the scale: for this reason, we performed an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), from which it emerges that, as expected, the scale is unidimensional. A summary of the results is reported in Table 3.

Table 3 – Reliability and dimensionality analysis of the IQ scale.

SCALE		ITEM	EFA: VARIANCE EXPLAINED
Intention to Quit (IQ)	Cronbach's Alpha 0.92	I often think about quitting this organization	86.46%*
		I will probably look for a new job in the next year	10.14%
		I intent to change employer in the next year	3.40%

*The results point out that the scale is unidimensional, since the eigenvalue of the first factor is the only one higher than 1, and thus it is the only one significant.

At this point, starting from RQ1, we hypothesized that a more demanding family structure will affect the employees' intention to leave by inducing a desire for stability (i.e. stability intention) (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010; Lee & Maurer, 1999; Stroh, Brett, & Reilly, 1996; Steers, Mowday, & Porter, 1979). Due to the fact that most of the studies dealing with the relationship between family situation and intention to turnover are just theoretical (e.g. Powell & Greenhaus, 2010), or they are not enough recent to reflect the last changes that are nowadays shaping the family life (e.g. Lee & Maurer, 1999; Stroh, Brett, & Reilly, 1996; Steers, Mowday, & Porter, 1979), we decided to test the hypothesis in the empirical investigation. In particular, the hypothesis is the following:

H1a: More demanding family situations (FS) limit employees' intention to quit (IQ).

Enacted Managerial Aspirations (EMA) that workers experience is the other dependent variable present in the model. Specifically, it reflects the proactivity of individuals in pursuing their career aspirations. For measuring the enacted managerial aspirations, interviewed people responded to a five-item, 7-point Career Aspirations subscale of the one proposed by Tharenou and Terry (1998). In order to test the reliability and internal consistency of the scale adopted, we used a Cronbach's alpha test: as expected, the high level of the Cronbach's alpha (equal to 0.86) confirmed the internal consistency and reliability of the five elements of the scale. As for the first dependent variable, we also run an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), in order to test the dimensionality of the scale, and as in the previous case, the scale resulted unidimensional. Also for Enacted Managerial Aspirations, thus, it is possible to see a summary table of the results obtained in Table 4.

Table 4 – Reliability and dimensionality analysis of the EMA scale.

SCALE		ITEM	EFA: VARIANCE EXPLAINED
Enacted Managerial Aspirations (EMA)	Cronbach's Alpha 0.86	I have discussed my career prospects with someone with more experience in the department/organisation	64.41%*
		I have discussed my aspirations with a senior person in the department/organisation	12.91%
		I have engaged in career planning	9.06%
		I have sought feedback on my performance	8.67%
		I have updated my skills in order to be more competitive for promotion	4.95%

*The results point out that the scale is unidimensional, since the eigenvalue of the first factor is the only one higher than 1, and thus it is the only one significant.

Following the reasoning used for developing H_{1a}, we could state that if a more demanding family situation incentivizes people to stay in their organizations (i.e. stability intention), it will at the same time encourage them to invest more in their career aspirations within their current enterprise, aiming at an intra-firm growth. This phenomenon is thus summarized in the following hypothesis:

H1b: More demanding family situations (FS) incentivize employees to be proactive in Enacted Managerial Aspirations (EMA).

Once having defined the main explanatory variable and the dependent variables composing the model, we can start examining the features of the individual-level moderator at the basis of the multiple regression model in order to answer to the second Research Question previously formulated. For measuring the *Work/Family Balance* (WFB), six questions related to career aspects included in the questionnaire were taken into account. Specifically, respondents had to indicate in a 5-point Likert scale the importance that they attribute to the following career aspects, and then the level of achievement that they reached in the same aspects:

1. Achieving balance between work and non-work activities;
2. Having time for non-work interests;
3. Achieving a satisfying balance between work and family life.

To extract the maximum value from the collected information, we have decided to combine these two scales (one regarding the importance attributed to the career aspect and the other related to its actual achievement), creating a single measure of work/family balance. In doing so, we used Locke's studies as theoretical background supporting our operation (Locke, 1969). Locke (1989), indeed, argued that when analysing a variable, it is possible to break it down into two fundamental features: the content (what a subject wants to get or maintain) and the intensity (to what extent the subject wants to achieve or maintain that goal). In evaluating the level of satisfaction reached in the work/life balance, it is therefore necessary to consider both the expectation on a value and its intensity, since they represent two distinct aspects. As a matter of fact, each individual evaluates things differently from others, and this is the reason why the hierarchy between individual values is personal and not objectively identifiable (Ferrari, 2015). From the formulation of Locke, it emerges that the impact of a variable is not limited to the discrepancy between the expectation and the degree of work/life balance achieved, but it also has a multiplicative effect determined by the importance attributed from the individual to the work/life balance as social value. Indeed, although the same discrepancy found, the more a value is considered important, the greater will be the overall effect of it on the balance satisfaction scale. In fact, as Ferrari underlined (2015), achieving something very important (or

failing to do so) will definitely result in a higher level of satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) respectively than achieving the same result for something personally considered as less relevant. It is possible thus to apply the same reasoning to the gathered data in order to interpret the overall level of satisfaction that people expressed relative to their work/life balance. In detail, we firstly made an average of the three answers given by respondents on the importance assigned to the work/family balance, and we thereafter did the same with the questions regarding the level of achievement reached by them.

At this point, we interpreted the first group of answers about work/family balance importance as an indicator of the intensity of the value, where the scale used for its encoding ranges from 1 - "Not at all important" to 5 - "Very important". Scores given in the second group of questions, on the contrary, can be considered as an estimate of the discrepancy between the expectation on the value and the perception of its achievement; the scale used for their encoding ranges from 1 – "I strongly dis-agree with the fact that I have achieved a level I am happy with" to 5 – "I strongly agree with the fact that I have achieved a level I am happy with". Afterwards, the average of the results obtained from the latter group of questions has been encoded by a scale in which the minimum is -2 ("Strongly dis-agree") and the maximum of +2 ("Strongly agree").

After having created the two variables, thus, we decided to test whether the decision to aggregate the three dimensions listed above in order to create a variable of WFB expressing the level of importance and another one representing the achieved level was consistent. In particular, we observed that the result of the Cronbach's Alpha test run on the three variables composing the work/family balance perceived importance is 0.68, and could be therefore considered quite reliable. On the other hand, the same test run on the three variables composing the work/family balance perceived achievement gave a value of the Cronbach's Alpha of 0.81, supporting the internal consistency and reliability of the questions included in the scale. Moreover, we examined the dimensionality of the scale through an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), from which it emerges that, as projected, both the scales are unidimensional. A summary of the results is reported in Table 5.

Table 5 – Reliability and dimensionality analysis of the WFB scales.

SCALE		ITEM	EFA: VARIANCE EXPLAINED
WFB Importance	Cronbach's Alpha 0.68	How important do you consider these career aspects?	
		Achieving balance between work and non-work activities	61.07%*
		Having time for non-work interests	21.01%
		Achieving a satisfying balance between work and family life	17.92%
WFB Achievement	Cronbach's Alpha 0.81	Have you achieved a level of these career aspects you are happy with?	
		Achieving balance between work and non-work activities	72.75%*
		Having time for non-work interests	14.56%
		Achieving a satisfying balance between work and family life	12.69%

*The results point out that the scale is unidimensional, since the eigenvalue of the first factor is the only one higher than 1, and thus it is the only one significant.

Finally, by multiplying these two aggregated measures (intensity of the value and its relative achievement compared with expectation), we obtained a unique scale measuring the level of satisfaction in work/life balance, which can range between -10 and 10. As we can see from Figure 4.6, the graph representing the measurement scale is a V-curve, as demonstrated by the results of the study conducted by Locke (1969). This is consistent with the fact that, as the weight increases, it increases also the level of satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) perceived, even though the discrepancy between expectations and perceptions is the same.



Figure 4.6 – Satisfaction Measurement Scale for work/life balance.
 Source: Personal elaboration on Ferrari (2015).

After having defined the way of measuring the work/family balance variable, it is possible to explain how we assume that this factor will impact on the main relationship. Specifically, we expect that an individual that has reached a good level of satisfaction in his or her work/family balance will be less prone to leave from the current organization in which he or she works. On the other hand, employees will consequently engage more in enacted managerial aspirations intra-firm, in order to grow internally. Hence, our hypotheses regarding the individual-level moderating factor with respect to the two dependent variables are the following:

H2a: Work/family balance (WFB) strengthen the negative relationship between family situation (FS) and intention to quit (IQ) experienced by employees.

H2b: Work/family balance (WFB) strengthen the positive relationship between family situation (FS) and enacted managerial aspirations (EMA) carried out by employees.

Finally, the model is composed by two groups of level-2 variables: national institutional and cultural dimensions. Concerning *institutional dimensions*, we introduced two indexes aimed at explaining the level of supportiveness that a country has in helping families coping at the same time with work and family responsibilities. In detail, we selected as national indicators the social expenditures made by countries, and the Working Abroad Index, that we will briefly describe below. Specifically, social expenditures “comprises cash benefits, direct in-kind provision of goods and services, and tax breaks with social purposes. Benefits may be targeted at low-income households, the elderly, disabled, sick, unemployed, or young persons” (OECD, 2017f). The indicator selected has been measured as a percentage of the national GDP, and the data composing it has been taken from a subset of the OECD Social Expenditure Database (SOCX) and are referred to 2016. In the five countries for which values are missing (Argentina, China, India, Malawi and Nigeria), we reported the average level of investments in social expenditures made by all the other countries under investigation. In the second place, we decided to include the “Working Abroad Index” as national institutional dimension; in particular, it is an index developed by InterNations, a leading network and guide for expats spread across 390 cities worldwide. The group created Expat Insider, that is one of the largest cross-national surveys: more than 12,500 respondents representing 166 nationalities answered to their questionnaires, providing insights from the fourth-year of development of the investigation (Expat Insider, 2017). The variable selected for the present study, specifically, has been built basing on a sample of 65 countries, with at least 100 respondents per country. Furthermore, the items used to develop the index were based on perceptions of individuals, and not on level objective data (as the other institutional variable considered). However, we believe that the results could be rather representative and useful for the purpose of our investigation. As a matter of facts, respondents of the survey were asked to rate their satisfaction -on a scale from one to seven (when four meant neutral and seven the highest possible rating)- with three main spheres of analysis: Job & Career, Work/Life Balance, and Job Security. The three elements, taken together, reflect the overall labour situation of a specific country, focusing in particular on job and career prospects and opportunities, the level of supportiveness of nations in helping individual to reach a good work/life balance, the satisfaction perceived by individuals with the average time spent on working, and the degree by which citizens feel secure in their jobs. Although the index has been used in several within-country studies (among others, Sardana and Zhu, 2017; Omonijo *et al.*, 2015), we would like to take advance of its cross-national nature and width and use it to compare country situations regarding work and family

interdependencies across different national labour markets. As for the first index, in the four countries for which we had missing values (Estonia, Malawi, Slovakia, and Slovenia), we reported the average Working Abroad Index of the other countries.

