

MAKE IT WORK

WAKE IT WORK

Rethinking the work-home interface

Jenny Sok



NYENRODE
BUSINESS UNIVERSITEIT

A reward for life

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Rethinking the work-home interface

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"A way of seeing is a way of not seeing" (Kenneth Burke, 1954)



MAKE IT WORK – Rethinking the work-home interface

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NYENRODE BUSINESS UNIVERSITEIT

MAKE IT WORK

Rethinking the work-home interface

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in accordance with the Doctorate Committee.

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by

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Acknowledgments

Why am I so interested in people's working life and especially in the combination with their home life? First of all, I'm interested in people and how they manage to function well, in the workplace and in their private lives. My first studies, during the eighties (social cultural work), focused on how people can develop and grow and was all about equal opportunities. During my Sociology studies, my fields of interest were education and family, diversity and, again, equal opportunities. It was then that I developed my love for doing research and I decided to specialize in research methods in a Research Master.

Along the way, however, it started to bother me that, with regard to work-home balance, a negative approach was nearly always chosen. It was all about glass ceilings, barriers and stress. So when I started my PhD, I decided I wanted to start off with a positive approach: how did women reach the top in the hospitality industry? What determined their success? After that, I decided to focus also, or at least as much as possible, on the positive side of work, and especially the positive outcomes, in the relation between work life and home life.

However, it took a while before I arrived there. I explored several subjects, such as learning behaviors, motivation and leadership, before I found the rich and challenging subject of work-home balance. Interesting first because it's a big issue in the working world of today. Employees face many problems combining their work and their home environment in a way that suits themselves and their families. Second, it's a multi-faceted puzzle and it seems to be very difficult to change an existing work-home culture. However, it is essential to do this if you want to create a new equilibrium and a sustainable workforce.

You were great...

You can't do a project like this on your own. I owe a debt to a wide array of people.

First, I want to thank my promotion team Rob, Debbie, Xander, and my 'little elves' Quasiba and Fabian. Rob, you were great. I could not have done this without you. You were always there for me; text messages were answered within three minutes and I enjoyed your continuous encouragement. You explained to me 'how things work' in hilarious ways. Debbie, you were great, and I'm very grateful for your warm support and the way you acted as a sparring partner, co-writer and friend. You are a wonderful and genuine person. Xander, you were great. You are always positive and stimulating. You are a great scientist and thinker; I'll remember you always. Quasiba, you were so great. It seems as if we've known each other for ever, and it has always been so much fun. We've shared so many experiences, life stories and gossip. Your loyalty is endless. Fabian, you were great for always believing in me, no matter what. You were always pushing me, in the right sense of the word, and watching my back.

Dear colleagues of Hotelschool The Hague, you were great. Many of you have supported me with words and deeds throughout those years. I would like to mention my (former) research colleagues Hans, Flip, Jaqueline, Arjan, Jean-Pierre and Kees. Luuk, thanks for the extra support during difficult times. My Managing Change colleagues, Conny, Gerty and the others, you were, and are, all great. And patient. And brilliant to work with. Conny, thanks also for being such an amazing coach. And other current and former colleagues, I can only mention a few here: Ingrid, Roeland, Ina, Mieke, Anemoon, Silvia, Hugo, Xuan, Edgar, Tonco, Rolf, Mr Gropas, Katja, you always kept asking how things were going. All the others, you were great too. Many thanks to those I met, or was briefly in contact with when they helped me out, for example Edward Groenland from Nyenrode, Agneta Fischer from UVA and Melanie De Ruiter from Nyenrode. I also need to mention correctors Judith Meijer and especially Laetis Kuipers here. You did a great job transforming my work into readable English. Respondents, interviewees, conference colleagues: thanks for taking the time to participate in and comment on our work. Students, and especially Dylan, Doenya and Carlijne, who I worked with so wonderfully in projects, thanks for your information and inspiration.

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Friends, neighbours and family, I don't even know where to start. Ina, you are the constant, and always positive, factor in my life, that says it all. Erik Jan, you are a wonderful brother to me, and by the year it becomes increasingly clear that we are so much alike. Mama, you were so interested in the development of this thesis. It really touched my heart. Sarah, my friend of thirty years, you are so special to me. I hope to know you for thirty more. Adinda, we've both been so busy but I'm glad we still manage to keep in close contact, whether for a few laughs or a 'quick fix'. Reneé, you are good to be with, in good times and in bad times. You're a wonderful person. Marja and Renée, you have both been through so much over the past few years. Thanks for sharing everything with me. Monique, you always give me food for thought, very stimulating. Great how we always somehow 'connect' again. Marianne, neighbour, friend, coach, I'm glad to have you in my life. Lineke, Jet, Sabine, I'm so glad I found you again. Criefke, Ria, old mates, let's try to keep in touch. My neighbours, Nettie and Katja, to name a few, you are so wonderful to have around. Let's cherish our 'hofje', our small community. And finally the ones I've lost along the way, you were at some point in my life great, too. You all know, how great you were.....

A lot has happened in the past seven years. My father passed away, my mother has been seriously ill, I suffered from a burnout. But lots of good has happened too. Friendship and laughter, sharing of love, knowledge and dreams. Everything.

Jenny Sok

Amsterdam, February 2016

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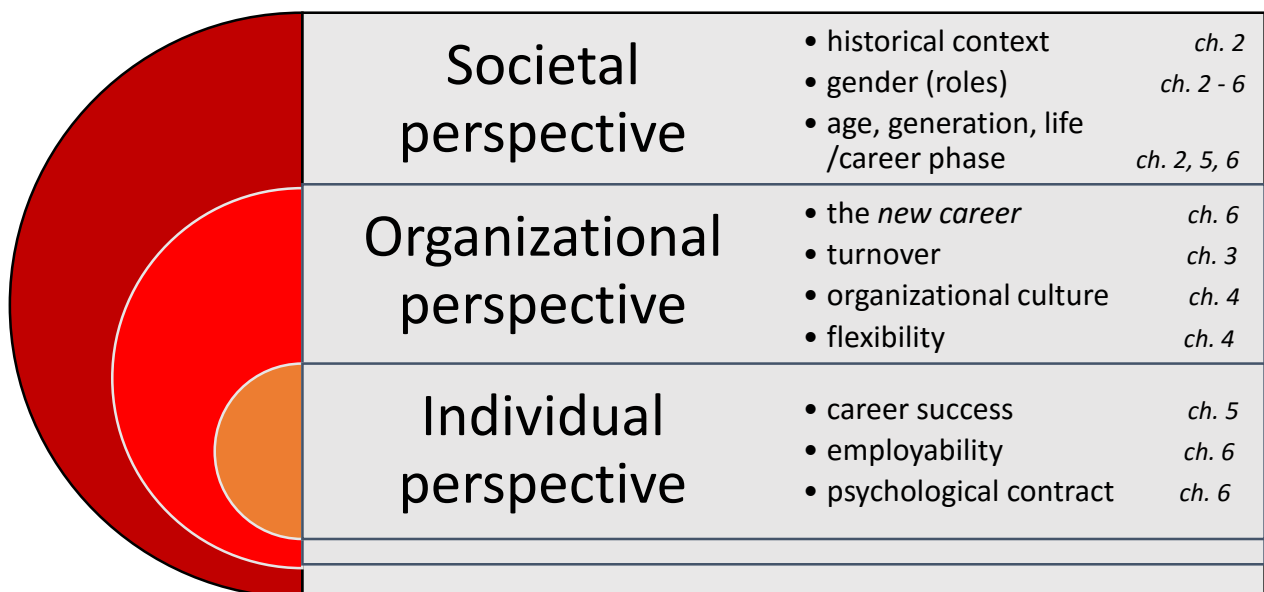
CHAPTER 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Because of the many changes in the work and home lives of people in western industrialized societies, organizations do not seem to fulfill the work-home needs of their increasingly diverse and varied workforce (Christensen, 2005). Societies and organizations are in search of a healthy integration of the work domain and the home domain (Christensen, 2005; Van der Lippe & Bäck-Wicklund, 2011; McKinsey & Company, 2015).

Therefore, the ultimate goal of this dissertation is to answer the question: *“How can we make the work-home interface work?”* To this end, several concepts that seem important and are all, in different ways, connected to work-home balance, are investigated. The most important factors in this field of research are considered in the studies described in the next five chapters. These ‘key issues’ were derived from various sources in the available literature and brought together in the studies in this thesis. The key issues are summarized in figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 Key issues, connected to positive and negative work-home interference



Together the chapters form a ‘tapestry’ of separate but related subjects. Every chapter contributes to the knowledge in its own way but, in relation to each other, the chapters show that an exploration was done which incorporated the individual perception as well as the organizational context and the societal (historical) context.

“A way of seeing is a way of not seeing.” As philosopher and theorist Kenneth Burke so eloquently pointed out in *Permanence and Change* (1954), by directing attention to some channels rather than others, we at best reveal ‘reality’ selectively. Therefore, in this thesis the work-home interface is studied from different angles.

By doing this, the studies in this thesis answer the call of many scholars for an approach on multiple levels. First, there is a call to include the ***social and historical context*** (Özbilgin, Beauregard, Tatli & Bell, 2011) when studying work-home balance at organizational or individual level. In their view, the social and historical context has more explanatory power on work-home dynamics than the micro-individual level of explanations. Some emphasize the distribution of power, with regard to work-home balance (Özbilgin, Beauregard, Tatli & Bell, 2011), while others focus more on the distribution of economic resources (Inglehart, 1997; Scott, 2000). Inglehart, for example, emphasizes the *values* that are formed in individuals in childhood and adolescence, within a societal context (1997). Following Inglehart and Scott, among others, this process is described in more detail in 1.2.1, and studied in chapter 2. By studying these key issue, this thesis is able to shed light on the historical context of values with regard to work-home balance and the value forming of the generations, currently on the labor market. Also gender roles and differences between age groups and people in different life and career phases are described.

Second, among others (e.g. Grzywacz, Carlson, Kacmar & Holliday Wayne, 2007; Allis & O’Driscoll, 2008), Özbilgin and colleagues (2011) also emphasize that work-home issues have important implications at both ***organizational*** and ***individual*** levels, which should both be included in research studies. They argue that the diversity in the working world of today should give rise to many more adaptations at organizational level with regard to work-home balance.

Although the empirical studies in this thesis do not move beyond the individual level of analysis, this thesis tries to respond to the call for an approach on different levels.

Turnover, as I will explain in 1.3.2, is an important topic, which is often associated with work-home balance. One study explores the relationship between home-work interference and individual turnover intention, including the mediating role of (the perception of) training and development opportunities, offered by the organization (chapter 3).

Organizational culture can be expected to be strongly linked with work-home balance. In 1.3.3 I describe this in more detail. This thesis studies organizational culture and its relations with positive and negative work-home interference, and the mediating role of flexible work-home arrangements, offered by the employer (chapter 4).

Objective career success is explored (see 1.4.1), because the literature suggests that a successful career might be connected to work-home balance. Therefore, another chapter is provided in which the ‘way to the top’ (objective career success) of twenty people is described, which also includes some individual work-home considerations (chapter 5).

The psychological contract, finally, cannot be ignored when writing about the work-home interface, according to many scholars (see 1.4.3). One of the studies describes the relationship between psychological contract individuals have with their employer (encompassing flexibility measures) and the perception of their employability (chapter 6).

In the following paragraphs the choice of key issues is substantiated and explained in more detail. First, the connections to the main subject of this thesis, work-home balance are described. Second, the connections to the other key issues are explained.

Please note that, in this thesis, the main focus is on *highly educated staff*. Overall, there’s a growing need for highly educated employees to fill higher management positions (Ten Brink, 2004; Guest, 2002). Furthermore, work-home balance is an important theme among highly

educated staff in today's working world (Parris, Vickers & Wilkes, 2008; Blomme, Van Rheede & Tromp, 2010). According to Guest (2002), work-home balance is especially important for employees in management positions. This suggests that attracting and retaining this particular group of workers will become easier if they are supported in maintaining a sound work-home balance.

In addition, in four out of the five studies described in this thesis, the main focus is on the *hospitality industry*. In 1.5, the implications of the issues under investigation for this particular industry are further explained.

1.2 Work-home balance



1.2.1 Historical developments

Most scholars agree that work and home life constitute the two most important domains of people's adult lives. In the past 60 years, both domains have undergone profound changes, which have been nowhere more evident than in the western industrial societies of Europe and the U.S. (Barnett, 2005). As a result of these changes, balancing work and home life has become more difficult for many employees and private individuals and a primary concern to employers and policymakers.

Both in Europe and in the U.S., several interconnected developments in the work domain and the home domain have taken place. Authors seem to agree that, for several reasons that I will describe in section 1.3, work demands have grown excessively.

One of the most significant demographic changes, however, is the growing labor force and participation of women that has been witnessed since the 1950s and 1960s (Bianchi & Raley, 2005). This has brought about a dramatic shift in the allocation of time and energy devoted to work and home roles. Furthermore, many people also need to take care of older relatives (Spillman & Pezzin, 2000). As a result of increasing divorce rates, families are also becoming more diverse (Christensen, 2005). Single parents and co-parenting ex-couples find it more difficult to combine work and home tasks (Spillman & Pezzin, 2000).