On the other side, concerning *cultural dimensions*, we selected two additional national indexes aimed at explaining the cultural values and attitudes that shape behaviours of citizens when they deal with work/family interactions. In particular, these indexes have been selected from the Global Leadership Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project of 2004. GLOBE is an organization composed by more than 200 researchers spread across 62 countries studying the relationships among societal culture, leadership and organizational practices. Specifically, with its innovativeness in scale and scope, the project gathered results based on data from 17,300 middle managers in 951 enterprises in the financial services, food processing, and telecommunications industries, as well as measures of national economic prosperity and physical and psychological well-being of the cultures under investigation (GLOBE, 2007). In this particular project, culture is defined as “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations” (House *et al.*, 2004, p. 15). Overall, there were defined and calculated nine cultural dimensions obtained in two phases of the GLOBE project. In the first stage, researchers identified and developed numerous measures of societal culture: hundreds of items were assessed in different pilot studies and analysed through psychometric procedures such as item analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and generalizability analysis in order to define the nine dimensions that could explain societal culture related to organizational behaviour. Among those nine dimensions, we selected just two of them (collectivism and humane orientation), since we believe that they are the more meaningful for the purposes of the analysis -as also supported by the literature (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009)-. Specifically, GLOBE defined collectivism as “the degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward (and should encourage and reward) collective distribution of resources and collective action” and humane orientation as “the degree to which a collective encourages and rewards (and should encourage and reward) individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others” (2007). From these two indicators, we could understand the attitude of a specific culture toward a community (and family) orientation, that in turn may shape the relationship

between a certain family situation and consequent career decisions. Finally, as for the two institutional variables, in the four countries for which we had missing values (Belgium, Malawi, Norway, and Slovakia), we reported the average value of the variable in all the other countries. After having defined the country level variables, it is possible to introduce our assumptions regarding the moderating effect of cross-national dimensions on the main relationship, trying to respond to Research Question three. In particular, we hypothesized that a more family-oriented society will emphasize the role of family in individuals' lives; this orientation, though, may have different effects on the main relationship under analysis. Indeed, we expect that a higher level of institutional supportiveness designed to help individuals in managing their family and work responsibilities will weaken the effect that a demanding family may have in limiting personal career decisions. In fact, a family-friendly institutional context might lessen the impact of family burden toward work domain, allowing people to make decisions more freely. Therefore, the related hypotheses will be the following:

H3a: A higher family-friendliness of institutional dimensions (ID) will weaken the constrain effect that a demanding family (FS) may have on the intention to quit (IQ).

H3b: A higher family-friendliness of institutional dimensions (ID) will weaken the effect that a demanding family (FS) may have on enacted managerial aspirations (EMA).

On the other side, a national culture that incentivizes people to care for their family, friends, and elders, may increase their feeling of responsibility toward the others, strengthening in this way the employees' research for job stability (postulated in H_{1a}) and at the same time encouraging them to engage more in enacted career aspirations (postulated in H_{1b}) in order to grow intra-firm, getting more resources and benefits to be shared with family members while having a certain degree of stability that will allow them to dedicate time and energies to the household.

H3c: Higher family-orientation in cultural dimensions (CD) will strengthen the constrain effect that a demanding family (FS) may have on the intention to quit (IQ).

H3d: Higher family-orientation in cultural dimensions (CD) will strengthen the effect that a demanding family (FS) may have on enacted managerial aspirations (EMA).

Control variables. In order to verify the existence of other effects in explaining the observed values of intention to quit and enacted managerial aspirations, the following control variables have been introduced in the regression model:

- Gender (male = 1, female = 2): we controlled for gender since women nowadays still bear the main responsibility for household work, making it harder for them to handle both a career and a family life (Abendroth & Dulk, 2011). Indeed, much of the analysis carried out regarding the interactions between home life and career outcomes has been viewed also through a gender lens (among others, Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Bailyn, Drago, & Kochan, 2001);
- Age (expressed through birth year): it has been added as control variable since researchers have found that age is slightly related to career decisions (e.g. on turnover: Healy, Lehman, & Mcdaniel, 1995). In addition, given the changes that have shaped the labour market presented in chapter one, different generations can experience in different ways the interdependencies between work, career and family life. In this analysis, age represents also years of work experience of the respondents, since the two variables are highly and positively correlated (0.89);
- Education (primary education=1; lower secondary school = 2; higher secondary school = 3; post-secondary non-tertiary and short-cycle tertiary school = 4; bachelor or equivalent = 5; master or equivalent = 6; doctorate or equivalent = 7): as reported by Abendroth and Dulk, “employees with a higher education are often employed in professional and managerial jobs characterized by greater responsibility and blurring boundaries that may lead to work-home interference” (2011, p. 239);
- Hierarchical position (10 hierarchical levels coded from 1 (highest) to 10 (lowest), with a mean of 5.5): as observed by Lyness and Judiesch (2001), even if the hierarchical position may change over time, we did not treat the variable as a time-dependent one since the changes in organizational positions are reflected in the “promotion” control variable. The reason why we decided to add hierarchical position as control variable is the same that justify the addition of education: high-position jobs imply more responsibilities and faded boundaries between work and family, that in turn affect the outcomes of these interdependence in terms of career decisions;

- Promotions (number of promotions that the respondents have received during his or her whole working life): it is also related to the concept used to explain the control variables of education and hierarchical level. However, being not so much correlated with the previous variables (0.135 with education and 0.189 with hierarchical level), we decided to include it in the analysis;
- Employment status (part-time = 0, full-time = 1): according to their own characteristics and preferences (centrality assigned to work, desire for independence, limitation of responsibility for the results of the company) as far as possible, employees choose different types of labour contracts. For instance, those who work part-time may decide to do so in order to have more time for other activities (e.g. family life);
- Occupation (dummy variable constructed joining managers and professionals = 1 and all the other types of occupations = 0): the two occupation categories are characterized by different sub-cultures, which may lead to differences in the management of work and family spheres;
- Sector (dummy variable constructed by dividing private organizations = 1 from other types of organizations such as public, not for profit/voluntary sector/charity, mixed firms and others = 0): to an utilitarian and profit-driven way of reasoning it contrasts one based on altruism, equality and the concept of society and collective well-being. Due to the fact that working in the non-profit or public, or mixed sectors is often linked to a person's system of values and is derived from a profound orientation, this variable might affect also the perceived influence of family situations on career decisions;
- Size of the organization (number of employees <10 = 1; 10-49 = 2; 50-259 = 3; 250-999 = 4; 1000-4999 = 5; >5000 = 6): larger companies, having more economic resources, could be able to provide better incentives and family-related supports, ultimately influencing the workers' decisions;
- Organization description (domestic = 1; multinational organization with the headquarters in your country of residence, and operations and/or divisions abroad = 2; multinational organization with headquarters in another country = 3): the international orientation of firms might influence the decision of individuals to engage in proactive managerial behaviours (e.g. if they would like to relocate), or on the other side it could limit their career aspirations (e.g. if they fear a relocation arising from a promotion), pushing them to look for other type of companies;

- Organizational tenure (expressed through years in the organization in which respondents currently work or in the last organization in which they have worked): seniority might be a relevant element that people consider when making career decisions. Indeed, as Mobley stated, “the evaluation of the cost of quitting would include such considerations as loss of seniority” (1977, p. 237);
- Time in the (last) position (expressed through years in the position or job in which respondents currently work or in the last position or job in which they have worked): the reasons of adding this element as control variable are the same that led us to add organizational tenure;
- Employers change (number of employers for which the respondents have worked): we assumed that this variable represents a sort of personal propensity to change, and that it could therefore explain some variability in the behaviours related to intention to turnover and enacted managerial aspirations;
- Occupation change (number of occupations in which respondents have worked): the reasons behind the choice of adding this factor as control variable are the same that led us to add employers change.

4.3 ANALYTICAL PROCEDURE

The analysis is developed essentially in three main parts, that correspond to the three research questions mentioned at the beginning of the chapter: the simple linear regression models for understanding the nature of the two main relationships, the multiple linear regressions with the individual-level moderator, and the multilevel models for capturing cross-level interactions when introducing the country-level moderators. All the analyses were performed using IBM SPSS 22.

As first step, right after having identified and measured all the variables composing the model, we run the reliability tests (Cronbach's alpha) and the Explanatory Factor Analyses (EFAs) on the scales used in the model in order to verify their internal consistency and unidimensional nature. As already deepened in the previous part of the chapter, the results of the investigation revealed an overall actual reliability and internal consistency of the items composing the scales.

At this point, we started working on the two simple linear regression models to verify the first hypotheses (H_{1a} and H_{1b}) made. In the first place, it was analysed the correlation existing between all the variables that were supposed to be included in the model. While the variable related to the overall work experience -strongly correlated with age (.892) and with organizational tenure (.641)-, and the variable representing the time in position/job -strongly correlated with organizational tenure (.627)- have been removed from the model, all the other variables do not have correlations equal or higher than .600, and they have been therefore kept in the model. However, since few variables have a correlation between .500 and .700, we examined the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) in the regression analysis, quantifying the severity of multicollinearity. In particular, we found that no factors have a VIF higher than 2.5 or a Tolerance lower than .400, and we could thus state that there is no worrying correlation among the selected variables. In detail, a summary of the variables' correlation is shown in Table 6.

Table 6 – Variables correlation table.