Concluding this paragraph, we can say that authors and scholars generally hold the view that societies and organizations in this day and age do not seem to fulfill the work-home needs of their increasingly diverse and varied workforce (Christensen, 2005). Western industrial societies are in search of a healthy integration of the work domain and the home domain (Christensen, 2005; Van der Lippe & Bäck-Wicklund, 2011; McKinsey & Company, 2015).

This thesis brings together some views on the value formation with regard to the work-home interface. It also explains why more knowledge is needed regarding the integration of individuals' different value systems.

1.2.2 Gender

As mentioned in the previous section, important when focusing on today's working world is the position of women.

One of the most dramatic demographic trends in the 1950s and 1960s was women entering paid employment (Bianchi & Raley, 2005). In the 1960s and 1970, the gender-specialized division of labor in Western countries became less universal (Bianchi & Raley, 2005), probably mainly as a result of the democratization processes accompanied by growing individualization and women's independence. Between the 1980s and 2000s, a large proportion of women combined roles, taking care of children and other family members. Today, women still continue to do a disproportionate share of care and housework. They are therefore more likely to be affected by the challenges of juggling work and home responsibilities (McKinsey & Company, 2015), although the younger generations of men also seem to value work-home balance more than the older generations (Barnett, 2005; Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008).

Despite the fact that companies which leverage the full talents of the population have a competitive advantage (McKinsey & Company, 2015), women are still less successful in the corporate world. In most industries, women only make up a small percentage of those considered business leaders, such as chief executives, directors and managers of small businesses (European Commission, 2008; United Nations, 2000; McKinsey & Company, 2015), hence still forming an ignored pool of talent. In addition, research on career development has shown that influences on career success may differ for women and men (Tharenou, Latimer

& Conroy, 1994; Metz & Tharenou, 2001). Moreover, research suggests that the relationship of men and women with employers could also differ (Lub, 2013). In research, differences between both genders are not always taken into consideration. Therefore, with regard to some of the key issues in this thesis such as turnover, employability and development, the studies in this thesis shed light on the different positions of women and men where possible.

1.2.3 Age, generation and life / career phase

With regard to work-home balance and work-home values, generation, age and life phase also seem to be important but don't always receive enough attention.

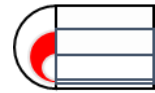
Employees in their 30s and 40s are particularly likely to start families and therefore have to devote more time and energy to their home roles.

Another factor to consider is the generation to which an employee belongs. Research by Lub (2013) suggests that a generational cohort approach may provide an alternative or additional explanation to studies that indicate chronological age differences. It is important to acknowledge that employees from different generations can also hold different views on work-home balance (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008). The relationship of younger and older workers with employers could therefore be different (Lub, 2013), as could the relationship between the psychological contract and employability, for example.

In a similar vein, as shown in chapter 5, it is important to acknowledge that employees in different career stages can differ with regard to developments and behaviors. According to life cycle theories, an entity develops according to a "prefigured logic" (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995, p. 515). Generally speaking, four stages can be identified: (1) a start-up phase; (2) a phase of growth; (3) a harvest phase; and (4) a phase in which termination takes place.

Age, generation and life and career phase are, where possible and relevant, addressed in our studies.

1.3 The changing world of work



1.3.1 The 'new career'

In order to understand the problems that employees are facing when trying to balance their work and home lives, we have to understand developments in the working world and subsequently in the employer-employee relationship.

Scholars generally agree that the world of work is changing rapidly. Seemingly, globalization and changing political, social and environmental forces have forced organizational structures to evolve (Bartel, Saavedra & Van Dyne, 2001). As a result, organizations have become flatter and they work more flexibly and team-based in order to be able to respond fluidly to the ever-changing environment. Organizations are therefore looking for more effective and productive approaches to managing organizations' key 'assets', i.e. their people (McGunnicle & Jameson, 2000). Selecting, developing and retaining excellent employees are considered extremely important (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009; Blomme, van Rheede & Tromp, 2010).

For the individual employee, these developments mean that the employee-employer relationship has become more individualized with greater emphasis on flexibility and employability (e.g. Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009).

Some scholars highlight the negative aspects of this development, for example the reduced job security of employees in the organization (e.g. King, 2004). In the 'new career', as the recent changes in employer-employee relationship are sometimes called (Arthur, Inkson & Pringle, 1999), work life has become 'greedy', consisting of more demanding jobs, part-time jobs, contracts of limited duration or flexible work schedules (Guest, 2002). On the one hand, employees have to keep developing themselves to remain attractive for their own employer by maintaining their *internal* employability; on the other hand, they must continuously work on their *external* employability (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011).

Others argue that periods of economic prosperity and the increasing scarcity of highly competent personnel have strengthened the position of employees (e.g. Ten Brink, 2004). However, they all seem to agree that for employees in the *new career*, it has become all the more important for employees to manage their own careers (e.g. Seibert & Kraimer, 2001).

It is suggested that only those organizations that negotiate careers will survive (Atkinson, 2002). For example, organizations that are responsive to the growth needs of their employees attract better talent (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

Training and *development* can be expected to act as inducements for employees to maintain their commitment to the organization (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Deery, 2008) and to help them stay 'vital' (Van der Sluis, 2007). More insight into needs relating to development and growth could be useful for these purposes. HR professionals are becoming more aware of the need to facilitate development and 'lifelong learning'. Also, according to Van der Sluis (2007), having a clear perspective on *factors that influence career success* can help individuals make better career decisions. According to Van der Sluis (2007), organizations rely on employees for their performance, learning, development, creativity and innovative ideas. For that role, employees need 'vitality': they need to be physically fit and healthy and also have energy and strength in terms of their psychological well-being. She emphasizes the importance of investigating the formal and informal rules that support or oppose *work-home interference*. McNall and colleagues (2010) also emphasize that the creation of a sustainable workforce is likely to depend on the willingness and ability of organizations to focus on needs relating to work-home balance, as well as on the development needs of individual employees.

In this thesis, the relationship between employers' practices, in the form of the psychological contract, and development opportunities are therefore explored. With regard to work-home interference, the relationship between home-work interference and development opportunities particularly deserved more attention.

1.3.2 Turnover



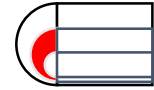
Another important issue that is closely connected to the developments described in the previous section is *turnover*. Many scholars consider the increasing turnover rate of highly educated staff a growing problem in many industries (Ten Brink, 2004; Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012). While the latter explain that some degree of turnover is considered positive, as it helps refresh knowledge and ideas in the organization, high rates of turnover among key employees can have grave consequences, such as the costs of replacing

valuable employees or the declining competitive advantage following the loss of knowledge and skills of *key employees* (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee & Eberly, 2008; Blomme, Van Rheede & Tromp, 2010; Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012). Hence employers face the challenge of managing and retaining their key employees, especially at management level (Guest, 2002; Shuck, Twyford, Reio & Shuck, 2014).

Research into the antecedents of turnover has revealed a variety of reasons why employees might want to quit their job: general job satisfaction (Cegarra-Leiva, Sanchez-Vidal & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012), facet satisfaction (Griffeth, Hom & Gartner, 2000), psychological contract fulfillment (Liu, Hui, Lee & Chen, 2012), strain (Veloutsou & Pangyrakis, 2004) and organizational commitment (Griffeth, Hom & Gartner, 2000).

Antecedents of turnover and turnover intention also concern home considerations (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Raskin, 2006). As mentioned earlier, global trends such as the increased labor participation of women, the rise of dual-earner families and the increase in single parent families, combined with changing perceptions regarding work-home balance, have made it harder to combine home with work obligations and demands (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Ten Brummelhuis, Ter Hoeven, De Jong & Peper, 2013). Therefore, work and home interferences have been found to be a major source of psychological distress not only for employees, but also for the home domain and organizations (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Voydanoff, 2005; Greenhaus & Ten Brummelhuis, 2013).

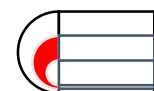
Interventions aimed at providing development opportunities, including advancement opportunities and training (Gustafson, 2002; Tharenou, Saks & Moore, 2007), have also been addressed as promising predictors for turnover intention. Consequently, organizations that focus on developing talent will be in a stronger position to keep their competitive advantage and to retain key employees (Baruch, 2004). However, research on how home considerations affect development opportunities and in turn employee turnover is scarce (cf. Erickson, Nichols & Ritter, 2000), which is the reason for addressing this topic in this thesis (chapter 3).



1.3.3 Organizational culture

Although the importance of organizational culture as a precursor for work-home interference has been emphasized in the literature (e.g. Kinnunen, Mauno, Geurts & Dikkers, 2005), only few studies have been conducted on this relationship (e.g. Xiao & O'Neill, 2010). The literature suggests that organizational culture and human resources are closely related because organizational culture significantly affects the behaviors and actions of a company's members (Xiao & O'Neill, 2010).

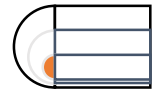
The positive influence of a supportive work-home environment (e.g. Clark, 2001; Bailyn, 1997) has been widely recognized. For example, Mauno, Kinnunen and Ruokolainen (2006) found a supportive work-home environment to be related to positive work outcomes such as higher job satisfaction and commitment as well as lower levels of physical complaints, thus showing the importance of work-home culture for worker well-being. However, there has been very little examination of organizational culture in a broader sense and resulting in a supportive work-home environment (cf. Blomme, Sok & Tromp, 2013), which is why this field is explored in this thesis (chapter 4).



1.3.4 Flexible work-home arrangements

Scholars argue that prioritizing work over family can be seen as a manifestation of organizational culture which might impact work-family conflict (Lewis & Cooper, 1995; Guest, 2002). In line with Lewis and Cooper (1995), Kossek, Noe and DeMarr (1999) claim that especially the availability of explicit policies and the degree of adoption by organizational members represent the level of work-home-friendliness in organizational values. Guest (2002), for example, states that flexible work-home arrangements work best when they are embedded in the organizational culture and argues that the organizational culture should therefore be a key unit of analysis in understanding work-home balance. Therefore, in chapter 4, flexible work-home arrangements are explored as a mediator in the relationship between organizational culture and work-home interference.

1.4 Redefining career success



1.4.1 A successful career

No one will disagree that every individual should be able to find a good place in the working world and be able to function well within that place. In the last two decades, a considerable amount of research has been conducted on the factors that can lead to successful careers and successful working for the individual employee.

Traditionally, a distinction was made between extrinsic and intrinsic career success.

Extrinsic factors encompass objective and observable factors, such as position attained (Howard & Bray, 1990), measured by the number of subordinates or occupational status or earnings (e.g. Judge, Higgins, Thoresen & Barrick, 1999). Other extrinsic factors range from factors such as tenure, CEO proximity and number of promotions (e.g. Seibert & Kraimer, 2001) to (managerial) job performance (e.g. Salgado, 1999). The latter can encompass many different factors, such as effectiveness ratings (Pratch, 1996), job and training proficiency (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and management potential ratings (Howard & Bray, 1990).

Intrinsic factors include subjective factors. These factors usually range from job satisfaction (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen & Barrick, 1999) to career and life satisfaction (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). Extrinsic and intrinsic factors have been found to be only moderately correlated (Judge & Bretz, 1994).

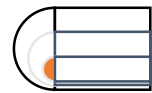
In many studies, the focus is on the *barriers* that people encounter on their way to the top. In this thesis, a different approach was chosen. The factors that, instead, *contribute* to career advancement (i.e. reaching a high position) are studied. Chapter 5 pays special attention to the position of women, because it seems to be more difficult for them to get ahead.

Against the background of the changing employment relationships mentioned above, the question can be asked what, in this day and age, a “*successful career*” entails. Is it still a high position? Being employed continuously or, maybe even better, whenever you wish to be? Being able to manage your career well? Or, in other words: being successful in managing your own brand: YOU? And another question is whether a successful career is highly individualized and therefore different for every individual, woman or man, older or younger employee? And

how is this connected to combining a successful working life and home life, so *work-home balance*?

After completing the study described in chapter 5, it became clear that *objective career success* was not as important to employees as I thought it would be. Highly talented people are not always especially interested in moving up the corporate ladder. They (also) want to improve and develop themselves (Judge & Bretz, 1994). The next step was therefore to redefine career success by exploring the concept of *employability*.

1.4.2 Employability



In recent years, employability has received substantial interest. In general, the term refers to the extent to which an employee is capable of gaining and maintaining employment (Hillage & Pollard, 1998). It encompasses the ability to move self-sufficiently within the labor market in order to create potential through sustainable employment. It could be argued that employability has come to the fore in contexts of continuous change and new career models that transcend the traditional idea of a job for life (Forrier, Sels & Stynen, 2009; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011), the *new career* (Arthur, Inkson & Pringle, 1999).

Employees have to keep developing themselves to remain attractive for their own employer by maintaining their *internal* employability. On the other hand, they must continuously work on their *external* employability (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011).

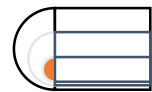
First, it is important to investigate if or when work-home balance and internal employability are connected. In this thesis, the mediating role of perceived training and development opportunities offered by the employer are studied, in the relation between positive and negative home-work interference and turnover intention. Perceptions concerning training and development practices seem to be particularly important, as scholars have suggested that organizations tend to be less willing to invest in training and development for working mothers or other employees faced with high *demands from the home domain* (Valcour & Ladge, 2008). Based on the information in 1.3.2, it can be expected that employees who feel that their

organizations do not provide important resources (e.g. opportunities for training and development) are likely to respond with turnover intentions (Gustafson, 2002; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010; Kuvaas, 2008; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010).

Second, information on what does and does not bring employees further in their careers may be useful. Again, these factors may be different for the two *genders*. They may also differ for people from different *generations* and in different *career or life phases*.

Third, by looking at the bigger picture, it is crucial to investigate what organizations can do to stimulate workers' employability. How is the broader range of employer practices, including *work-home flexibility practices*, connected to internal and external employability? As it could be argued that the changes in the employer-employee relationship express themselves in the psychological contract, this is used as a guiding framework in one of the studies. The psychological contract is described in more detail in the next paragraph.

1.4.3 Psychological contract



Psychological contract theory derives from theories of social exchange (Blau, 1964) and equity theory (Adams, 1965). Blau (1964) argues that employees strive for balance in the exchanges between themselves and the organization. Employees expect *reciprocity* in the exchange relationship, and will attempt to restore a perceived imbalance, either high or low.

Adams (1965) asserted that employees seek to maintain equity between the inputs that they bring to a job and the outcomes that they receive from it. Employees want to keep the *fairness* maintained within the relationships with co-workers and the organization.

Some scholars emphasize that the aforementioned changes in the employment relationship affect the psychological contract, although few have empirically studied this link (Conway & Briner, 2009; Rousseau, 2012; Lub, 2013). It could be argued that in the *new career*, fulfillment of employer obligations, including the practices that help employees *balance* their *work and home life*, relates positively to employees' employability. This is the focus in one of the research studies (chapter 6).

1.5 The hospitality industry

In four out of the five research studies described in this thesis, special focus is placed on the hospitality industry. This industry is often associated with *work-home conflict* (e.g. Cleveland et al., 2007; Van Rheede, Tromp & Blomme, 2009). The requirement to work long, irregular and unpredictable hours and geographic mobility as a prerequisite for career advancement is seen as the most prevalent job stressor for managers (Cleveland et al., 2007). Mulvaney, O'Neill, Cleveland & Crouter (2007), and Cleveland et al. (2007), together with Ghiselli, La Lopa and Bai (2001) argue variously that these components affect job satisfaction and organizational commitment and ultimately lead to employee turnover. According to Blomme, Tromp and Van Rheede (2008), especially in the age group 33 to 45, work-family balance is an important factor, making *age* an important variable. The provision of work-family support may reduce turnover intention, especially among highly educated female employees (Blomme, Van Rheede & Tromp, 2010). Therefore, a *supportive organizational culture* might be found to reduce work-home conflict, especially for *women* (Blomme, Van Rheede & Tromp, 2010).

Referring back to the description of the position of women in section 1.2.2, there seem to be two main obstacles which impede women's progress toward top executive and managerial positions: the 'glass ceiling' and work-home conflict.

The metaphor of a glass ceiling was introduced by the U.S. Department of Labor in the 1970s to describe the invisible artificial obstacles that prevent qualified individual women from advancing upward in their organization into higher (management) level positions (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991). A survey of the relevant literature revealed that, also in the hospitality industry, there are at least 150 barriers for women, ranging from cultural, social and legal factors to practical gender-specific ones (Powell & Butterfield, 1994; Knutson & Schmidgall, 1999). The organizational culture in the hospitality industry appears to be represented by male-coded values, which seem to impede the position of women. Perceptions of the presence of a glass ceiling have been found to relate to turnover intention (Downes, Hemmasi & Eshghi, 2014).

This industry in particular has to deal with the growing challenge of retaining highly educated staff. The hospitality industry is growing rapidly this century, but also has to deal with a

shrinking skilled labor force (Knutson & Schmidgall, 1999). In addition, international research suggests that especially *turnover* is growing rapidly in the hospitality industry (Hoque, 1999a, 1999b; Walsh & Taylor, 2007). The hotel industry is even characterized as having a “turnover culture” (Deery & Shaw, 1997: p. 377). As in other industries, it is the growth of turnover at *management level* that forms an important contemporary challenge (Blomme, Tromp & Van Rheede, 2010; Walsh & Taylor, 2007).

With regard to the topics described above, the hospitality industry seems to lack *development and learning opportunities* (Blomme, Tromp & Van Rheede, 2008). Furthermore, Robinson and Barron (2007), for example, focus on the issues of de-skilling and standardization that lead to a lack of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and ultimately to the decision to leave the organization. Besides these considerations, Lam, Lo and Chan (2002) also focus on the role played by mentoring and training in new employees’ decisions to leave. Importantly, they have found that training new employees significantly mitigates their desires to leave the organization. Referring back to 1.3.1, in the *new career* employability seems to be an important factor in the psychological contracts of employees, not only for the retention of valuable employees but also for the perception of workers to have a “successful career”. In this thesis, *employability* is therefore considered to be an important factor of study.

To summarize, it seems that work-home arrangements and work-home culture, as well as development issues (employability) and the relations of culture and development with turnover are important factors in acquiring and maintaining a successful career and psychological contract in the hospitality industry. In this thesis, all these factors will be considered for investigation.

1.6 Aims

The ultimate *goal* of this thesis is to explore the field around the work-home interface, inside and outside the hospitality industry. The themes evolve around the question how people try to balance their work and their home life and how the work-home interface can be improved.

Concluding, the **aims** of this thesis are:

- To gain greater insight into generations currently on the labor market and their work-home values.
- To determine the relationship between home-work interference and turnover intentions and the mediating role of training and development practices.
- To evaluate the relationship between organizational culture and positive and negative work-home interference, and the mediating role of flexible work-home arrangements.
- To gain greater insight into objective career success and how people reached a top position in their field, including work-home considerations.
- To determine the relationship between psychological contract (including flexibility arrangements) and employability.

1.6.1 Theoretical underpinning

Several theories have been used in this thesis. First, theories regarding life roles and values held by employees concerning their work and home identity are described. Second, several theories explaining the spillover from work to home and vice versa are used. Third, a culture framework and fourth, the psychological contract theory were utilized. This section concludes by describing the theory on 'high performers'.

Life roles and values

Two general views on life roles and values, Super's *Life-Career Rainbow* (1980) and the *Theory of Basic Individual Values*, in which nineteen basic values held by individuals are placed on a continuum based on compatible and conflicting motivations (Schwartz et al., 2012), are used. It is explained how Clark's *Border Theory* (2000) could be a good starting point for investigating *how* people integrate different sets of values into their lives in order to create work-home balance (chapter 2, figure 1). Furthermore, from a psychological point of view, Settles' *Identity Centrality* approach (2004) could also be useful for investigating integration of values, since it

focuses on how people deal with combining different central value systems. Inglehart's (1997) *Theory of Intergenerational Values Change* is based on two hypotheses. The first, the 'socialization hypothesis', suggests that the basic values held by adults reflect the socio-economic conditions of their childhood and adolescence. The second hypothesis, the 'scarcity hypothesis', proposes that the greatest value is placed on those socio-economic aspects that were in short supply during a generation's childhood years and adolescence. These theories are discussed in chapter 2.

Spillover and work-home interference

Staines (1980) was among the first to recognize that emotions and behaviors related to the work environment can spill over to the home environment (or the other way around), thus transcending the physical and temporal boundaries of both domains. Since then, the *Spillover Theory* has been used by many scholars studying the work-home interface. Chapter 2 uses the theory to explain the interplay between values concerning the working life and values concerning the non-work life. Here, the *Resources-Demands model* (Voydanoff, 2005) helps us understand how the perception of work-home balance derives from assessing the relative demands and resources associated with work roles and home roles. In chapter 3, the spillover theory is used to explain positive and negative home-to-work interferences, as few scholars have addressed the processes through which non-work relationships affect work-related attitudes and behaviors. Chapter 4 explores the mediating role of flexible home arrangements in the relationship between the organization's culture and spillover from work to home.

Negative work-home and home-work interference can be understood from the perspective of the *Role Theory* (Katz & Kahn, 1978), paying attention to *Role Scarcity*, in which time and energy needed to fulfill multiple roles, such as roles in the work and private domains, are finite and scarce and might be conflicting (Goode, 1960). The *Role Accumulation* theory, on the other hand, postulates that positive behaviors and emotions developed in one role, for example positive psychological energy, will expand individual resources and facilitate performance in another role (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). These theories are used in chapters 3 and 4 on positive and negative work-home and home-work interference.

Furthermore, the *Conservation of Resources theory* (COR; Hobfoll, 1989, 2001; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001) is used in this thesis. Hobfoll and Shirom argue that stress can occur when

individuals experience a loss of resources (self-esteem, energy) in the work or home domain, which might result in a spillover of negative emotions and stress into the other domain. On the other hand, in his *Compensation Theory*, Staines argues that people will make investments in each domain, attempting to compensate what is missing in the other domain (1980). The conservation of resources theory is used in chapter 2 with regard to work-home balance, in chapter 3 with regard to home-work interference and in chapter 4 with regard to work-home interference. The compensation theory is used in chapter 4 to explain how people try to balance the work and the home domains.

Culture

The *Competing Values Framework* is a theoretical model, which refers to whether an organization has a predominant internal or external focus, and strives for flexibility and individuality or stability and control. The supportive culture measure as well as the innovative culture measure in chapter 4 were based on Cameron and Quinn's framework (CVF; 1999).

Psychological contract

The *Psychological Contract* is a framework which consists of what the employee perceives to be the obligations of the employer toward the employee and the obligations of the employee which the employer expects in return (Rousseau, 1989). According to Rousseau (1995, p. 6), obligations are commitments to (future) actions and refer to attitudes and intentions. The psychological contract refers to a *social exchange* perspective (Gouldner, 1960; Blau, 1964) in which it is expected that the employee's perception of the organizational role in the relationship will affect the individual employee's obligation to *reciprocate* (i.e. give back) in terms of commitment and in-role or extra-role behavior (Tsui, Pearce, Porter & Tripoli, 1997; Irving & Gellatly, 2001). The psychological contract is used in chapter 6 to establish the level of fulfillment perceived by employees. This is because previous studies have shown that high levels of employer *fulfillment* (i.e. the extent to which employer obligations are fulfilled) are related to high levels of employees reciprocating with positive behaviors and intentions (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002; Coyle-Shapiro & Neuman, 2004; De Vos, Buyens & Schalk, 2003).

High performers

Exploratory research, which involved asking people to tell us the entire story of their successful careers, makes it possible to analyse which factors had been important to their advancement to higher positions. However, a comparison with literature used in HRM practice shows that the phases that emerged from the data appear to correspond to the phases in development and growth that are described by Dalton, Thompson and Price, on the basis of ongoing research on *high performers* (Dalton, Thompson & Price, 1986, cited in Paffen, 1991). Although they found more stages in the careers of successful people, the steps they discovered bear a strong resemblance and also involve primary relations, central activities and psychological issues such as those described by the respondents in our study.

1.6.2 Methodology

This section describes the methods used with regard to sampling, data collection and data analysis. The definitions of the most important terms used in the research studies are also provided.

Samples, data collection and analysis

Chapter 2 was written after extensive literature study exploring historical trends with regard to work-home balance, the formation of work-home values, current work-home balance issues and generations literature.

For the study described in *Chapter 3 and 4*, data from a cross-sectional field study performed in 2008 among alumni from two Dutch business schools are used. In the sample, 54% were male (n=226) and 46% were female (n=190) and a total of 418 alumni completed the questionnaire. The respondents were working all over the world in a variety of industries, ranging from the hospitality sector to banking. The data formed part of a wider study, encompassing data on work home interference, organizational culture, psychological contract, turnover and employability. For both studies, the data were analyzed using SPSS (means and bivariate correlations) and AMOS (confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling).

For the study described in *Chapter 5*, a qualitative field study was performed. 20 people who were currently holding top positions were interviewed. These included ten women and ten men, 5 from each group working in the hospitality industry and 5 outside the industry. The data were analyzed using grounded theory.

For the study described in *Chapter 6*, a survey was completed by 247 alumni from the Hotelschool The Hague, a hotel management school in the Netherlands, in 2006. These included 157 males (64%) and 90 females (36%). For comparison purposes, the data of the HTH alumni from the 2008 study mentioned above, consisting of 135 respondents, 75 males and 60 females (56% and 44% respectively), was also used. The respondents were working in hospitality businesses all over the world. The 2006 data set encompassed cross-sectional data on psychological contract, employability and turnover intention. The data were analyzed using AMOS (confirmatory factor analysis) and SPSS (mean differences, bivariate correlations and regression analysis).

Definitions

Employability: the extent to which an employee is capable of gaining and maintaining employment (Hillage & Pollard, 1998), measured here as intra-organizational mobility intentions, employee development and perceived labor market opportunities.

Hospitality industry: food, lodging, transportation, attractions and entertainment (e.g. theme parks, casinos) and events (cf. Yu, 2008; Christie-Mill, 2008).

Highly educated staff: employees who have completed a higher education programme at Bachelor or Master Level (Reijnders, 2003; Blomme, 2006) and who hold a supervisory or management position (Blomme, Van Rheede & Tromp, 2010).

Home: in this thesis, we refer to “home” instead of “family” because the definition of “home” encompasses a variety of possible home situations which are more in line with today’s changing home domains (cf. Ten Brummelhuis, Ter Hoeven, De Jong & Peper, 2013; De Cieri, Holmes, Abbott & Pettit, 2005). The home domain can encompass family, community or leisure activities (Guest, 2002).