	MEAN	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
<i>Level 1</i>												
1	Gender	1.514	.499	1								
2	Age	39.730	10.884	-.039**	1							
3	Employment status	.888	.314	-.197**	-.044**	1						
4	Occupation	.619	.485	-.024**	.083**	.110**	1					
5	Work Experience	16.230	10.616	-.057**	.892**	-.029**	.009	1				
6	Organizational tenure	8.960	8.660	-.050**	.599**	-.007	-.010	.641**	1			
7	Time in position/job	6.370	6.770	.005	.504**	-.040**	-.090**	.535**	.627**	1		
8	Promotions	2.320	2.325	-.131**	.284**	.109**	.222**	.306**	.146**	.000	1	
9	Employers change	3.330	2.403	.013	.222**	-.075**	-.012	.233**	-.170**	-.031**	.176**	1
10	Occupation change	2.450	1.888	-.004	.192**	-.004	.039**	.189**	-.040**	-.075**	.183**	.440**
11	Size of the organization	3.775	1.566	-.055**	.037**	.106**	.136**	.050**	.123**	-.056**	.167**	-.043**
12	Sector of the organization	.617	.485	-.135**	-.144**	.109**	-.041**	-.134**	-.163**	-.122**	.021*	-.018
13	Organization description	1.559	.778	-.090**	-.091**	.106**	.119**	-.085**	-.074**	-.148**	.117**	-.014
14	Education	4.541	1.340	.000	-.074**	.071**	.518**	-.183**	-.148**	-.189**	.135**	-.030**
15	Hierarchical position	5.530	2.254	.089**	-.112**	-.061**	-.245**	-.102**	-.092**	-.034**	-.189**	.005
16	FS	6.940	3.908	-.026**	.339**	-.035**	.090**	.293**	.232**	.165**	.157**	.043**
17	WFB	3.046	4.286	.025**	.063**	-.067**	-.052**	.075**	.086**	.087**	.004	-.030**
18	IQ	3.123	1.901	.002	-.198**	.012	-.014	-.200**	-.233**	-.173**	-.052**	.060**
19	EMA	3.922	1.490	-.054**	-.248**	.117**	.147**	-.255**	-.196**	-.237**	.130**	-.043**
<i>Level 2</i>												
1	Working Abroad Index	32.733	18.786	1								
2	Social expenditures	14.461	4.266	-.099**	1							
3	Collectivism	4.301	.402	.392**	-.232**	1						
4	Humane Orientation	3.934	.358	-.086**	-.374**	.361**	1					

** : correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); * : correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); n(Level 1) = 12,064 to 12,309; n(Level 2) = 26.

Table 6 – Variables correlation table (continues).

		MEAN	SD	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
<i>Level 1</i>													
1	Gender	1.514	.499										
2	Age	39.730	10.884										
3	Employment status	.888	.314										
4	Occupation	.619	.485										
5	Work Experience	16.230	10.616										
6	Organizational tenure	8.960	8.660										
7	Time in position/job	6.370	6.770										
8	Promotions	2.320	2.325										
9	Employers change	3.330	2.403										
10	Occupation change	2.450	1.888	1									
11	Size of the organization	3.775	1.566	.007	1								
12	Sector of the organization	.617	.485	-.013	-.089**	1							
13	Organization description	1.559	.778	.036**	.348**	.335**	1						
14	Education	4.541	1.340	-.016	.168**	-.048**	.101**	1					
15	Hierarchical position	5.530	2.254	.001	.081**	-.040**	-.019*	-.187**	1				
16	FS	6.940	3.908	.071**	.049**	-.090**	-.034**	.000	-.056**	1			
17	WFB	3.046	4.286	-.015	-.036**	-.055**	-.030**	-.071**	-.043**	.032**	1		
18	IQ	3.123	1.901	.030**	-.016	.116**	.054**	.078**	.091**	-.106**	-.178**	1	
19	EMA	3.922	1.490	-.009	.110**	.083**	.164**	.178**	-.101**	-.051**	.037**	.087**	1
<i>Level 2</i>													
1	Working Abroad Index	32.733	18.786										
2	Social expenditures	14.461	4.266										
3	Collectivism	4.301	.402										
4	Humane Orientation	3.934	.358										

** : correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); * : correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); n(Level 1) = 12,064 to 12,309; n(Level 2) = 26.

Secondly, before proceeding the analysis with the estimation of the simple regression model, it could be useful to look at the distribution of the two dependent variables. In particular, it is possible to see that the chart representing the intention to quit of the respondents (Figure 4.7) is characterized by a slight distribution asymmetry to the left, indicating that the subjects composing the sample are on average less prone to leave their organizations. On the other hand, the distribution of the values of enacted managerial aspirations of the interviewed people (Figure 4.8) is more similar to a normal distribution.

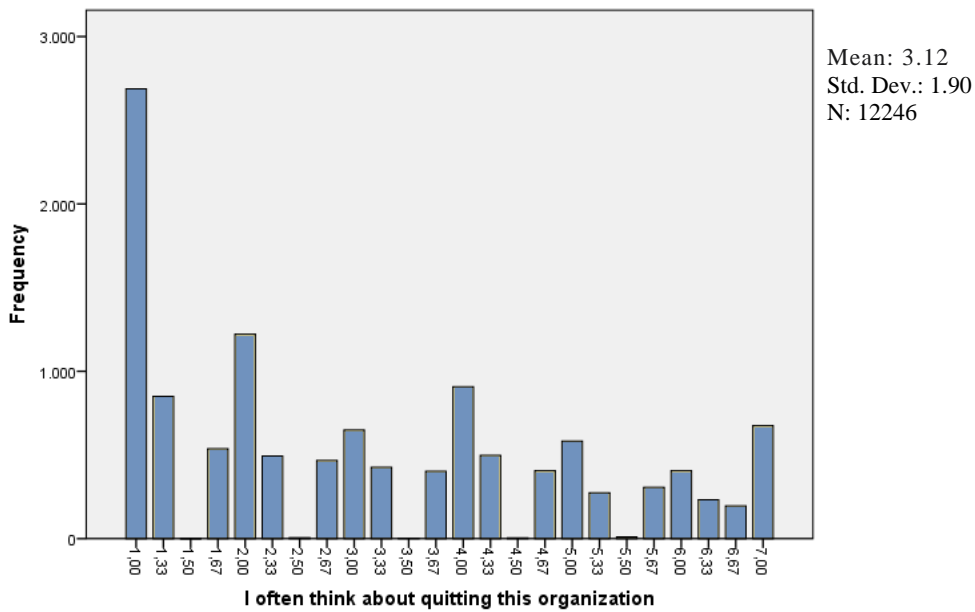


Figure 4.7 - Frequency distribution of Intention to Quit.

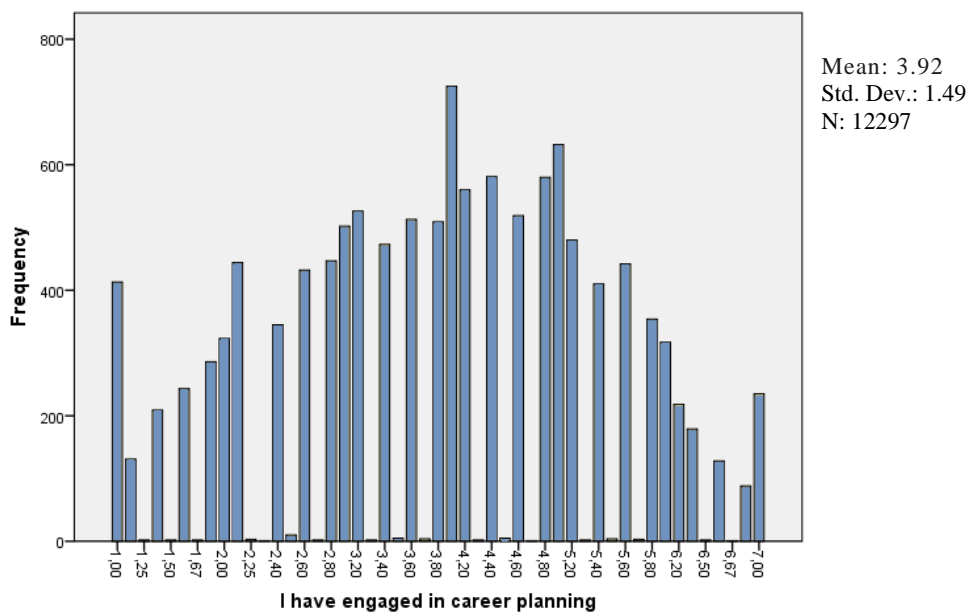


Figure 4.8 - Frequency distribution of Enacted Managerial Aspirations.

The first step in the regression analysis was the development of the simple linear regression model for the confirmation of the first the hypotheses formerly enounced. In particular, we performed the regression including the control variables, and adding the family situation as explanatory variable. The model so far hypothesized that will be used to test H_{1a} and H_{1b} can be summarized in the following equation:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$$

where y_i represents the dependent variable, β_0 is the intercept, β_1 is the coefficient of the regression line, x_i is the independent variable, and ε_i is the error term.