Flexibility refers to “discretion to determine the timing, pace, and location at which role requirements are met” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80).

Flexible work-home arrangements are defined as arrangements that enhance the autonomy of workers in the process of coordinating and integrating work and non-work aspects of their lives (De Cieri, Holmes, Abbott & Pettit, 2005).

Organizational culture: we use Schein's (1985) widely cited definition of organizational culture as "a pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to these problems" (p. 17). We based our *supportive culture* measure as well as our *innovative culture* measure on Cameron and Quinn's competing values framework (CVF; 1999).

Psychological contract is defined as "an individual's beliefs (perceptions) regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that focal person and another party" (Rousseau, 1989, p. 123). In other words, the psychological contract consists of what the employee perceives to be the *obligations* of the employer toward the employee and the obligations of the employee which the employer expects in return (Blomme, Van Rheede & Tromp, 2010).

Work-home balance is defined as the maintenance of a balance between responsibilities inside and outside the work environment (De Cieri, Holmes, Abbott & Pettit, 2005).

Work-home culture is defined as the assumptions, beliefs and values among organizational members regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and personal lives (Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999).

Work-home interference (WHI): Work-home interference in general can be described as the positive and negative spillover from work roles to home roles and vice versa (Greenhaus & Singh, 2003). *Negative work-home interference* can be defined as a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and home domains are mutually incompatible (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). *Positive work-home interference* refers to the extent to which experiences in one domain improve the quality of life in the other (Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

1.7 Thesis outline

This thesis has 7 chapters. This paragraph presents a brief overview of the remaining chapters.

Chapter 2 presents a chapter on work-home values in a book entitled: Generational Diversity at work – New research perspectives (2014, ed. Emma Parry). The book attempts to respond to the need for new perspectives and methodological approaches to investigating generational differences at work in order to establish the validity and value of generations as an axis of diversity.

Chapter 3 presents the outcomes of a research study in which the relationship between positive and negative home-work interference (HWI) and turnover intentions is investigated, as well as the mediating role of perceptions concerning training and development practices among 418 males (n=226; 54%) and females (n=190; 46%), working inside and outside the hospitality industry worldwide (Sok, Blomme, Lub, Tromp & de Ruiter, 2016).

Chapter 4 investigates the relationship between two types of organizational culture, supportive and innovative on the one hand and positive and negative work-home interference on the other hand, among 418 males (n=226; 54%) and females (n=190; 46%), working inside and outside the hospitality industry all over the world (Sok, Blomme & Tromp, 2014).

Chapter 5 explores success factors in the careers of 20 people, both women and men, from inside and outside the hospitality industry. The interviewees, who were all working in a high management position in the Netherlands, were asked to give an extensive account of their whole career by answering two questions: (1) Can you give me an overview of your whole career up till now? (2) What are the factors that have had a positive influence on your way to the top? (Sok, Blomme, Tromp & Van Muijen, 2011).

Chapter 6 presents the outcomes of a research study among 247 people working in the hospitality industry worldwide in 2006 (157 males: 64% and 90 females: 36%). This study examines the relationship between the psychological contract and self-perceived employability (intra-organizational mobility intentions, employee development and perceived

labor market opportunities), among younger and older employees and males and females. The psychological contract measures were work-home flexibility, job content, autonomy, development opportunities, a clear task description, salary and intra-organizational mobility opportunities, job security, performance-related pay and promotion opportunities (Sok, Blomme & Tromp, 2013).

An overview of the chapters, key issues, research questions / hypotheses and research designs of chapter 2-6 can be found in Table 1.1.

Chapter 7 provides the conclusions and implications for future research.

Table 1.1 Overview of chapters, key issues, research questions / hypotheses and research design

Ch.	Key issues	Research Questions / Hypotheses	Research design
2	Generations Work-home values	In this chapter, we consider the fact that work-home balance has become a matter of some concern in today's world. We discuss the theories used in the field of work-home balance and the formation of work-home values. We examine the interplay between historical trends and the work-home values held by Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y. We conclude with a discussion and implications for research and practice.	Conceptual chapter
3	Home-work interference (HWI) Perceptions regarding training and development practices Turnover intentions	H1a: Negative home-work interference is positively related to turnover intention. H1b: Positive home-work interference is negatively related to turnover intention. H2a: Perceptions regarding training and development practices do not mediate the relationship between negative home-work interference and turnover intentions. H2b: Perceptions regarding training and development practices mediate the relationship between positive home-work interference and turnover intentions, such that positive home-work interference leads to higher perceived training and development practices, which in turn leads to lower levels of turnover. H3: Men and women differ with regard to the direct relationships between positive/negative home-work spillovers and turnover intentions, as well as with regard to the mediating role played by perceptions concerning training and development practices in this relationship.	Cross-sectional field study: inside and outside hospitality industry – males and females
4	Culture Positive and negative work-home interference (WHI) Flexible work-home arrangements	H1a: There is a positive relationship between a supportive culture and positive work-home interference. H1b: There is a negative relationship between a supportive culture and time-based negative work-home interference. H1c: There is a negative relationship between a supportive culture and strain-based negative work-home interference. H2a: Flexible work-home arrangements mediate the relationship between a supportive culture and positive work-home interference.	Cross-sectional field study: inside and outside hospitality industry – control variables gender + children in the house

		<p>H2b: Flexible work-home arrangements mediate the relationship between a supportive culture and time-based negative work-home interference.</p> <p>H2c: Flexible work-home arrangements mediate the relationship between a supportive culture and strain-based negative work-home interference.</p> <p>H3a: There is a positive relationship between an innovative culture and positive work-home interference.</p> <p>H3b: There is a positive relationship between an innovative culture and time-based negative work-home interference.</p> <p>H3c: There is a positive relationship between an innovative culture and strain-based negative work-home interference.</p>	
5	Objective career success	<p>1. How do women in the hospitality industry reach top positions?</p> <p>2. What are the factors that contribute to their advancement along the way?</p>	<p>Qualitative field study:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - inside and outside hospitality industry - males and females - career phases
6	Psychological contract Employability (internal and external employability, development)	<p>H1a. Fulfillment of employer obligations relates positively to intra-organizational mobility intentions (internal employability).</p> <p>H1b. Fulfillment of employer obligations relates positively to employee development.</p> <p>H1c. Fulfillment of employer obligations relates positively to employees' perceived labor market opportunities (external employability).</p> <p>H2a. The mean group scores for psychological contract are lower for women, compared to those for men.</p> <p>H2b. The mean group scores for perceived employability are lower for women, compared to those for men.</p> <p>H2c. Gender is a moderator for specific relations between fulfillment of employer obligations and employability (internal and external employability, development) in such a way that development opportunities, intra-organizational mobility opportunities, promotion opportunities, salary and performance-related pay are expected to be stronger predictors of employability for men than for women, while work-home flexibility arrangements are a stronger predictor of employability for women when compared to men.</p>	<p>Cross-sectional field study:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - hospitality industry - younger and older employees - males and females

		<p>H3a. The mean group scores for psychological contract are lower for older workers, compared to those for younger employees.</p> <p>H3b. The mean group scores for perceived employability are lower for older employees, compared to those for younger employees.</p> <p>H3c. Age is a moderator for specific relations between the fulfillment of employer obligations and perceived employability (internal and external employability, development). Work-home flexibility, autonomy and job security are expected to be stronger predictors of employability for older workers than for younger workers, while development opportunities, intra-organizational and promotion opportunities, and job content are expected to be stronger predictors of employability for younger workers when compared to older workers.</p>	
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CHAPTER 2: Work-home values: the interplay between historical trends and generational work-home values¹

Abstract

In the past 60 years both the work and the home domain have undergone profound changes. As a result, balancing work and home life has become more difficult for many employees and private individuals, and a primary concern to employers and policy makers.

The three generations currently present in the workforce have received different imprints from the social trends that occurred during their youth. This has resulted in the formation of different work-home values and behaviors in different generations. Consequently, we argue that, in order to accomplish a sustainable workforce, the three current (and the next) generations require different approaches from policymakers and employers.

¹ This chapter is based on: Sok, J., Lub, X.D., & Blomme, R.J. (2014). Generations and work-home values: the interplay between historical trends and generational work-home identity. In E. Parry (Ed.). *Generational Diversity at Work: New Research Perspectives* (pp. 52-66). London: Palgrave Macmillan.

2.1 Introduction

In the political, public and academic arenas, work-home balance has long been the subject of a vivid debate (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). Over the years, socio-economic factors including job security, the rapid growth in the number of dual-earner families and an increase in the number of women entering the job market have made it harder to combine work with home obligations and demands (Duxbury & Higgins, 2001; Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). In this chapter, we will argue that the increasing difficulty in maintaining a good work-home balance can be explained by different perspectives on work-home balance as held by the three generations operating in today's workforce.

First, we claim that these generations have different interests with regard to their work-home balance. We build on the notion that every generation receives a distinctive imprint from the social trends that occurred during its youth (Mannheim, 1952). The profound societal changes of the past decades with regard to the work-home interface can therefore be expected to have resulted in the formation of different work-home values and behaviors in different generations.

Consequently, we argue that the three current (and the next) generations require different approaches from policymakers and employers. Following the literature on work-home balance (for an overview, see for example Guest, 2002), we claim that the generational perspective on work-home balance has been somewhat neglected (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008). However, we believe that precisely this perspective can offer an interesting addition to the present literature on work-home balance.

We shall first consider the fact that work-home balance has become a matter of some concern in today's world. We shall discuss the theories used in the field of work-home balance and the formation of work-home values. We shall then examine the interplay between historical trends and the work-home values held by Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y. We shall conclude with a discussion and implications for research and practice. An overview of the concepts and definitions we use in this chapter is given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Concepts and definitions, used in this chapter

Concept	Definition	Source
Generation	An identifiable group (cohort) that shares birth years, (social) location and significant life events at critical development stages	Kupperschmidt, 2000
Baby boom generation	The generation born between 1945 and 1964	Eisner, 2005
Generation X	The generation born between 1965 and 1980	Eisner, 2005
Generation Y	The generation born between 1981 and 1995	Eisner, 2005
Values	An individual's basic convictions that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable	Rokeach, 1973
Work values	The importance that individuals place on their work outcomes	Elizur & Sagie, 1999
Work-home values	The importance that individuals place on work and home outcomes at the same time	Sok, Lub & Blomme, this chapter
Work-home balance	The maintenance of a balance between responsibilities inside and outside the work environment	De Cieri, Holmes, Abbott & Pettit, 2005
Work-home conflict	Occurs when simultaneous pressures from the work and home or family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect, such that meeting the demands of one role makes it difficult to meet the demands of the other role	Greenhaus & Singh, 2003
Work-home arrangements	Arrangements that may enable workers to manage work and domestic obligations more successfully	Dijkers et al., 2007
Traditional	More gender-role-segregated	Barnett, 2005
Gender egalitarian	Less gender-role-segregated	Barnett, 2005
Identity centrality	The importance or psychological attachment that individuals place on their role identities	Settles, 2004

2.2 Work-home balance

Most scholars agree that work and home life constitute the two most important domains of people's adult lives. In the past 60 years, both domains have undergone profound changes, which have nowhere been more evident than in the western industrial societies of Europe and the US (Barnett, 2005). As a result of these changes, balancing work and home life has become more difficult for many employees and private individuals, and a primary concern to employers and policymakers.

Both in Europe and in the U.S., several interconnected developments in the work domain and the home domain have taken place. Authors seem to agree that work demands have grown excessively. Globalization, in combination with increasing competitive pressures on businesses, has resulted in increased work effort and extended hours, leading to more exhaustion, stress-related problems and work-home conflict (Allan, O'Donnell & Peetz, 1999; Burchielli, Bartram & Thanacoody, 2008; Guest, 2002). This process is sometimes referred to as 'work intensity' (Guest, 2002, p. 257). In addition, the ageing population is gradually leading to a shrinking labor pool and a higher proportion of older employees in the workplace (Magd, 2003). Furthermore, since employees are increasingly expected to move self-sufficiently within the labor market instead of holding a job for life, they feel forced to constantly work on their employability (Forrier, Sels & Stynen, 2009). This development causes, among other things, job insecurity (Sturges, Conway, Guest & Liefoghe, 2005). One of the most significant changes, however, is the growing labor force participation of women that has been witnessed since the 1950s and 1960s (Bianchi & Raley, 2005). This has brought about a dramatic shift in the allocation of time and energy devoted to work and home roles.

It is generally assumed that the developments in the work environment increasingly dominate people's home life (cf. Guest, 2002). The growing need of earning two (or three) incomes to support a family is one cause of increased stress and pressures (Christensen, 2005). Many people also have to take care of older relatives (Spillman & Pezzin, 2000). Furthermore, the rise in the number of dual earner families causes difficulty in dealing with the tensions resulting from competing demands (Barnett, 2005). In addition, families are becoming more diverse, as a result of increasing divorce rates (Christensen, 2005). Single parents and co-

parenting ex-couples have more difficulty to combine work and home tasks (Spillman & Pezzin, 2000).

Concluding, we can say that authors and scholars generally hold the view that societies and organizations do not seem to fulfill the work-home needs of their increasingly diverse and varied workforce (Christensen, 2005).

2.3 Life roles and work-home values

Perrewé and Hochwarter (2001) argue that considering values and value attainment is critical to understanding work-home balance. Until now, management and psychological (work-home) research has not devoted much attention to individual differences in employees' personal values, work values or home values (Kossek, 2005). In addition, research into such values has taken place in isolated streams (Elizur & Sagie, 1999).

Still, several scholars have looked into life roles, and some of them have made the connection with values. Here, we wish to discuss two general views on life roles and values. First, Super's *life-career rainbow* (1980) shows that, at different points in their lives, individuals play several roles simultaneously. Super explains that these roles impact each other, and that success and failure can spill over to other life roles. In addition, Schwartz et al. present a *theory of basic individual values*, in which nineteen basic values are placed on a continuum based on compatible and conflicting motivations (2012). These values are considered to influence choices and behaviors in all life roles.

In an attempt to work toward a more holistic view regarding values, Elizur and Sagie developed a "multifaceted definition of personal values, incorporating both life and work values" (1999; p. 73). In their research, the *spillover* hypothesis in particular proved to be successful in explaining the relationships between work and non-work values. Staines (1980) was among the first to recognize that emotions and behaviors related to the work environment can spill over to the home environment (or the other way around), therewith transcending the physical and temporal boundaries of both domains. Furthermore, Perrewé and Hochwarter (2001)

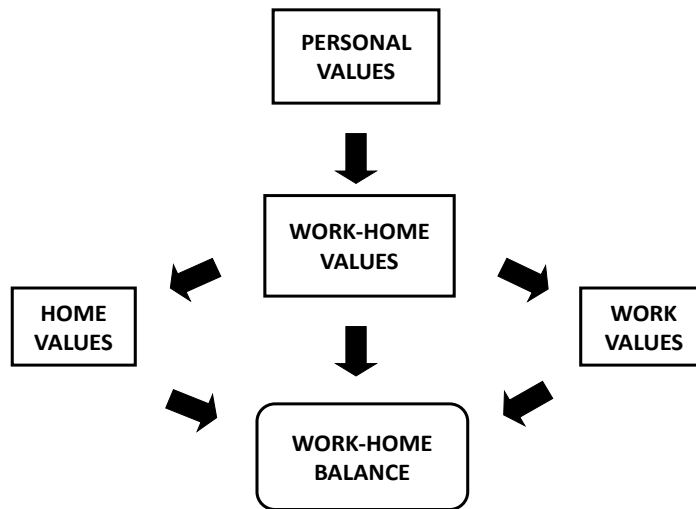
contend that an individual can experience conflict between work and home demands because of value incongruence, either between the individual and a family member, or between the individual and the organisation. Carlson and Kacmar's research outcomes point in the same direction (2000). They found that the importance individuals attach to different life roles is related to the level of work-home conflict.

The approaches described here suggest that work-home balance largely depends on the interplay between work values, home values and the more general personal or life values held by individuals. However, the notion of the integration of work values and home values merits further discussion. In order to develop a truly integrated approach, we have to determine that people do indeed integrate work values and home values in a combined set of work-home values. Moreover, we have to investigate *how* people integrate these different sets of values in their lives in order to create work-home balance (Figure 2.1). To this end, we need to develop a better understanding of the processes underlying the integration of different sets of values.

Clark's *Border Theory* (2000) could be a good starting point for this. This approach focuses on the interplay between the work domain and the home domain. Clark argues that the borders between work and home domains are becoming more and more fluid. In her view, people are daily border-crossers between the world of work and the home world. "People shape these worlds, mold the borders between them, and determine the border-crosser's relationship to that world and its members" (Clark, 2000, p. 748). This emphasis on how individuals shape their activities in both environments and create meaning could, perhaps, be a good starting point for developing a novel view on how 'work-home values' are formed within the individual. However, this would require more research.

Settles' *identity centrality* approach (2004) could, from a psychological point of view, also prove to be fruitful here, since it focuses on how people deal with combining different central value systems.

Figure 2.1 A model of values and work-home balance



Concluding, we propose that work-home values be investigated for their usefulness as a linking mechanism between work values and home values. We suggest that work-home values are formed and shaped simultaneously via personal values, work-related values and home-related values. When the integration is successful, work-home balance is achieved. To illustrate this, we refer to Burchielli, Bartram and Thanacoody (2008), who explain that the internalization of organizational values, for instance, can have a personal cost in terms of time pressures, stress and exhaustion.

In the next section, we will explore how the process of developing work-home values is different for the three generations that are currently active in the labor market.

2.4 The three generations and their work-home values

Although research in the field of work or home values has been growing, there is still a dearth of research on possible generational differences in this field. Scholars, however, argue that during adolescence and young adulthood, individual self-concept and identity take shape and

become consolidated (Inglehart, 1997). Therefore, career aspirations and family plans are likely to be influenced by the work and family life that children and young adults experience and observe in the world around them and in the home domain (Riggio & Desrochers, 2005). Consequently, individuals within generations often share similar life courses. We argue, therefore, that individuals within generations develop similarities in work-home values. This view is supported by Riggio and Derochers (2005), who explain that identity formation is crucial during childhood and early adolescence, “including the development of gender roles and personal ideas toward work and personal relationships, with parents in particular serving as role models of what it means to be an adult” (p. 177). We also propose that differences can be found between generations with regard to work-home values and, consequently, expectations toward an employer with regard to work-home arrangements. It would therefore be important to enlarge our framing of the issue by studying work-home values of generations.

2.5 Factors influencing work-home values

First, we have to identify the factors that might have created shifts in work-home values. Two theoretical approaches can be helpful in understanding which developments have affected demands and resources in the work-home sphere.

First, let us consider the *Conservation of Resources theory* (Hobfoll & Shirom, 1980). Hobfoll and Shirom argue that stress can occur when individuals experience a loss of resources (self-esteem, energy) in the work or home domain, which might result in a spillover of negative emotions and stress into the other domain.

In addition, the *resources-demands model* (Voydanoff, 2005) can help us to understand how the perception of work-home balance derives from assessing the relative demands and resources associated with work roles and home roles.

Both theories, when applied to the development of generational values, are congruent with Inglehart's (1997) *theory of intergenerational values change*. This theory is based on two hypotheses.

The first, the 'socialization hypothesis', suggests that the basic values held by adults reflect the socio-economic conditions of their childhood and adolescence.

The second hypothesis, the 'scarcity hypothesis', proposes that the greatest value is placed on those socio-economic aspects that were in short supply during a generation's childhood years and adolescence. Although Inglehart (1999) focuses merely on economic resources, several other authors have indicated that the same processes might also apply to other resources. For example, researchers who have investigated national trends, world trends or changes over the past 50 years have identified developments that are thought to have influenced generations' values. Scott's research (2000), for instance, identified economic factors such as unemployment to be important for the formation of work values and home values. In addition, the author mentions increased pressure in the work place and family breakdown as important factors. She also observed several "value clashes between generations" (Scott, 2000, p. 355) with regard to these trends.

Several researchers have identified other significant changes in the work domain as well as in the home domain. They can be summarized as demographic factors, such as family stability, education, female labor market participation and income (cf. Christensen, 2005; Kossek, 2005); economic factors, such as prosperity, employment, type of work and the possibility to live on one income (e.g. Bianchi & Raley, 2005), and finally factors in the work environment, the home environment and the work-home sphere, such as technological advances, views on gender division of labor, work demands and work-home boundaries (cf. Barnett, 2005; Jackson, 2005).

The value-forming trends are summarized in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Historical trends since World War II by generation (Baby Boom, X, Y)

<i>Historical trends</i>		
Baby Boom (1945-1964)	Generation X (1965-1980)	Generation Y (1981-1995)
<i>Demographic trends</i>		
Stable families	Growing divorce rates	Growing divorce rates
Traditional families	More diverse families	More diverse families
Low-educated mothers	More higher-educated mothers	More higher-educated mothers
Low female labor market participation	Growing female labor market participation (temporary)	High female labor market participation (permanent)
Low household incomes	Growing household incomes, recessions	Growing household incomes, insecurity
<i>Economic trends</i>		
Scarcity, rebuilding	Growth, unemployment	Prosperous, insecurity
Agricultural	Industrial	Knowledge work
Possible to live on one income	Difficult to live on one income	Two-income necessity
<i>Work-home trends</i>		
Traditional	More gender-egalitarian	Gender egalitarian
Single-earner families	More dual-earner families	More dual-earner families
Hard work, less pressure	Harder work, more pressure	Harder work, more pressure
Strong work-home boundaries	Blurring work-home boundaries	Blurring work-home boundaries

2.6 The work-home values of the Baby Boom generation, Generation X and Generation Y²

In this section, we will explore the demographic, economic and work-home developments that have shaped the three cohorts and we will extrapolate these developments to the work-home values which these generational cohorts may hold. Our historical overview (Table 2.2) shows

² Unless indicated otherwise, the information in this section is derived from the U.S. Census Bureau and Eurostat.

that the three generations discussed in this chapter (Baby Boomers, X, Y) grew up and spent their formative life stages (age 16-25) under different circumstances. We expect them, therefore, to have developed different values with regard to the work domain and the home domain. In discussing the three generations, we follow the most commonly used generational taxonomy (Baby Boomers, X, Y: Eisner, 2005; Lub, Nije Bijvank, Bal, Blomme & Schalk, 2012).

2.6.1 The Baby Boom generation

In many western countries, the end of World War II brought about a baby boom. This boom is usually considered to have lasted from 1945-1964, but in European countries that had suffered war damage the boom began and ended a few years later. After 1957, in both the U.S. and in most European countries, birth rates started to decline. Baby Boomers grew up in the difficult phase after World War II. However, economic circumstances, incomes and educational attainment started to improve slowly during this era (Whitehead, 2008). These developments were slightly slower in Europe because of the post-war reconstruction. In all western countries, a gradual shift took place from agriculture to industry and services (Whitehead, 2008).

One of the most dramatic demographic trends in the 1950s and 1960s was the entrance of women in paid labor (Bianchi & Raley, 2005). Initially, working mothers were seen as 'unfeminine', and men who were active parents and shared the housework with their wives were 'mama's boys' (Barnett, 2005). Nevertheless, more gender-egalitarian views and habits became widely adopted in the 1960s and 1970s, but Baby Boomers still predominantly experienced a two-parent, traditional context, with families living on one income: the father's (Cherlin, 1992). In their formative years, however, the gender-specialized division of labor in Western countries became less universal (Bianchi & Raley, 2005), probably mainly as a result of the democratization processes accompanied with growing individualization and women's independence. Their mothers' educational and occupational opportunities expanded. Still, the main role of their fathers lay outside the home, and the main role of their mothers lay inside the home.

The Baby Boomers grew up in relatively large and stable families. During the baby boom period, family life was characterized by early and nearly universal marriage, low divorce rates and high fertility (Cherlin, 1992). During their formative years, in the second half of the twentieth century, the general marital pattern started to change and divorce rates went up (Bianchi & Raley, 2005). As a result, families gradually started to become more diverse.

Values of the Baby Boom generation

With regard to work values, the work-orientation of Baby Boomers is likely to be quite high. They can also be expected to hold more traditional values with regard to the division of work outside and inside the home, compared with the other generations.

The era in which the Baby Boom generation grew up can be characterized by two main developments. The first is the rebuilding process after World War II, which caused economies to start growing slowly. The second concerns the traditional work division structure based on gender, which started to show its first cracks. This must be seen against the backdrop of democratization processes that started to evolve, combined with new economic developments. Beutell and Wittig-Berman (2008, p. 509) indeed found that, also as a result of economic circumstances while growing up, Baby Boomers “live to work” (as opposed to Xers, who “work to live”, and Yers, who seem to value home and leisure life more).

In addition, the Baby Boomers predominantly grew up in families with a traditional gender division in terms of work. The main role of the men was outside the home, and the role of the women inside the home; female labor market participation was low. Families were still quite stable. Indeed, work seems to be quite central in the lives of the Baby Boomers, especially in the lives of the male members, and they seem to experience lower levels of work-home conflict compared to both Xers and Yers (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008).

2.6.2 Generation X

The identity development of Generation X, born between 1965 and 1980, took shape between the 1980s and 2000s. Although members of this generation generally grew up in an era of economic growth, many Xers experienced a series of serious economic recessions in the 1980s, during their formative years (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance, 2010). The 1990s saw the longest period of economic growth and stability after World War II. When some of

the Xers were still in their formative phase, economies in general grew steadily, despite most economies showing significant recessions in the 1980 and 1990s.

Generation X grew up in smaller and more diverse families compared to the Baby Boomers, as birth rates declined, divorce rates grew and the number of single parents went up. Increasingly, families had one or two higher-educated parents. Women in particular more often engaged in higher education. In addition, children of the X generation were more and more raised in families with working mothers. Gender-egalitarian views were widely adopted (Bianchi & Raley, 2005) and many of their mothers were part of the labor force. Both their parents increasingly combined roles, taking care of children and other family members and holding more demanding jobs, part-time jobs, contracts of limited duration or flexible work schedules (Bianchi & Raley, 2005). The 1980s and 1990s saw the introduction of some (state-provided) care-giving facilities in Western Europe and, to a lesser extent, in the U.S. (Bianchi & Raley, 2005) to improve work-home balance, but work and home remained increasingly hard to combine.

Values of Generation X

Xers are likely to be less work-centric than the Baby Boomers. In addition, this generation is also more likely than the Baby Boomers to value work-home balance.