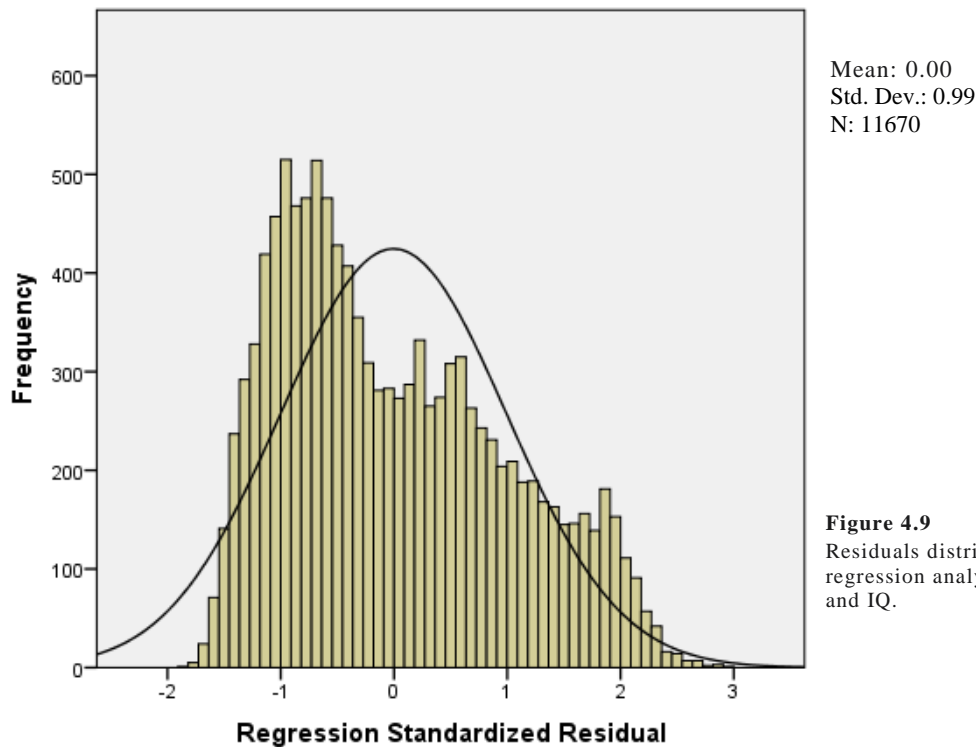
Thereafter, we focused on the regression models with work/family balance as individual-level moderator in the relationship between personal family situations and the career behaviours selected as dependent variables. In order to run this type of examination, we previously started by centering the FS and the WFB variables: the “centering procedure” consists in subtracting from each value of the variable the overall average of that specific variable before the computation of products, in order to avoid multicollinearity problems, and to guarantee that the coefficients for the two variables that define the product will be interpretable within the range of the data (Hayes, 2012). For construction, centered variables will be characterized by an average of 0, but they will maintain the same standard deviation as before the centering process. Moreover, to eventually perform the regression model with the individual-level moderator, it was necessary to calculate the interaction term between the independent variable and the moderator, by multiplying the two centered factors obtained before. Finally, we run the regression model through the support of the SPSS statistical program in order to respond to the second Research Question (thus verifying hypotheses H_{2a} and H_{2b}). In particular, it was estimated by adding in the regression model the control variables, the explanatory variables, and the moderators in the following order:

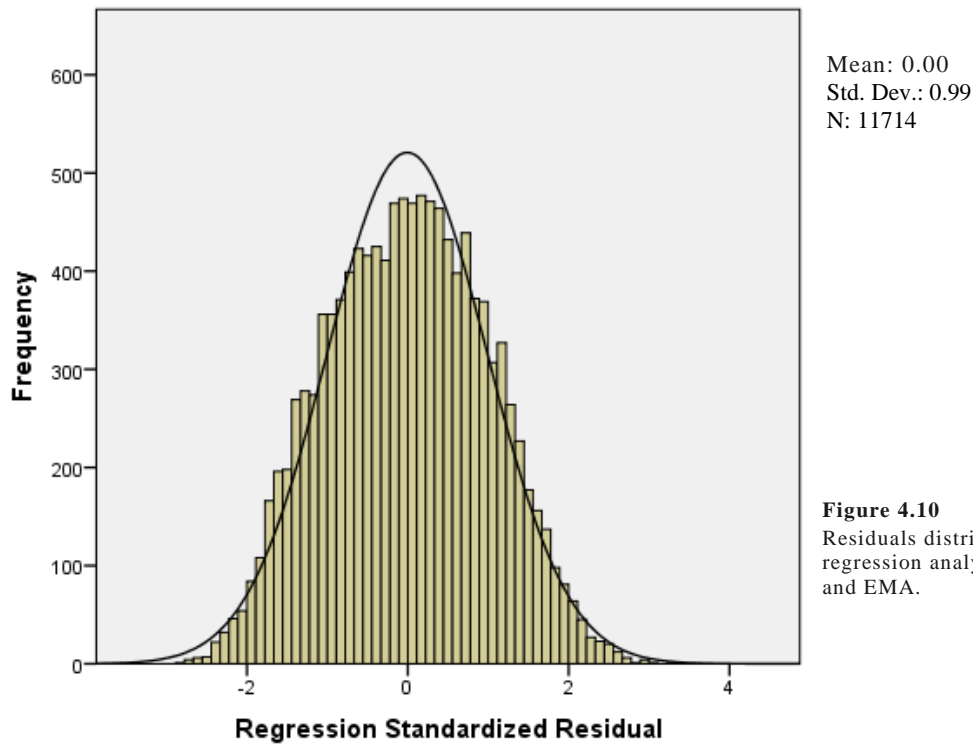
- a) Control variables: Gender, age, employment status, occupation, organizational tenure, time in position/job, promotions, employers change, occupation change, size and sector of the organization, organization description, education, hierarchical position;
- b) Centered explanatory variable (FS);
- c) Centered moderator (WFB);
- d) Interaction term (centered FS * centered WFB).

At this point, the formula of the proposed regression model has become the following:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_M M + \beta_{x_i M} (x_i * M) + \varepsilon_i$$

where y_i represents the dependent variable, β_0 is the intercept, β_i is the coefficient of the variable i , x_i is the independent variable, M is the moderator, $(x_i * M)$ is the interaction term, and ε_i is the error term. Finally, to check whether the assumption at the basis of a regression analysis was supported, we plotted the histograms of the residual values in order to verify that they were actually normally distributed (see Figure 4.9 and Figure 4.10). In addition to that, we checked whether the data were homoscedastic (i.e. the residuals are equal across the regression line). As confirmed by the Breusch-Pagan heteroscedasticity test, the variance of the errors from our regression analysis is actually dependent on the values of the independent variable, and thus, heteroskedasticity is present. Indeed, the Breusch-Pagan test statistic had a p-value below the 1% threshold in both the regression models (the first one assuming IQ as dependent variable, and the second one predicting EMA), and hence the null hypothesis of homoskedasticity has been rejected and heteroskedasticity assumed in both cases.





Finally, the last stage of the empirical analysis consists in the multilevel modelling: in detail, with respect to other statistical techniques, the multilevel analysis (also named as hierarchical linear model, nested data model, random coefficient model, or mixed model) indicates how a model as a whole fits the data through testing the different relationships simultaneously. Specifically, this type of model is normally used in the analysis of data with a hierarchical or clustered structure, such as in case of cross-national studies, in which there are individuals nested within national units (Hox & Maas, 2005). In detail, our method involved incorporating the hypothesized interaction effects at the individual level along with cross-level interactions (to test H_{3a} , H_{3b} , H_{3c} , and H_{3d}); indeed, research mixed models are generally used to compare individuals nested in countries (Möhring, 2012). Moreover, it is important to underline that “standard ordinary least squares (OLS) regression models depend on the assumption of the independency of observations which is violated in hierarchically nested data [...]. Therefore, multilevel models are applied to account for the nested structure of the data – the fact that inhabitants of the same country are likely to be more similar than individuals from different countries” (Möhring, 2012, p. 6). In our case, as suggested by the Möhring (2012), the moderator effect of country-level (level 2) characteristics will be estimated by means of cross-level interaction effects.

In practice, we carried out our multilevel modelling by first estimating an intercept only (null) model, that is the simplest multilevel model which allows for country effects on the dependent variables, but without explanatory variables or moderators. As estimation method, we used the Maximum Likelihood (ML), that produces as outcomes estimated parameter values that make the probability of observing the data highest (Hox & Maas, 2005). After that, to test the actual significance of country effects, we performed a likelihood ratio test (LR), comparing the null multilevel model with a null single-level model. In particular, we calculated it as the difference in the $-2 \times \log$ likelihood values for the two null models (Steele, 2008). Since the likelihood ratio test statistic result was in both cases (with IQ and EMA as dependent variables) higher than the 5% critical value of a Chi-square distribution with 1 d.f. (considering that the likelihood ratio statistic converges in distribution to a Chi-square distribution with r degrees of freedom), we came to the conclusion that there exist actually country effects on the two dependent variables (Steele, 2008). Moreover, the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) levels of our dependent variables demonstrated that variance exists both at individual and country levels of analysis (ICC = .076 for IQ and ICC = .112 for EMA). As a matter of facts, that means that 7,6% and 11,2% represent the degree to which differences in Y (IQ and EMA, respectively) lies between Level 2 units; hence, we further supported the idea that it would be appropriate to utilize multilevel modelling (Dyer, Hanges, & Hall, 2005). Therefore, we used models in which cross-level interactions were examined (i.e., those including the moderation by each institutional and cultural dimension), and in particular we adopted random intercept models. Finally, to test the goodness of fit of the statistical models, we systematically calculated the deviance change ($-2 \times (\text{Log Likelihood})$) significance comparing Model n to Model $n-1$. Indeed, the deviance statistic is generally used in nested models in order to test the hypothesis that additional explanatory variables do not improve the fit of the model (Singer & Willett, 2003). In order to do that, we used the likelihood ratio test to compute a p-value, considering that the distribution of the deviance statistic is chi-square with d.f. equal to the number of extra parameters in the new model proposed (Singer & Willett, 2003).

Consistently with the theoretical approach proposed by Enders and Tofighi (2007), all independent variables were grand-mean centered before running the model estimation. Indeed, as suggested by Paccagnella “a centering approach removes collinearity, [and] stabilizes the model” (2006, p. 83).

Adopting a random intercept multilevel model means that intercepts are allowed to vary, and therefore the dependent variables for each individual observation are predicted by the intercept that varies across groups (in this case, across countries). A graphical representation of the concept is proposed in Figure 4.11.

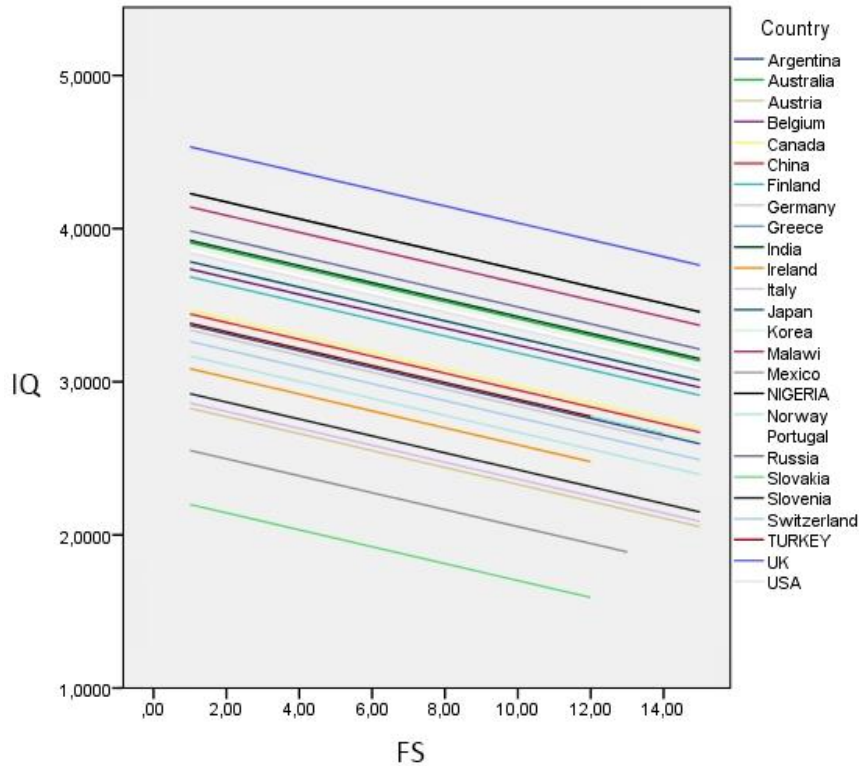


Figure 4.11 – Random intercept model.

Concretely, we estimated two groups of empirical models. The first group predicted IQ starting from the control variables (the same used for controlling the earlier described linear regressions), and then adding the grand-mean centered independent variable of level 1, the grand-mean centered independent variables of level 2 expressing cross-country variation (one for each different model built), and finally adding the interaction term for each developed model. The same process was used in order to predict the EMA using the same individual-level and national-level variables. Following the procedure suggested by Hox, Moerbeek, and van de Schoot (2010), in order to get the complete two-levels equation, we started from the Level 1 equation introduced before:

$$y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}x_{1j} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

At this point, we analysed the variation of the regression coefficient β_j introducing independent variables at country level:

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_1 z_j + u_{0j} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11} z_j + u_{1j}$$

where β_{0j} represents the intercept of the dependent variable (y_i) in country j (Level 2), γ_{00} is the overall intercept, γ_1 is the regression slope between the dependent variable (y_i) and the Level 2 predictor, z_j represent the Level 2 predictor, and u_{0j} is the residual error term at country level. Moreover, β_{1j} is the coefficient for the relationship country j between the Level 1 predictor (x_{1j}) and the dependent variable (y_i), γ_{10} is the overall regression slope between the dependent variable (y_i) and the individual level predictor (x_{1j}), γ_{11} is the specific regression coefficient between the dependent variable (y_i) and the country level predictor z_j , and finally, u_{1j} is the residual error for the slope (i.e. the deviation of the group slopes from the overall slope).

Finally, our model with two-level explanatory variables could be written as a unique complex regression equation rearranging the previous equations:

$$y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10} x_{1j} + \gamma_1 z_j + \gamma_{11} x_{1j} z_j + u_{1j} x_{1j} + u_{0j} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

4.4 RESULTS

The results obtained from the linear regression models, aimed at verifying the first hypotheses of the model, are shown in Table 7 and 8. In detail, models 1 and 2 tested the hypotheses 1a and 1b, that were based on the assumption that to a more demanding family situation (higher FS) corresponds (H_{1a}) a reduced employees' intention to quit (lower IQ), and (H_{1b}) a higher level of engagement in enacted managerial aspirations (higher EMA). As it could be seen from the summary tables, we discovered that both hypotheses H_{1a} and H_{1b} have been verified. Indeed, in the model in which the dependent variable is the intention to quit, the results confirmed the fact that the a more demanding family generally implies a lower intention to leave experienced by the family member (the standardized coefficient γ is in fact -.033). On the other side, considering EMA as output variable, the hypothesis is confirmed too: indeed, there is significant evidence that the proactivity in pursuing career aspirations increases with family situation ($\gamma = .021$). Overall, it is possible to see from the ΔR^2 significance that the first three

estimated models are always significant, indicating that adding new variables has been always useful for explaining the observed data. However, the models that consider interactions between explanatory variables and moderators are not significant in the two cases (neither when IQ is the dependent variable, nor when it is EMA). Therefore, the perceived level of satisfaction of individual with work/family balance does directly influence their career behaviours (IQ and EMA), but it does not affect the way through which family life impacts on career intentions. In fact, even though the interaction term strengthens both the relation between FS and IQ ($\gamma = .006$) and FS and EMA ($\gamma = .001$) as hypothesized, it is not significant ($p = .519$ in the former moderation and $p = .505$ in the latter); thus, H_{2a} and H_{2b} were not supported.

Table 7 – Standardized coefficients (Y = IQ).

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
<i>CONTROL VARIABLES</i>				
Gender	-.006	-.007	-.004	-.004
Age	-.111**	-.101**	-.097**	-.097**
Employment status	.003	.002	.006	.006
Occupation	-.027*	-.025*	-.031*	-.031*
Organizational tenure	-.119**	-.118**	-.111**	-.111**
Promotions	-.012*	-.010	-.008	-.009
Employers change	.059**	.058**	.052**	.052**
Occupation change	.026*	.026*	.026*	.026*
Size of the organization	-.005	-.005	-.010	-.009
Sector of the organization	.085**	-.084**	.076**	.076**
Organization description	.005	.004	.007	.007
Education	.090**	.089**	.082**	.082**
Hierarchical position	.080**	.080**	.072**	.071**
<i>INDEPENDENT VARIABLE</i>				
FS		-.033**	-.031**	-.031**
<i>MODERATOR</i>				
WFB			-.149**	-.148**
<i>INTERACTION TERM</i>				
FS*WFB				.006
Adjusted R ²	.078	.079	.101	.101
ΔR^2 Significance	.000	.000	.000	.519

Notes: R² change significance is determined comparing Model n to Model $n-1$; ** $p < .001$ level; * $p < .05$ level; + $p < .1$ level; $n = 12,064$ to $12,309$.

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Table 8 – Standardized coefficients (Y = EMA).

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
<i>CONTROL VARIABLES</i>				
Gender	-.018*	-.017*	-.019*	-.019*
Age	-.248**	-.254**	-.256**	-.256**
Employment status	.053**	.054**	.058**	.058**
Occupation	.059**	.058**	.060**	.060**
Organizational tenure	-.070**	-.071**	-.074**	-.074**
Promotions	.149**	.148**	.147**	.147**
Employers change	-.021*	-.020 ⁺	-.017 ⁺	-.017 ⁺
Occupation change	.013	.013	.013	.014
Size of the organization	.059**	.058**	.061**	.061**
Sector of the organization	.008	.009	.013	.013
Organization description	.072**	.072**	.071**	.071**
Education	.063**	.063**	.067**	.067**
Hierarchical position	-.079**	-.079**	-.075**	-.075**
<i>INDEPENDENT VARIABLE</i>				
FS		.021*	.020*	.020*
<i>MODERATOR</i>				
WFB			.072**	.072**
<i>INTERACTION TERM</i>				
FS*WFB				.001
Adjusted R ²	.148	.149	.154	.154
ΔR^2 Significance	.000	.023	.000	.505

Notes: R² change significance is determined comparing Model *n* to Model *n-1*; **p<.001 level; * p<.05 level; + p<.1 level; n= 12,064 to 12,309.

The next set of hypotheses concerns the cross-level interactions of institutional and cultural dimensions. In particular, it is tested if the negative relationships between FS and IQ (H_{3a}) and FS and EMA (H_{3b}) will be weaker in a society characterized by more family-friendly institutions (ID), and if cultural values (CD) that emphasize the role of family and family care strengthen the relationship between FS and the dependent variables (if Y = IQ: H_{3c}; if Y = EMS: H_{3d}). Models 4-11 in Tables 9 and 10 present the results whereby IQ is the output variable, while Models 4-11 in Table 12 and 13 show the results whereby EMA is our dependent variable.

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Table 9 – Multilevel models predicting IQ.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
<i>INTERCEPT</i>	3.149**	3.185**	3.267**
<i>LEVEL 1</i>			
Gender		-.011	-.014
Age		-.023**	-.021**
Employment status		-.081	-.101 ⁺
Occupation		-.086*	-.078 ⁺
Organizational tenure		-.020**	-.020**
Promotions		-.020*	-.018*
Employers change		.028**	.027**
Occupation change		.040**	.041**
Size of the organization		-.021 ⁺	-.019
Sector of the organization		.337**	.332**
Organization description		.085**	.086**
Education		.116**	.116**
Hierarchical position		.045**	.044**
FS			-.024**
<i>VARIANCE COMPONENTS</i>			
Residual Variance $\hat{\sigma}^2$ (Within)	3.384**	3.131**	3.120**
Residual Variance $\hat{\tau}_{00}$ (Between)	.275**	.255**	.262**
Deviance	49773	46530	46503
Deviance Change		3243**	27**
ICC	.075	.075	.078

Notes: deviance change significance is determined comparing Model n to Model $n-1$ by using the 5% critical value of a Chi-square distribution; ** $p < .001$ level; * $p < .05$ level; + $p < .1$ level; n(Level 1) = 12,064 to 12,309.

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Table 10 – Multilevel models with cross-level interactions predicting IQ (M = ID).

	Model 4 <i>Social Expenditures</i>	Model 5 <i>Social Expenditures</i>	Model 6 <i>Working Abroad Index</i>	Model 7 <i>Working Abroad Index</i>
<i>INTERCEPT</i>	3.116**	3.118**	3.091**	3.095**
<i>LEVEL 1</i>				
Gender	-.014	-.013	-.013	-.014
Age	-.021**	-.021**	-.021**	-.021**
Employment status	-.101 ⁺	-.102 ⁺	-.102 ⁺	-.103 ⁺
Occupation	-.079 ⁺	-.078 ⁺	-.078 ⁺	-.077 ⁺
Organizational tenure	-.020**	-.020**	-.020**	-.020**
Promotions	-.017*	-.017*	-.017*	-.018*
Employers change	.027**	.027**	.027**	.027**
Occupation change	.041**	.041**	.041**	.041**
Size of the organization	-.019	-.019	-.019	-.019
Sector of the organization	.332**	.331**	.331**	.331**
Organization description	.085**	.085**	.086**	.086**
Education	.116**	.116**	.116**	.116**
Hierarchical position	.044**	.044**	.044**	.044**
FS	-.024**	-.024**	-.024**	-.024**
<i>LEVEL 2</i>				
Institutional dimension	.020	.020	-.003	-.003
<i>CROSS-LEVEL INTERACTION</i>				
FS * Institutional dimension		-.001		.000
<i>VARIANCE COMPONENTS</i>				
Residual Variance $\hat{\sigma}^2$ (Within)	3.124**	3.124**	3.124**	3.124**
Residual Variance $\hat{\tau}_{00}$ (Between)	.254**	.253**	.259**	.259**
Deviance	46502	46501	46503	46502
Deviance Change	1	1	0	0
ICC	.075	.075	.077	.077

Notes: deviance change significance is determined comparing Model *n* to Model 3 by using the 5% critical value of a Chi-square distribution (Models 4-11 are variants of Model 3); **p<.001 level; * p<.05 level; + p<.1 level; n(Level 1) = 12,064 to 12,309; n(Level 2) = 26.