The formative years of Generation X were characterized by prosperity, with periods of severe economic insecurity. Work life started to give more pressure and, for families, it became increasingly difficult to live on one income, which forced mothers to enter the labor market as well. Research carried out by Twenge et al. (2010) in fact confirms the lower work-centrality of the Generation X. According to Beutell and Wittig-Berman (2008), Xers are less loyal to organizations. Instead of seeking job security, they place more value on developing their own careers (Kupperschmidt, 2000).

Generation X experienced their mothers moving into the working world and expanding their life roles. Some empirical evidence for this can be found in the literature (Twenge et al., 2010; Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008). Eisner (2005) reported Xers in particular to have difficulty dealing with disappearing boundaries between work and private life. In addition, the growing divorce rates of their parents will likely make Xers place more value on their home life. Xers are therefore more likely to experience negative spillover from work to home and a loss of resources, resulting in stress.

2.6.3 Generation Y

Generation Y, born between 1981 and 1995, generally grew up in prosperity. The rise in household income was largely the result of an increase in personal income, mostly due to higher educational levels. Moreover, the increase in the number of women entering the labor force had led to a rising percentage of dual-earner households. Since the start of the most recent financial crisis (2007 in the U.S. and 2008 in Europe³), however, this generation has been experiencing considerable economic insecurity.

Compared with the Baby Boomers and Xers, the Y generation increasingly grew up in more gender-egalitarian eras. Many of them have mothers who are higher educated and are active in the labor market. Yers are currently experiencing a situation in which people have to work harder than ever, due to work intensification, and in which people are engaged in various and changing labor patterns, because of growing job insecurity (Kossek, 2005). They will be less able to survive on one income, and differences in income within societies will continue to grow (Whitehead, 2008).

Yers grew up in smaller and more diverse families, compared to the Baby Boomers and Xers: dual-earner families, divorced parents, single parent homes, part-time working parents, and parents working two (or more) jobs (Whitehead, 2008). This is a result of growing divorce rates and the increase in the number of people who married late or who never married (Bianchi & Raley, 2005). Moreover, the burden of caring for dependents is likely to increase, because of the growth in the number of single parent families and the aging population (Kossek, 2005).

During the past few decades, due to the growing use of technology and growing flexibility in the work life, the boundaries between work and private life have become 'blurred' (Kossek, 2005). Although from the 1970s onwards attention to the difficult interplay between labor market demands and family care-giving tasks has increased (Bianchi & Raley, 2005), combining work and home life continues to be very problematic.

³ Based on data from the Centre for Economic Policy Research; see www.cepr.org.

Values of Generation Y

One would expect Yers to place less value on work than the Baby Boomers, and to hold more gender-egalitarian views.

Generation Y on the one hand grew up in prosperity but, on the other hand, also experienced growing economic insecurity. Research carried out by Beutell and Wittig-Berman (2008) indeed revealed that Yers are less likely to allocate energy to work tasks. Findings from a study held by Twenge et al. (2010) indicate that, in contrast to older generations, they also prefer jobs that provide more vacation time. Twenge et al. (2010), not surprisingly, also found Yers to be quite self-confident, to have high expectations from their employers, and to be more likely to leave the organization if their expectations are not met.

Yers grew up in times in which many mothers held permanent jobs outside the home. Research indeed shows that girls and boys with employed mothers report less traditional gender-role attitudes than children of non-employed mothers (cf. Barnett, 2005). Beutell and Wittig-Berman (2008), for example, found that Yers embrace family values more than Xers. Yers, however, are currently entering their childbearing years and it remains to be seen what, ultimately, their work-home values will be. The same holds for their expectations with regard to work-home arrangements and their attitude toward their employers. Finally, because of today's continuous technical advances, Yers can be expected to be faced with more blurred boundaries than the Baby Boom and the Xers were (Clark, 2000; Jackson, 2005). Still, they may have less difficulty in dealing with this phenomenon than the Xers.

Concluding this section, we can say that the values that people place on their work life and their home life have shifted quite substantially between the three generations. The Baby Boom generation places more value on work, with the men still putting greater emphasis on the work role and the women putting greater emphasis on the home role. The boundaries between both spheres are still solid, but permeable. Work-home balance, however, is starting to become a problem. In Generation X, men and women have grown closer together, placing value on the work role as well as the home life role and valuing the boundaries between both spheres. As a result, they are more heavily affected by negative spillover processes and experience a greater loss of resources than the Baby Boomers. The Y Generation seems to

value both roles, trying increasingly hard to prevent the work role from interfering with their much-valued home role.

2.7 Discussion and implications for practice and future research

Western industrial societies are in search of a healthy integration of the work domain and the home domain (Christensen, 2005; Van der Lippe et al., 2011). We feel that, in order to accomplish a sustainable workforce, the work-home values of the Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y must be taken into consideration.

Of course, in different areas around the world people grow up differently with regard to socio-cultural and socio-demographic circumstances, and these differences will always have to be taken into account. Still, in this chapter we argued that different generations (Baby Boomers, Xers, Yers) have developed different value systems in response to general changes in their life experiences during childhood and early adolescence (Inglehart, 1997). Therefore, they can be expected to not only have formed different *work* values and *home* values, but also to show differences in the integration of both sets of values into *work-home* values.

Existing research indeed suggests that, again, Baby Boomers generally seem to be more work-oriented, Xers to be more work-home balance-oriented, and Yers, in comparison, to be more home-oriented (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008). Research outcomes like these show that important similarities exist in value systems within generations. These value systems can be seen as a “natural view of the world” (Scott, 2000, p. 356) within generations that separates them from other generations.

With regard to work-home research, we therefore suggest the following. First, we have to gain a deeper insight into how the work-home values of workers from different generations have taken shape and what precisely they are today. Which combination and level of integration of values is successful when we consider work-home balance? We suggest that the border theory (Clark, 2000) could be a good starting point, because it places emphasis on how people shape their work and their home environments. The identity centrality approach (Settles, 2004)

could also be of use here, since it focuses on how people deal with different central value systems for different life roles.

Second, more research is needed into the needs of different generations with regard to work-home arrangements. Questions to be answered concern ways in which generations differ with regard to specific work-home arrangements expected to be provided by employers.

Future research could also address the question how generations differ with regard to reactions to employers' efforts to accomplish work-home balance. Finally, we could investigate what factors influence the reactions of the different generations.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter supported our claim that a better understanding of generational perspectives contributes to the existing knowledge about the increase in problems in balancing the work and home domains. For example, although the Baby Boomers will gradually be leaving the labor market, many of them will be around for another fifteen to twenty years. Eventually, they will be replaced by Xers and Yers. The first Generation Y employees entered the labor force about ten years ago. Often, they will encounter managers from a different generation, with different (work-home) values, attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, organizations need to realize that employees from different generations often have different work-home values and needs. In order to attract and retain talent, organizations have to find ways to reconcile the two most important institutions in the lives of their employees: work and home life. When employers become more acquainted with the work-home values and expectations held by employees from different generations, they will be able to respond to them more adequately and improve current working conditions and work-home arrangements (Van der Lippe & Bäck-Wicklund, 2011).

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CHAPTER 3: The relationship between positive and negative home-work interference and turnover intentions: the mediating role of perceptions concerning training and development practices⁴

Abstract

This paper investigates the relationship between positive and negative home-work interference (HWI) and turnover intentions, as well as the mediating role of perceptions concerning training and development practices. *Negative HWI* related positively to turnover intentions while *Positive HWI* showed negative relationships with turnover intentions. Positive HWI and turnover intentions were partially mediated by training and development practices in which the mediation effect was stronger for women than it was for men. The outcomes suggest that helping employees to balance their work-home lives can be beneficial for employees, as well as for employers in terms of reducing turnover intentions. Training and development practices did not mediate the relationship between negative HWI and turnover intentions, however, suggesting that providing training and development opportunities is unlikely to have a buffering effect in the case of negative HWI.

⁴ This chapter is based on: Sok, J., Blomme, R., Lub, X., Tromp, D., & Ruiter, M. de. *The relationship between positive and negative home-work interference and turnover intentions: the mediating role of perceptions concerning training and development practices*. An Empirical study accepted by the Work and Family Researchers Network (WFRN), June 23-25, 2016, Washington, USA.

3.1 Introduction

Despite the current economic stagnation in Western Europe and the United States, employee turnover continues to be a concern for organizations and managers (Allen, Bryant & Vardaman, 2010; Huffman, Casper & Payne, 2014). While some degree of turnover is considered positive, as it can help to refresh knowledge and ideas in an organization (Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012), turnover is associated with high costs and negative financial consequences. For example, as asserted by Allen and colleagues (2010), ‘the costs associated with recruiting, selecting, and training new employees often exceed 100% of the annual salary for the position being filled’ (p. 48). Turnover also has an adverse effect on organizational competitiveness. The loss of valuable knowledge and skills due to turnover results in a decline in competitive advantage (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee & Eberly, 2008; Blomme, Van Rheede & Tromp, 2010; Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012). Moreover, some scholars have argued that turnover results in decreased productivity and diminished employee morale (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000).

Given the negative consequences associated with employee turnover, scholars of organizational behavior and management remain interested in examining the causes of turnover intentions and exit behavior (Hom, Mitchell, Lee & Griffeth, 2012).

Although research has generally tended to focus on ‘characteristics of the work environment’ as major causes of turnover (Huffman et al., 2014, p. 194), scholars are beginning to acknowledge the importance of non-work factors (including positive non-work relationships) for work-related attitudes and behaviors (Greenhaus & Singh, 2012). Despite the increasing interest in the role of non-work factors in the work domain, there are important gaps and shortcomings in the existing literature.

According to a systematic review of the work-family literature (McNall, Nicklin & Masuda, 2010), only a few studies have examined the relationship between family-to-work enrichment and turnover intentions. For this reason, McNall and colleagues (2010) call for more research on the relationship between positive family-to-work spillover and intentions to leave the organization.

It is also important to focus on the effect of *negative* non-work relationships, as negative interactions are likely to have a more profound effect on attitudes and behavioral intentions than positive non-work relational exchanges are (Laschober, Allen & Eby, 2012). Moreover, as noted by Greenhaus and Singh (2012), few scholars have addressed the processes through which non-work relationships affect work-related attitudes and behavior.

In this chapter, we address the aforementioned shortcomings.

First, we provide additional insight into the relationship between non-work factors and turnover intentions by examining the ways in which both *positive* and *negative* home-work interference (HWI) are related to turnover intentions. We deliberately use the term ‘home’ instead of ‘family’ and ‘life’, as the terms ‘work-family’, ‘work-home’ and ‘work-life’ tend to be used interchangeably in the literature (cf. Guest, 2002).

In addition, the definition of home covers a variety of possible home activities, including family, community and leisure activities (cf. Guest, 2002; Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2013). In response to the call of Greenhaus and Singh (2012) for more research on mediating mechanisms, we consider the mediating role played by perceptions concerning human resource (HR) practices, and particularly perceptions of training and development practices, in the relationship between positive/negative HWI and turnover intentions.

We draw on the theory of conservation of resources (COR; Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) to explain the suggested relationships.

We also draw on existing research examining the antecedents of perceptions concerning organizational work-family practices (i.e. Valcour, Ollier-Malaterre, Matz-Costa, Pitt Catsouphe & Brown, 2011) to help explain why negative HWI is likely to undermine the perception that training and development opportunities are provided, even if organizations actually do offer such opportunities.

On the other hand, positive HWI might stimulate employees to engage in actively seeking opportunities for training and development, thereby having a positive effect on perceptions of such opportunities. In both instances, perceptions regarding training and development practices subsequently may affect turnover intentions. More specifically, research shows that employees who perceive that they are not offered many opportunities for training and

development are likely to leave the organization, while those who perceive that their organizations offer many opportunities are likely to stay (e.g. Kuvaas, 2008). However, research to the role of perceived opportunities for training and development in the relation between HWI and turnover intentions is scarce (see for example, McNall, Nicklin & Masuda, 2010).

The present study contributes to the literature on work-family relationships, turnover and HR, in addition to being relevant to HR managers and other practitioners. As suggested by Wright and Nishii (2007), perceived HR practices are likely to have a greater impact on employee attitudes and behavior than intended HR practices do. Nevertheless, researchers have yet to pay much attention to the antecedents of perceptions of HR practices. To address this gap, we examine the potential effects of non-work factors on perceived HR practices, thereby providing important insights for developing appropriate work-home balance strategies and organizational support strategies for non-work issues.