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Table 11 – Multilevel models with cross-level interactions predicting IQ (M = CD).

	Model 8 <i>Collectivism</i>	Model 9 <i>Collectivism</i>	Model 10 <i>Humane Orientation</i>	Model 11 <i>Humane Orientation</i>
<i>INTERCEPT</i>	2.283*	3.100**	3.098**	3.094**
<i>LEVEL 1</i>				
Gender	-.013	-.013	-.014	-.014
Age	-.021**	-.021**	-.021**	-.021**
Employment status	-.101 ⁺	-.101 ⁺	-.101 ⁺	-.102 ⁺
Occupation	-.078 ⁺	-.078 ⁺	-.078 ⁺	-.077 ⁺
Organizational tenure	-.020**	-.020**	-.020**	-.020**
Promotions	-.018*	-.018*	-.018*	-.018*
Employers change	.027**	.027**	.027**	.027**
Occupation change	.041**	.041**	.041**	.041**
Size of the organization	-.019	-.019	-.019	-.019
Sector of the organization	.331**	.331**	.332**	.332**
Organization description	.086**	.086**	.086**	.085**
Education	.116**	.116**	.116**	.116**
Hierarchical position	.044**	.044**	.044**	.044**
FS	-.024**	-.024**	-.024**	-.024**
<i>LEVEL 2</i>				
Cultural dimension	.190	.192	.187	.189
<i>CROSS-LEVEL INTERACTION</i>				
FS * Cultural dimension		.005		.007
<i>VARIANCE COMPONENTS</i>				
Residual Variance $\hat{\sigma}^2$ (Within)	3.124**	3.124**	3.124**	3.124**
Residual Variance $\hat{\tau}_{00}$ (Between)	.256**	.256**	.258**	.258**
Deviance	46502	46502	46502	46502
Deviance Change	1	0	1	0
ICC	.076	.076	.076	.076

Notes: deviance change significance is determined comparing Model *n* to Model 3 by using the 5% critical value of a Chi-square distribution (Models 4-11 are variants of Model 3); **p<.001 level; * p<.05 level; + p<.1 level; n(Level 1) = 12,064 to 12,309; n(Level 2) = 26.

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Table 12 – Multilevel models predicting EMA.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
<i>INTERCEPT</i>	4.022**	4.401**	4.387**
<i>LEVEL 1</i>			
Gender		.001	.002
Age		-.035**	-.035**
Employment status		.119*	.122*
Occupation		.278**	.277**
Organizational tenure		-.007**	-.007**
Promotions		.083**	.082**
Employers change		-.003	-.003
Occupation change		.027**	.027**
Size of the organization		.071**	.071**
Sector of the organization		.010	.011
Organization description		.154**	.154**
Education		.054**	.054**
Hierarchical position		-.048**	-.048**
FS			.004
<i>VARIANCE COMPONENTS</i>			
Residual Variance $\hat{\sigma}^2$ (Within)	1.980**	1.704**	1.704**
Residual Variance $\hat{\tau}_{00}$ (Between)	.250**	.213**	.212**
Deviance	43399	39589	39587
Deviance Change		3811**	2
ICC	.112	.111	.111

Notes: deviance change significance is determined comparing Model n to Model $n-1$ by using the 5% critical value of a Chi-square distribution; ** $p < .001$ level; * $p < .05$ level; + $p < .1$ level; n(Level 1) = 12,064 to 12,309.

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Table 13 – Multilevel models with cross-level interactions predicting EMA (M = ID).

	Model 4 <i>Social Expenditures</i>	Model 5 <i>Social Expenditures</i>	Model 6 <i>Working Abroad Index</i>	Model 7 <i>Working Abroad Index</i>
<i>INTERCEPT</i>	4.424**	4.426**	4.394**	4.407**
<i>LEVEL 1</i>				
Gender	.002	.003	.002	-.001
Age	-.035**	-.035**	-.035**	-.035**
Employment status	.122*	.121*	.121*	.116*
Occupation	.276**	.277**	.277**	.278**
Organizational tenure	-.007**	-.007**	-.007**	-.007**
Promotions	.082**	.082**	.082**	.082**
Employers change	-.003	-.003	-.003	-.003
Occupation change	.027**	.027**	.027**	.027**
Size of the organization	.071**	.071**	.071**	.071**
Sector of the organization	.011	.010	.010	.009
Organization description	.154**	.154**	.154**	.155**
Education	.054**	.053**	.053**	.054**
Hierarchical position	-.048**	-.048**	-.047**	-.047**
FS	.004	.004	.004	.004
<i>LEVEL 2</i>				
Institutional dimension	.008	.007	-.008 ⁺	-.008 ⁺
<i>CROSS-LEVEL INTERACTION</i>				
FS * Institutional dimension		-.002*		-.001 ⁺
<i>VARIANCE COMPONENTS</i>				
Residual Variance $\hat{\sigma}^2$ (Within)	1.704**	1.703**	1.704**	1.703**
Residual Variance $\hat{\tau}_{00}$ (Between)	.211**	.210**	.190**	.189**
Deviance	39587	39582	39585	39581
Deviance Change	0	5*	2	4*
ICC	.110	.110	.100	.100

Notes: deviance change significance is determined comparing Model *n* to Model 3 by using the 5% critical value of a Chi-square distribution (Models 4-11 are variants of Model 3); **p<.001 level; * p<.05 level; + p<.1 level; n(Level 1) = 12,064 to 12,309; n(Level 2) = 26.

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Table 14 – Multilevel models with cross-level interactions predicting EMA (M = CD).

	Model 8 <i>Collectivism</i>	Model 9 <i>Collectivism</i>	Model 10 <i>Humane Orientation</i>	Model 11 <i>Humane Orientation</i>
<i>INTERCEPT</i>	4.411**	4.403**	4.407**	4.408**
<i>LEVEL 1</i>				
Gender	.001	.003	.002	.001
Age	-.035**	-.035**	-.035**	-.035**
Employment status	.123*	.125*	.122*	.120*
Occupation	.277**	.278**	.277**	.278**
Organizational tenure	-.007**	-.007**	-.007**	-.007**
Promotions	.082**	.082**	.082**	.082**
Employers change	-.003	-.003	-.003	-.003
Occupation change	.026**	.026**	.027**	.027**
Size of the organization	.071**	.071**	.071**	.071**
Sector of the organization	.011	.011	.011	.011
Organization description	.153**	.153**	.154**	.153**
Education	.054**	.053**	.054**	.053**
Hierarchical position	-.047**	-.047**	-.048**	-.048**
FS	.004	.004	.004	.004
<i>LEVEL 2</i>				
Cultural dimension	-.367 ⁺	-.364 ⁺	.255	.259
<i>CROSS-LEVEL INTERACTION</i>				
FS * Cultural dimension		.012 ⁺		.015 ⁺
<i>VARIANCE COMPONENTS</i>				
Residual Variance $\hat{\sigma}^2$ (Within)	1.704**	1.703**	1.704**	1.703**
Residual Variance $\hat{\tau}_{00}$ (Between)	.188**	.188**	.204**	.205**
Deviance	39584	39582	39586	39584
Deviance Change	3	2	1	2
ICC	.099	.099	.107	.107

Notes: deviance change significance is determined comparing Model *n* to Model 3 by using the 5% critical value of a Chi-square distribution (Models 4-11 are variants of Model 3); **p<.001 level; * p<.05 level; + p<.1 level; n(Level 1) = 12,064 to 12,309; n(Level 2) = 26.

As it is possible to see from the Tables of results, only two of the four hypotheses involving country-level moderators have been supported from the data. Indeed, if we found that it exists a significant moderating effect of institutional and cultural dimension in the relationship between FS and EMA, the same could not be said for what concerns the impact of FS on IQ.

In particular, we verified that institutional dimensions (social expenditures and Working Abroad Index) soften the impact of a demanding family situation on EMA (H_{3b}), and that, on the contrary, cultural dimensions related to country family-orientation (collectivism and humane orientation) strengthen the effect of a demanding family on EMA (H_{3d}). The significance of the country-level variables added as moderators could be observed also looking at the ICC values: indeed, when we introduced Level 2 variables, its value diminished: this means that moderators contributed to explain part of the variability in the dependent variable that lies between countries. However, the results of these moderating effects were not significant when we consider the relationship between FS and IQ; thus, neither H_{3a} nor H_{3c} were supported.

Therefore, the proposed model reviewed after the empirical investigation could be summarized in Figure 4.12.

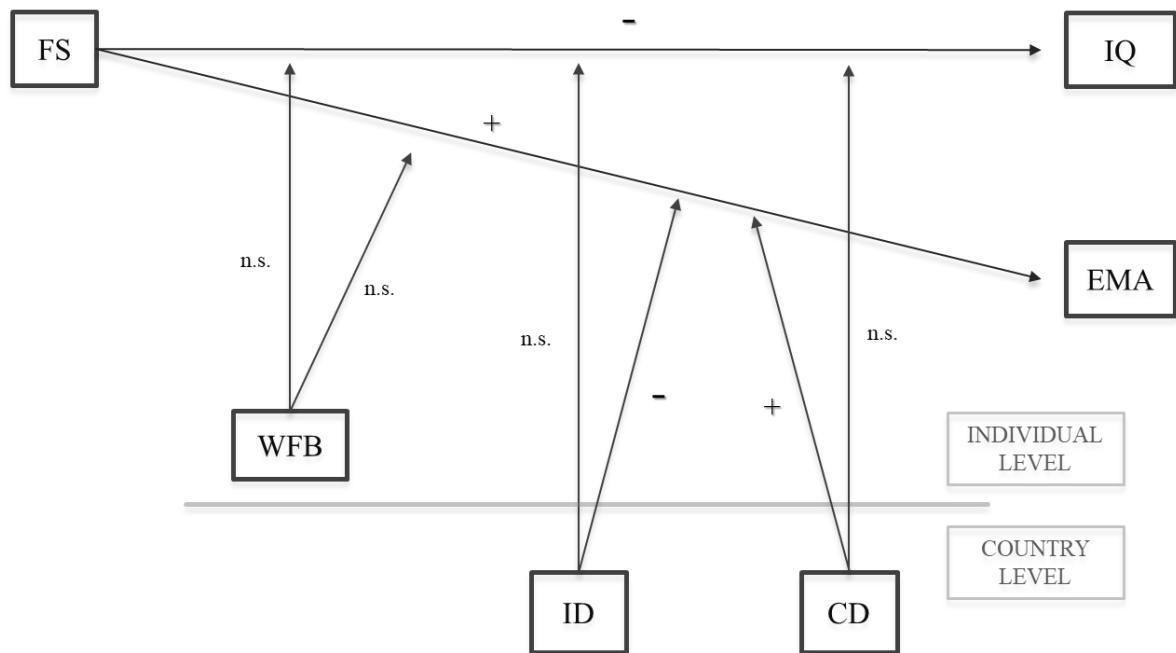


Figure 4.12 – The proposed model: empirical results (pluses and minuses represent the verified directions of the relationships).

4.5 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

As it could be seen from Figure 4.12, some of the hypothesized relationships were confirmed and some others not. The aim of this section is thus to discuss the results obtained, trying to interpret the data taking also into consideration the theories presented in the literature review, developed in the first chapters of the research. In particular, we will articulate the following discussion on three level of analysis, respectively related to the three research questions mentioned in the first part of chapter four.

Specifically, our first objective was to verify if, as suggested by the literature of the last decades (among others, Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012), the degree of commitment that a specific type of family requires in terms of relational time and energies invested, significantly influences some career behaviours of its members. Thus, the focus of the empirical investigation has been understanding the presence or absence, the strength and the direction of the that bond -defined by Greenhaus and Powell (2012) the family-relatedness of work decisions- on two main variables: employee's intention to quit (H_{1a}) and his or her enacted managerial aspirations (H_{1b}). Our expectations about the results of the first question (H_{1a}) were based on the theories according to which a more demanding family structure affects the employees' intention to leave by inducing a desire for stability (the so-called stability intention) (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010; Lee & Maurer, 1999; Stroh, Brett, & Reilly, 1996; Steers, Mowday, & Porter, 1979). Our decision to empirically test this assumption was motivated by the fact that most of the studies aimed at exploring the relationship between family situation and intention to turnover are only theoretical (e.g. Powell & Greenhaus, 2010), or they are too outdated to be able to represent the last changes that are nowadays shaping the family life and the working environment in our societies (among others, Lee & Maurer, 1999; Stroh, Brett, & Reilly, 1996; Steers, Mowday, & Porter, 1979). The results of the linear regression model have shed light on the fact that a more demanding family situation (higher values of FS) actually incentivizes employees not to leave their organizations. Indeed, as predicted, we found out that FS has a significant negative impact on IQ (standardized coefficient equals -.033, $p < .001$ level). This result implies that a worker with a family life that requires his or her attention, energies, time, and resources, will be discouraged to leave the organization; FS could be therefore considered as an indicator of stability.

On the other side, considering the other dependent variable of the model (H_{1b}), and following the reasoning used for developing and interpreting H_{1a}, we hypothesized that, if a demanding family situation incentivizes people to stay in their organizations, it will at the same time encourage them to invest more in developing their career aspirations within their current firms, focusing thus on an intra-firm growth. Due to the fact that the relationship between family and career decisions is still overlooked, and that the concept of EMA has been developing in recent years, the theoretical background in this field is almost inexistent. However, we found support in the empirical results: as expected, indeed, we observed that FS has a substantial impact on the propensity of individuals to engage in EMA, (standardized coefficient equals .021, $p < .001$ level). These first two result of our empirical analysis mean that a worker that has a high-effort family life is overall more prone to stay in his or her current organization, and concurrently be more proactive in managing his or her career aspirations intra-firm. These phenomena could be interpreted in light of the fact that people may want to avoid time-based, stress-based or strain-based conflicts that could arise from seeking and/or starting a new job, and/or they might not be willing to quit their job because they have economic responsibilities toward the family (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Moreover, economic reasons might be an additional element to justify the fact that a high-demanding family is a factor of encouragement when dealing with EMA.

The second Research Question of the current investigation was focused on exploring the effects of individual attitudes and current state with respect to the balance between work and family management. In particular, the goal was to understand in which way the value that workers attribute to the balance of family and work domains (and their self-reported level of reconciliation achieved) shapes the relationship between family structure and responsibilities and career behaviours. For doing that, therefore, we used the personal satisfaction with work/family balance achieved as individual-level moderator of the main relationship already deepened in the previous research question. Before running the empirical tests, we hypothesized that an employee that has reached a good level of satisfaction in his or her work/family balance (calculated as the importance attributed to WFB times its actual level of achievement) would have been be less prone to leave from the current organization in which he or she works (H_{2a}). Furthermore, if the worker is happy in his or her current organization, he or she will be more inclined to engage in enacted managerial aspirations intra-firm, in order to grow internally (H_{2b}). Despite our expectations, the empirical results did not support our hypotheses on the

moderation role of WFB. Indeed, even though the standardized coefficient of the interaction terms were both positive as predicted, they were not statistically significant. However, we found out that WFB could be a good additional explanatory variable for both IQ and EMA, since it makes the Adjusted R^2 of the model grow significantly. As a consequence, we could state that the satisfaction with work/family balance achieved by individuals does not moderate the relationship between family situation and career decisions, even if it does have a direct effect on the dependent variables.

Finally, we developed an additional level of analysis in our empirical investigation, reflected in the third Research Question. In detail, we introduced two main groups of country-level variables, and we used multilevel models to test whether these dimensions moderate the relationship between family situation and career behaviours. We decided to consider also national dimensions because, as analysed in the literature review of chapter three, it is important not to overlook the societal context in which workers are placed, since it could significantly shape the way through which family situations influences the career decisions. Thus, the investigation took into account a series of institutional and cultural variables at country level in order to empirically test if they have an impact on the way through which individual's family situation influences career decisions. Our hypotheses regarding the moderating effect of cross-national dimensions on the main relationship were based on the assumption that a more family-oriented society accentuates the role of family in individuals' lives. This orientation, though, could produce different effects on the two dependent variables under analysis. On one side, we expected that a higher level of institutional supportiveness aimed at helping individuals in managing their family and work responsibilities would have weakened the impact that a demanding family may have in limiting personal career decisions (H_{3a} , H_{3c}). In fact, a family-friendly institutional context might lessen the effect of the family burden toward the work domain, allowing people to make work-related decisions more freely. On the other side, a societal culture that encourages people to care for their family, friends, and elders, may increase their feeling of responsibility toward the others, strengthening in this way the employees' research for job stability (postulated in H_{1a}) and at the same time encouraging them to engage in enacted career aspirations (postulated in H_{1b}) in order to grow intra-firm, getting in this way more resources and benefits to be shared with family members while having a certain degree of stability that will allow them to dedicate time and energies to the household (H_{3b} , H_{3d}). The

empirical analysis, however, supported half of our hypotheses. In particular, we demonstrated that if from one side the assumptions were verified (in particular, concerning the moderation of the relationship between FS and EMA), the same could not be said if we consider IQ as dependent variable. Specifically, country-level variables resulted as non-significant in moderating the relationship between FS and IQ, even though the standardized coefficients were negative for institutional dimensions and positive for cultural dimensions, as predicted. For what concerns the relationship between FS and EMA, on the other side, the hypotheses on the moderating effects were confirmed. Indeed, the data shows that more family-friendly institutions weaken the effect of FS on EMA, probably because these types of society help workers in managing their responsibilities in family and work domains (for instance, as deepened in chapter one, through social investments dedicated to families, flexible working schedules, telework, generous leave policies, and available childcare supports). Moreover, also the moderating effect of cultural dimensions on the main relationship between FS and EMA was significantly supported by empirical results. In particular, as expected due to the reasons above mentioned, we found out that more family-oriented cultures actually strengthen the impact of demanding family situations on the proactivity of employees in following their aspirations intra-company.

4.6 THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

First of all, the present investigation could make a contribution in the theoretical literature aimed at analysing the interference between private life and work domains by focusing on the effects that work/family interdependences have in the former domain. Indeed, even though the connection between family and work spheres has been already studied by several authors in the last decades, it is still missing an investigation that tries to understand the consequences of this relationship, as highlighted among others by Schooreel, Shockley, and Verbruggen (2017), and Greenhaus and Kossek (2014). As a matter of facts, unlike the existence of numerous researches on the definition and antecedents of work-family conflict, or work-family enrichment, the objective of the present analysis is to explore the concrete impact of family situations over career decisions.

In addition to that, as previously mentioned, another element that has been largely ignored in the work-private life interface literature to date have been introduced in this investigation: a variable related to the care of elder family members, friends, neighbours, or others has been included in the definition of “family situation”. Furthermore, a contribution provided by the present study is the addition of work/family balance as individual level variable that moderates the the main relationship under investigation. Indeed, it is fundamental to take into account the value attributed by individuals to work/family balance, and their actual level of achievement, in order to comprehend the effects that different family situations might have on career decisions (Masterson & Hoobler, 2015; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Eventually, as pointed out by Powell and Greenhaus (2010), all the studies so far developed have been conducted in only one nation; hence, they suggested to introduce dimensions of national culture (in addition to institutional dimensions) as moderators of the relationships between family life and work behaviours. Thus, we decided to adopt a cross-country perspective to understand why similar family structures and demands could have very different effects on behavioural attitudes of workers belonging to societies with dissimilar cultural values when they make career-related decisions (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). Powell, Francesco, and Ling (2009), indeed, called for the development of a more “culture-sensitive” model, since national culture seems to be particularly relevant for the interpretation of the family-relatedness of work decisions (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012).