3.1.1 Home-work interference and turnover intentions

In this study, we focus on spillovers from home to work, a topic that has received less attention than have spillovers from work to home (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; 2012; see Guest, 2002). Staines (1980) was amongst the first to recognize that emotions and behaviors experienced and developed in home activities can spill over to other domains, thus transcending the physical and temporal boundaries of the home and the workplace. Consequently, positive experiences in the home domain could have positive spillover effects in the work domain, while negative experiences could lead to negative spillovers (see e.g. Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2013). In order to understand the process underlying negative HWI and the ways in which negative behavior and emotions spill over from the home to the workplace, we draw on the COR theory developed by Hobfoll and Shirom (2001), as well as on the *role theory* of Katz and Kahn (1978), paying particular attention to the *role scarcity* perspective (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). As postulated by the COR theory, individuals seek to acquire and maintain resources. Stress is seen as ‘a reaction to an environment in which there is the threat of a loss of resources, an actual loss in resources, or lack of an expected gain in resources’ (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999, p. 352). Following Hobfoll and Shirom (2001), we define resources as

objects, conditions, personal characteristics and energy. As such, with regard to negative HWI, the COR theory would postulate that a loss of resources in the home domain should be likely to cause stress, possibly resulting in a spillover of negative emotions and stress into the work domain. The *role scarcity* perspective focuses on how the finite and scarce character of the time and energy needed to fulfill multiple roles in the domains of home and work can lead to conflict (Goode, 1960; Geurts et al., 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The struggle to fulfill roles in the home roles and carry out domestic activities in which partners try to balance their time and energy consumption can lead to a loss of resources (e.g. time, energy). In turn, this process is likely to cause stress, which can spill over into the work domain. As reported by Hom and Kinicki (2001), inter-role conflict can also have an indirect effect on withdrawal cognitions, through job dissatisfaction and feelings of resentment toward the organization. In line with COR theory (Hobfoll & Shirom 2001), we argue that, as employees struggle to reach goals and distribute affective resources to the domains of home and work, a lack of adequate resources in the home domain is likely to cause negative home-to-work spillovers (Staines, 1980; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), and that employees might consequently consider leaving their current employers, thus increasing turnover intentions. Several studies have indeed demonstrated that negative HWI decreases both affective commitment and continuance commitment (Treadway et al., 2011), while increasing turnover intention (Yavas, Batakus & Karatepe, 2008). In light of these observations, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1a: Negative HWI is positively related to turnover intentions.

In the past decade, the benefits of multiple roles in the domains of work and home have also been highlighted in the literature, albeit sparsely (Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurts & Pulkkinen, 2006). The theory of *role accumulation* can also help to explain positive spillovers. As postulated by this theory, privileges, status security, psychological energy and personal growth gained through roles in the home or work domain can result in the expansion of individual resources and the facilitation of role performance in the other domain (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). *Positive HWI* thus refers to the extent to which experiences in the home domain improve the quality of life in the work domain (Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). For example, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) distinguish two paths of spillover through which positive HWI is likely to occur and by which it can be defined. The

first path can be described as the instrumental path, through which money, social capital (e.g. friends, harmonious family relationships), skills (e.g. organizing and scheduling) and other resources are acquired in the home domain and directly applied in the work role, thereby enhancing positive affect and performance (Hanson et al., 2006). Following Greenhaus and Ten Brummelhuis (2013), the second path could be described as the affective path, through which positive energy is gained in the home role (e.g. as a result of joyful events) and subsequently spilled over to the work domain.

Supported by the ideas presented above, we argue that the positive psychological energy of employees following from their domestic activities is likely to diminish their desire to quit their jobs (cf.. Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurts & Pulkkinen, 2006). In addition, research has associated positive HWI with higher levels of wellbeing (Allis & O'Driscoll, 2008), as well as with greater affective and continuance commitment (Treadway, Duke, Perrewe, Breland & Goodman, 2011), thus also linking it to decreases in turnover intentions (Wayne, Randel & Stevens, 2006). We therefore hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1b: Positive HWI is negatively related to turnover intentions.

3.1.2 Home-work interference and turnover intentions: the mediating role of perceived training and development practices

As suggested by Wright and Nishii (2007), the ways in which employees perceive HR practices have a greater impact on their attitudes and behaviors than do HR practices as documented or intended in organizational policies. Perceptions of HR practices refer to employees' beliefs regarding the extent to which 'the HR practices the organization implements are indeed offered to them' (Boon et al., 2011, p. 139).

The literature identifies a variety of HR practices (e.g. Boon et al., 2011 refer to seven HR practices). In this paper, however, we focus specifically on perceptions concerning training and development practices (i.e. the extent to which employees believe that their organizations provide opportunities for training and development). Such perceptions are of the greatest importance to the present study, as scholars have suggested that organizations

tend to be less willing to invest in training and development for employees faced with high demands from the home domain (Valcour & Ladge, 2008).

Research shows that pressures from the home environment (including feelings of overload and disagreements with one's partner) are likely to spill over to the work domain, thus increasing the likelihood of arguments at work and feelings of work overload (Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler & Wethington, 1989). Negative HWI could therefore be expected to lead to perceptions of work overload (Frone, Yardley & Markel, 1997), which undermines employees' perceptions of training and development practices. Following Valcour and colleagues (2011), we draw on COR theory to explain this suggested relationship. Work demands (e.g. high pressure and work overload) pose a threat to valued resources in the workplace (Valcour et al., 2011). Work overload, which is characterized by individuals' feelings of not having enough time to complete all of the tasks that are expected of them (Valcour et al., 2011), is likely to drain important resources, including energy and time. Consequently, employees who experience high work overload are less likely to have the energy or the time that they would need to focus on training and development opportunities offered by the organization, and they are therefore less likely to perceive that these practices are offered at all.

Furthermore, research has shown that employees who attach less importance to their work roles (e.g. due to pressure and demands from the home domain) are less likely to be focused on career and on training and development opportunities, and they are therefore less likely to perceive that these practices are offered at all planning (Valcour & Ladge, 2008). Employees with negative HWI tend to be less interested in development opportunities, as they are more concerned with re-adjusting their work-home balance.

Furthermore, when children are born to these employees and negative HWI builds up, they might tend to put their careers on hold until they see more room for development at work (see for example, Lyness & Thompson, 1997). This is in line to COR theory, in which employees experiencing a loss of resources are likely to 'leave the situation that drains them of their resources' (Huffman et al., 2014, p. 197). In this case, we argue that employees will leave the work domain to build up enough resources to reduce stress in the home domain. Hence, we expect that people with negative HWI will not remark training and development practices but will directly consider to leave the organization. We therefore hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2a: Perceptions regarding training and development practices do not mediate the relationship between negative home-work interference and turnover intentions.

While in the relationship between negative HWI and turnover adversely the perceptions of employees with regard to training and development practices are not a mediator, we argue that in the relationship between positive HWI and turnover intention such perceptions are a mediator. According to Greenhaus and Singh (2012), employees are likely to obtain important resources (e.g. skills, psychosocial and material resources) through positive non-work relationships. For example, Rogers and May (2003) report that having a supportive partner can facilitate self-confidence and self-esteem, whereas Greenhaus and Singh (2012) suggest that positive non-work relationships encourage an employee's 'persistent pursuit of valued goals' (p. 317). An increase in resources (e.g. improved self-efficacy; see Greenhaus & Singh, 2012) makes employees more persistent in their pursuit of opportunities for training and development, therefore making them more likely to perceive that such opportunities are offered.

As observed by Rogers and May (2003), employees who believe that their career investments are appreciated at home and whose partners support their careers are more willing to invest personal resources (e.g. time and energy) in their jobs and careers. We therefore suggest that employees who perceive their home environments to be supportive of their careers should be more likely to engage in the active pursuit of training and development opportunities at work. Employees who actively search for opportunities to develop should be more likely to perceive that their organizations offer such opportunities. This expectation is supported by previous research. For example, Valcour and Ladge (2008) argue that "spouses whose careers are prioritized in family decision making (...) report having had more career opportunities" (p. 303). If employees perceive that their organizations offer training and development opportunities, they should be less likely to leave their organizations. This expectation is supported by research examining the relationship between HR practices and turnover intentions (Boon et al., 2011), as well as by research investigating the relationship between supportive HR practices and intentions to leave the organization (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003). We therefore hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2b: Perceptions regarding training and development practices mediate the relationship between positive home-work interference and turnover intentions, such that positive home-work interference leads to higher perceived training and development practices, which in turn leads to lower levels of turnover.

3.1.3 The role of gender

Researchers argue that men and women hold different views concerning their own home roles, domestic duties and responsibilities and those of their partners (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Karau, 1991). These views have to do with the ways in which work and domestic activities should be integrated (Andrews & Bailyn, 1993) and, as such, they reflect HWI (Sok, Blomme & Tromp, 2014).

Gender role theory provides a foundation for explaining these differences, arguing that gender roles are social expectations of the roles that individuals of a particular gender are expected to perform (Eagly & Karau, 1991). Men and women place different emphases on roles in the work and home domain. These emphases correspond to the stereotypes of the roles they occupy, and they are often driven by processes of socialization, which influence the attitudes that men and women have toward their social roles (Cloninger, Selvarajan, Singh & Shengsheng, 2015).

As argued by Bender, Donohoe and Haywood (2005), women tend to focus more strongly on home activities, as their family roles are more central to their existence. In the same vein, men place more importance on their work than do women, who tend to regard their roles in the home domain as being of equal or even greater importance, relative to their roles in the work domain (Eagly & Karau, 1991).

As argued by Cotter, Hermsen and Vanneman (2011), societal developments (e.g. emancipation) that are causing human society to become more egalitarian and increasing the participation of women in the labor force, and the growing number of dual-earner couples, single parents and co-parenting individuals have brought about a dramatic shift in the allocation of time and energy devoted to the work and the home domains (see e.g. Kossek, Baltes & Matthews, 2011; Sok, Blomme & Tromp, 2014).

Despite these developments, however, the previously mentioned differences in gender role attitudes have persisted over time, and they continue to be reflected in societal attitudes concerning the domains of home and work. More specifically, as asserted by Cloninger and colleagues (2015), these gender role attitudes in relation to the domains of work and home domain can still be observed in Western Europe and the United States. We therefore expect to observe differences between men and women with regard to the role played by perceptions concerning training and development practices in the relationship between HWI and turnover intentions.

Training and development practices are of key importance in the working lives of contemporary employees (Baruch, 2004). One prominent reason could have to do with differences between the career paths of women and those of men.

In developing and testing a gender-specific model of career success, Melamed (1995, 1996) observed that women's careers are more likely to follow a sequential, as opposed to a simultaneous pattern. In other words, their careers tend to develop in stages, comprising a period of employment, career interruption and subsequent re-employment. These stages are linked to biological and social factors. Some of the most common reasons why women take leaves of absence are pregnancy, maternity and child rearing. These reasons are obviously more likely to lead women to interrupt their careers than is the case for men (Lyness & Thompson, 1997).

In addition, such differences in their career paths might strengthen the societal attitude that women place more emphasis on their roles in the home domain than they do on their roles in the work domain, possibly leading employers to be less willing to provide training and development practices to women. For example, studies have indicated that women generally receive fewer opportunities for training and development than men do (International Labour Office, 2010).

Another effect of the differences in the career paths of men and women, particularly with regard to the desire of women to continue their careers after having taken a leave of absence, is that the supply of and demand for professional development opportunities are likely to be of particular importance to women (Melamed, 1996; Tharenou, 1999; ILO, 2010). It is thus logical to expect that women would assign even greater value to training and development

practices than men do. Combined with the relative scarcity of training and development opportunities for women, as compared to men, we argue that perceptions held by women about the extent to which their employers offer opportunities for training and development are likely to have a greater influence on the continuation or termination of their employment contracts than do similar perceptions held by men.

Hypothesis 3: Men and women differ with regard to the direct relationships between positive/negative home-work spillovers and turnover intentions, as well as with regard to the mediating role played by perceptions concerning training and development practices in this relationship.

3.2 Method

Sample

The data for this study were collected from a group of alumni of two business schools located in the Netherlands. In all, 1806 registered alumni were invited by email to complete an online questionnaire.

The questionnaire was ultimately completed by 418 respondents (for a response rate of 23%). Nearly half of the participants (46%) were female. The majority of the respondents had completed a Bachelor's degree in higher professional education (78%), and 22% had completed a Master's degree (with the MBA as the most common degree).

The respondents worked in a variety of sectors and industries (e.g. the hospitality industry and the financial sector), and they were employed in various parts of the world (possibly due to the international orientation of both business schools).

An overview of the background characteristics of the respondents is provided in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Background characteristics of the sample (N=418)

Scales	Nr. (%)
<u><i>Gender</i></u>	
Male	226 (54%)
Female	190 (46%)
<i>Missing</i>	2 (0.5%)
<u><i>Marital status</i></u>	
Single	78 (19%)
Living apart together	39 (9%)
Living together	137 (33%)
Married	162 (39%)
<i>Missing</i>	2 (0.5%)
<u><i>Children living in the home</i></u>	
No	263 (63%)
Yes	155 (37%)
<i>Missing</i>	
<u><i>Age (years)</i></u>	
22-32	198 (49%)
33-43	158 (32%)
44-54	46 (12%)
>55	16 (7%)
<u><i>Education</i></u>	
BA	324 (78%)
MA (MBA)	92 (22%)
<i>Missing</i>	2 (0.5%)
<u><i>Contract (hours/week)</i></u>	
0-12	11 (3%)
13-24	10 (2%)
25-36	70 (17%)
≥37	321 (77%)
<i>Missing</i>	6 (1%)

Measures

Unless otherwise indicated, all variables in the study were measured along a five-point Likert scale, with answer alternatives ranging from 1 ('completely disagree') to 5 ('completely agree').

Turnover intentions. We used a three-item measure (Van Dijck, 1997, as used by Ten Brink, 2004) to measure turnover intentions. An example item is 'the desire to work in another organization'. The internal consistency of this scale was .86.