Moreover, our findings also have practical implications for workers and organizations, that should be aware of the potential effects of work/family interdependencies on career decisions. In particular, broadly speaking, the link connecting work and family domains and its potential influence on career behaviours speaks to the need for firms to consider the growing reality of the interconnectedness of employees’ careers and private life (Schooreel, Shockley, & Verbruggen, 2017). Our results, specifically, suggest employers to offer career paths that are compatible with different family situations that employees might have. In this direction, the development of a comprehensive model might encourage organizations to think heuristically about possible causes for employees’ decisions related to leaving the organization and/or engaging in proactive career behaviours. As a consequence, elements that employers had not considered so far might become relevant in order to help them in defining potential strategies or interventions aimed at retaining employees and helping them to grow within the firm. Recognising and acting to control the effect of family situation on career behaviours, allowing

employees to make decisions more freely is particularly notable also because several studies highlighted that who is not able to manage in a proper way work and personal life performs less effectively and shows a lower commitment and perceived satisfaction (Abendroth & Den Dulk, 2011; Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002; Crouter, 1984). Moreover, conflicts and tensions between the two domains may affect also broader effects: the decline in birth rates, discrimination against women in the labour market and limitations on the quality of life (Allen *et al.*, 2000). Furthermore, the lack of this so-called work/life balance may impact on results in individual performance at home as in personal life: a worker able to manage in a proper way his or her private life and working context could participate in a better and significant way to the growth and success of the firm itself (Alhazemi & Ali, 2016). In addition to that, Mitchell and colleague (2001) pointed out the fact that leaving a job is particularly costly both for individuals and organizations, and it is therefore essential to understand how to retain valuable employees. Specifically, the “off-the-job factors”, related to the sphere of the private life have been described as more significative predictors of leaving a job than, for instance, organizational commitment (Mitchell *et al.*, 2001). Therefore, both employees and employers should be proactive in establishing policies, practices and cultures that support individuals in handling both family and work responsibilities. Concretely, as deeply analysed in the first chapters, there are several family-friendly arrangements that can be promoted both at organizational-level or at country-level directed at reallocating time and responsibilities during adults’ working life, and that could help people to break free from the limits imposed by demanding family situations (examples could be social investments dedicated to families, flexible working schedules, telework, generous leave policies, and available childcare supports). Finally, it is important to point out that the results of the present investigation could also have implications for multinational employers. Indeed, since the effect of family life on career outcomes significantly depends on the institutional and cultural contexts to which employees belong, multinational companies should be careful to promote organizational practices and policies that reflect these differences among countries. As Greenhaus and Powell said, “multinational organizations should evaluate whether the current movement of many firms toward standardization of global career and work–life systems will be problematic [...]. Because Career Self-Management increasingly involves family and personal life self-management, organizations should offer increased opportunities to incorporate discussions of nonwork goals and aspirations as an aspect of career development” (2014, p. 379).

CONCLUSIONS

The main goal of the present research was to clarify the process by which family life shapes personal career behaviours, and to provide an empirical framework to combine the theoretical models so far developed in several fields of analysis (e.g., sociology, management and organizational behaviour, economics, psychology, family studies). What is noteworthy is that our results show that family situation does actually have a tangible impact on career decisions made by its members, giving support to the hypotheses contained in the model proposed. In particular, we could summarize our empirical results as follows:

- The level of effort that a specific type of family requires -in terms of relational time and energies invested- significantly influences some career behaviours of its members in the ways that will be shortly explained below:
- A more demanding family situation incentivizes employees to stay in the organizations in which they currently work (i.e. stability intention), and it will at the same time encourage them to be more proactive in the management of their career aspirations within their firms, in order to grow internally;

- The institutional context in which workers are placed moderates the relationship between family life and enacted managerial aspirations. In detail, a higher level of institutional supportiveness designed to help individuals in managing their family and work responsibilities weakens the effect that a demanding family situation has on career behaviours. Indeed, a family-friendly institutional context allows people to make decisions more freely, since there is an adequate social and institutional support able to buffer the effect of time-based and strain-based conflicts;
- The culture of the countries to which employees belong does actually have an effect on the nature and strength of the relationship between family life and career-related decisions. In detail, a family-oriented national culture that incentivizes people to care for their family, friends, and elders, may increase their feeling of responsibility toward the others, encouraging them to engage more in enacted career aspirations in order to grow intra-firm. In this way, employees would be able to get more resources and benefits to be shared with family members, while at the same time maintaining a certain degree of stability that will allow them to dedicate time and energies to the household.

It is important to underline, though, that our study presents also some limitations, which however could represent interesting opportunities for future research. Specifically, despite the large number of individual level observations, the statistical power of the multilevel analyses could be limited by our relatively small sample of Level 2 units (i.e. 26 countries). Moreover, as suggested by Greenhaus and Powell (2012), due to the fact that we are not able to control for all possible confounds, a particular association (e.g. between having young children at home and voluntary turnover) may be spuriously determined by a common reason (e.g., family income) that influences both the independent and dependent variables. However, our study could be still considered notable, since we used a sample of over 12300 individuals spread across 26 countries in the world, and we investigated both theoretically and empirically several new research questions as well as tested relevant findings suggested by previous researches.

Finally, given the increasing importance that family and work interdependencies are gaining in nowadays societies, we suggest that future studies could explore the presence and the consequences of other kinds of home-to-career interactions, including also potential home-to-career sources of enrichment. Moreover, additional research could be useful in order to understand how organizations and societies can support employees in developing sustainable

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careers and lives (Greenhaus & Powell, 2014). In conclusion, in light of the fact that work/home interdependences have been always intimately intertwined to gender issues, to get a complete comprehension of the family-relatedness of work decisions dynamics it would be meaningful a deep analysis on the role that gender may have in different cultures, and how it could influence career processes.

In such a multicultural, globalized, stratified society, and in a diversified reality like the one in which we are living, I think that the fundamental way to find an equilibrium between ourselves and the world around us is to ask ourselves questions. For this reason, researches that are placed in the intersection between personal sphere, social context and business environment should continue to be present in the scientific landscape of theoretical and empirical publications. Growth is closely linked to well-being, and it cannot exist progress if we do not stop for a while to reflect on which are the best ways to achieve it.

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APPENDIX 1

FAMILY-FRIENDLY WORKING ARRANGEMENTS AND WELFARE STATE REGIMES

TYPE OF SUPPORT	DEFINITION	PARTICULAR CASE(S)
Flexible working hours	Work practice that allows employees a certain degree of freedom in deciding how the work will be done and how they'll coordinate their schedules (BusinessDictionary.com).	Austria, Germany, Denmark, Finland and Sweden are the countries with the highest proportion of companies that provide flexible working time (OECD, 2016a; OECD, 2010).
Leave policies	Number of hours or days employees of an organization is permitted to be away from their employment position within consequences. It could be both for children's and elder's care, or for personal reasons (Prpic, 2017; BusinessDictionary.com).	In Germany, the leave period for mothers is 14 weeks, while in Bulgaria it could reach 58 weeks (Prpic, 2017). The US does not provide a statutory right to paid leave (OECD, 2017b). Moreover, in Belgium, it exists a particular type of leave that entitles employees to break ("career break") from work for childcare or other personal reasons (Moss, 2014). Japanese workers can take a maximum period of family care leave of 93 days to care for each seriously ill family member (Moss, 2014).
Childcare supports	Public spending in childcare and pre-school services aimed at giving support and benefits to families and children (OECD, 2017d).	The higher childcare support is reached in Iceland, which reinvests 1,8% of its GDP in that kind of services; the lower percentages are the ones of Japan, Turkey, Portugal, Estonia and the US (OECD, 2016e).
Telework	Decentralized and flexible work arrangement which allows employees to work at home via a computer attached to the employer's data network (BusinessDictionary.com).	In Italy, nine out of ten employees have never used telework (OECD, 2016c), even if this proportion should decrease with the introduction of the Jobs Act (L. May 22nd, 2017, n.81).

APPENDIX 2

TYPES OF FAMILIES CLASSIFIED BY COMMITMENT REQUIRED

Single / In Couple	One / Dual Income	No / Yes \geq 6 / Yes<6 Children	No / Yes Primary Carer	No / Yes \leq 7h / Yes>7h Other Care	Total Score	Classification
Single		No		No	1	1
Single		No		Yes \leq 7	1.5	2
Single		Yes \geq 6	No	No	1.5	
Single		No		Yes>7	2	3
Single		Yes<6	No	No	2	
Couple	One	No		No	2	4
Single		Yes \geq 6	No	Yes \leq 7	2.25	
Single		Yes \geq 6	Yes	No	3	5
Single		Yes \geq 6	No	Yes>7	3	
Single		Yes<6	No	Yes \leq 7	3	
Couple	One	No		Yes \leq 7	3	
Couple	One	Yes \geq 6	No	No	3	
Single		Yes<6	Yes	No	4	6
Single		Yes<6	No	Yes>7	4	
Couple	One	No		Yes>7	4	
Couple	One	Yes<6	No	No	4	
Couple	Dual	No		No	4	
Single		Yes \geq 6	Yes	Yes \leq 7	4.5	7
Couple	One	Yes \geq 6	No	Yes \leq 7	4.5	
Single		Yes \geq 6	Yes	Yes>7	6	8
Single		Yes<6	Yes	Yes \leq 7	6	
Couple	One	Yes \geq 6	No	Yes>7	6	

Single / In Couple	One / Dual Income	No / Yes \geq 6 / Yes<6 Children	No / Yes Primary Carer	No / Yes \leq 7h / Yes>7h Other Care	Total Score	Classification
Couple	Dual	No		Yes \leq 7	6	8
Couple	Dual	Yes \geq 6	No	No	6	
Single		Yes<6	Yes	Yes>7	8	9
Couple	One	Yes<6	No	Yes>7	8	
Couple	One	Yes<6	Yes	No	8	
Couple	Dual	No		Yes>7	8	
Couple	Dual	Yes<6	No	No	8	
Couple	One	Yes \geq 6	Yes	Yes \leq 7	9	10
Couple	Dual	Yes \geq 6	No	Yes \leq 7	9	
Couple	One	Yes \geq 6	Yes	Yes>7	12	11
Couple	One	Yes<6	Yes	Yes \leq 7	12	
Couple	Dual	Yes \geq 6	No	Yes>7	12	
Couple	Dual	Yes<6	No	Yes \leq 7	12	
Couple	Dual	Yes \geq 6	Yes	No	12	
Couple	One	Yes<6	Yes	Yes>7	16	12
Couple	Dual	Yes<6	No	Yes>7	16	
Couple	Dual	Yes<6	Yes	No	16	
Couple	Dual	Yes \geq 6	Yes	Yes \leq 7	18	13
Couple	Dual	Yes \geq 6	Yes	Yes>7	24	14
Couple	Dual	Yes<6	Yes	Yes \leq 7	24	
Couple	Dual	Yes<6	Yes	Yes>7	32	15