Positive and negative home-work interference. To measure positive and negative HWI, we used the Survey Work-Home Interaction Nijmegen (SWING), as developed by Geurts and colleagues (2005). This instrument has been validated in several previous studies (e.g. Marais, Mostert, Geurts & Taris, 2009). Four items were used to assess positive HWI (e.g. 'I manage my time at work more efficiently because at home I have to do that as well'). Five items were used to assess negative HWI (e.g. 'Problems with my spouse/family/friends affect my job performance'). Cronbach's alpha values were .87 for positive HWI and .88 for negative HWI.

Perceptions of training and development practices. In order to measure perceptions of training and development practices, we followed the approach used by Boon and colleagues (2011). This questionnaire, which addresses a diverse set of HR practices, is based on several sources, including Ten Brink (2004). We used four items to measure perceptions of training and development practices. Following Boon and colleagues (2011), these items were taken from Ten Brink (2004). The following is one example: 'My organization offers me the opportunity to follow training, courses, and workshops'. The Cronbach's alpha level for this scale was .85.

Table 3.2. Mean values (including values for men and women), standard deviations, Cronbach's alpha levels (α) and bivariate correlations between study variables

	<i>Means</i>	<i>Means</i>	<i>Means</i>	<i>Sd</i>	α	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
		<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>					
1. Gender	0.54			.50				
2. NEGhwi	1.70	1.71	1.68	.59	.88			
3. POShwi	2.91	2.89	2.94	.79	.87	.14**		
4. PTaDP	3.90	3.88	3.93	.85	.85	-.08	.18**	
5. Ti	2.82	2.91	2.71	1.07	.86	.22**	-.18**	-.32**

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

Notes: 1. Gender is coded 0 = female, 1 = male. 2. NEGhwi = negative work-home interference. 3. POShwi = positive work-home interference. 4. PTaDP = Perceived Training and Development Practices. 5. Ti = turnover intentions.

Analyses

Mean scores, standard deviations and Pearson correlations were computed for all variables (see Table 3.2). The measurement model was assessed according to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) performed using AMOS 20 (Arbuckle, 2011). Results of CFA on the 19 initial variables revealed the need to eliminate three items, as the highest loading on the second scale was 4/5 of the loading on the first scale (Stevens, 2009). The final CFA model allowed the correlation of two error terms of the scale for negative HWI. The remaining measuring instrument contained 16 items. The four scales were turnover intention (three items), positive HWI (four items), negative HWI (five items) and perceptions of training and development practices (four items). Normality was confirmed by assessing the skewness and kurtosis of the variables. Cronbach's alpha levels for the scales ranged from .85 to .88, suggesting satisfactory internal consistency. Convergent validity was evaluated by inspecting the standardized factor loadings, which were all $>.50$ and statistically significant. None of the correlations between the study variables exceeded the criterion of .70 (Stevens, 2009). Moderate to strong inter-correlations were found between perceptions of training and development practices and turnover intentions; all other correlations were lower. The correlation between positive and negative HWI was .14 and significant, and both the variance inflation factor (VIF) and the level

of tolerance approached 1 each time, thus suggesting that multicollinearity was not a problem.

Discriminant validity was further evaluated through a series of χ^2 difference tests for each pair of constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The fit measures considered were χ^2 and χ^2/df , which should be 4 or lower. According to Hu and Bentler (1999), the comparative fit index (CFI) should be $>.90$, although a cut-off value of $.95$ seems to be more advisable. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) should be $<.06$, and the standardized root mean square (SRMR) should be $<.08$. Evaluation of common-method bias revealed no issues concerning the use of the latent factor approach in CFA (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). Structural Equation Modelling (SEM; Amos 20) was used to test our hypotheses.

The overall CFA demonstrated a good fit to the data: $\chi^2 = 157.0$; $df = 97$; $\chi^2/df = 1.64$; CFI = $.98$; SRMR = $.04$; RMSEA = $.04$. Results of the single-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) revealed that the four-factor model was superior to the single-factor model ($\chi^2 = 2301.2$; $df = 103$; $\chi^2/df = 22.3$; CFI = $.39$; SRMR = $.22$; RMSEA = $.22$), thus indicating that common-method variance was not a problem. Discriminant validity was confirmed by a series of χ^2 tests of difference for each pair of constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). For each test, we developed a two-dimensional model, after which we forced the items of both constructs into a single-factor solution. The χ^2 difference tests produced significant results for the one-to-one comparisons of each pair of measures, which demonstrated that the two-factor solutions performed better in every analysis. Multi-group analyses revealed that both the measurement instrument and the proposed pattern of relationships were invariant across the groups of male and female respondents. The multi-group analyses showed that the measurement model was acceptable for both men and women (Table 3.3). The χ^2 levels increased significantly only in Model D. Combined with the relatively small changes in CFI, SRMR and RMSEA, this result provided sufficient justification to assume equivalence of the measurement model for the compared groups (cf. Stevens, 2009).

Table 3.3 Comparison of models

	χ^2	Df	χ^2/df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA	SMC Ti
<i>Measurement model</i>									
Multi-group (gender)									
A unconstrained	266.5	194	1.4			.98	.05	.03	
B factor weights	275.0	206	1.3	8.5	12	.98	.05	.03	
C (co-) variances	289.8	214	1.4	14.8	8	.98	.06	.03	
D residuals	323.9	233	1.4	34.1*	19	.98	.06	.03	
<i>Structural model</i>									
non-mediation model	214.8	100	2.1			.97	.09	.05	.11
partial mediation model	157.0	97	1.6	57.8***	3	.98	.04	.04	.22
full-mediation model	184.2	99	1.9	27.2***	2	.98	.06	.05	.15

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

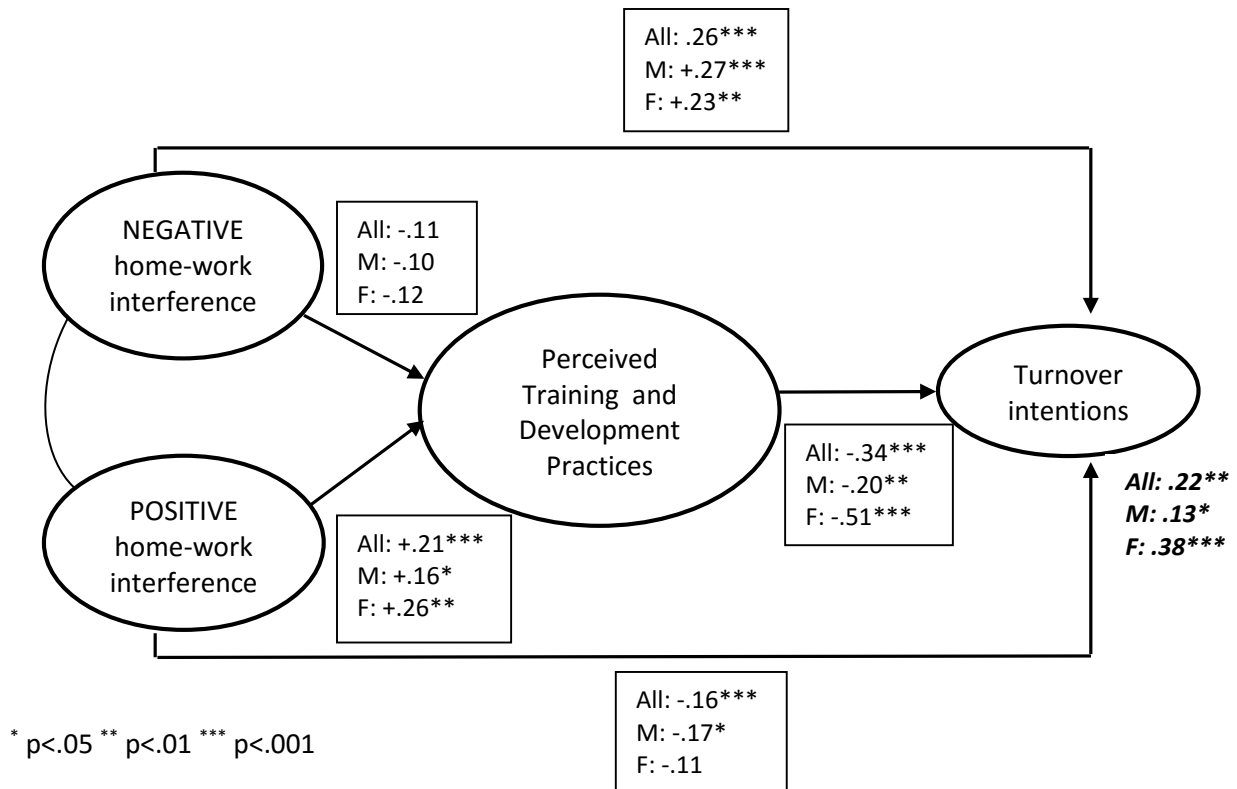
The second step involved testing the model expressed in our hypotheses (Figure 3.1). Following the rules for mediation, as proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986), we tested three models: a non-mediated model, a fully mediated model and a partially mediated model.

We also performed multi-group analyses to test differences between women and men. Overall, the results indicate that the partial mediation model fits the data better than the other two models do: $\Delta\chi^2 = 57.8$, $p < .001$; $\chi^2 = 157.0$; $df = 97$; $\chi^2/df = 164$; CFI = .98; SRMR = .04; RMSEA = .04 (see Table 3.3).

For both genders, the Squared Multiple Correlations were highest in the partial mediation model (Male: $\beta = .13$, $p < .05$; Female: $\beta = .38$, $p < .001$). The only standardized indirect effect that could be measured (positive HWI \rightarrow perceptions of training and development practices \rightarrow turnover intentions) concerned the group of male respondents ($\beta = -.08$, $p < .05$).

In general, the partial mediation model was able to explain 22% of the variance in turnover intentions.

Figure 3.1 Structural model results



Notes: Only direct (standardized) path estimates (β s) are displayed. Perceived Training and Development Practices is a full mediator in the relationship POSITIVE HWI \rightarrow Turnover intention for women and a partial mediator for men. The Squared Multiple Correlations are displayed in italics.

3.3 Results

The final SEM model is presented in Figure 3.1. Hypothesis 1a was supported. Negative HWI was positively related to turnover intentions ($\beta = .26, p < .001$). Hypothesis 2a was supported as well. The results revealed no relationship between negative HWI and perceptions of training and development practices ($\beta = -.11, p > .05$); no mediating effect could be established. The results nevertheless revealed that perceptions of training and development practices had a direct negative effect on turnover intentions ($\beta = -.34, p < .001$). Hypothesis 1b was supported. Overall, positive HWI was negatively related to turnover intentions ($\beta = -.16, p < .01$), although for women, the relationship was fully mediated by perceptions of training

and development practices. Hypothesis 2b was also supported. Perceptions of training and development practices were shown to mediate the relationship between positive HWI and turnover intentions, with positive HWI leading to more positive perceptions of training and development practices, which subsequently led to lower turnover intentions. Results from the multi-group analyses revealed a partial mediation effect for men and a full-mediation effect for women. Hypothesis 3 was therefore supported. Gender is a moderator for the relationship between home-to-work spillover and turnover intentions, with perceptions of training and development practices being stronger predictors of turnover intentions for women than they are for men.

3.4 Discussion

This paper examines relationships between positive and negative HWI and turnover intentions, in addition to investigating the mediating role that perceptions of training and development practices might play in these relationships. The results demonstrated that, for both genders: (1) negative HWI has a significant positive effect on turnover intentions, and positive HWI has a significant negative effect on turnover intentions; (2) negative HWI is not significantly related to perceptions of training and development practices, but positive HWI is positively related to such perceptions; and (3) perceptions of training and development practices have a significant negative influence on turnover intentions. Finally, (4) the introduction of the mediator into the model revealed that perceptions of training and development practices partially mediate the relationship between positive HWI and turnover intentions for men, although positive HWI continues to have a direct significant impact on turnover intentions, even when controlling for perceptions of training and development practices. For women, no direct significant path remained after introducing perceptions of training and development practices into the model. Our study thus indicates that negative spillover from home to work can reinforce employees' intentions to leave the organization and that positive home-work effects can diminish such intentions.

Our study responds to the call for research on the mechanisms underlying the relationship between HWI and turnover (cf. Hom & Kinicki, 2001; Brough & Kalliath, 2009). According to

our results, perceptions of training and development practices are an important mediator in the relationship between positive HWI and turnover intention. As we found that perceptions of training and development practices have a direct relationship with turnover intentions which is line with several studies (Gustafson, 2002; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010; Kuvaas, 2008; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010) which claim that a lack of training and development opportunities and a perceived lack of advancement (including achieving mastery goals) can cause employees to leave their organizations. Perceptions of training and development practices were more important for women than they were for men, which supports our claim that after having taken a leave of absence, the supply of and demand for professional development opportunities are likely to be of particular importance to women. However, perceptions of training and development practices are not a mediator which supports our arguments that such perceptions are not remarked by people who suffer from negative HWI. Employees with negative HWI tend to be less interested in development opportunities, as they are more concerned with putting their resources in the home domain and re-adjusting their work-home balance.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

It is important to note several limitations to the present study. First, because it was based on a cross-sectional design, the results do not allow any conclusions regarding causality. Longitudinal data would be preferable, especially with regard to spillover effects (Kinnunen, Geurts & Mauno, 2004). Nevertheless, our analyses represent an initial step in the investigation of relationships between home-to-work spillover and turnover intentions, as well as of the mechanisms underlying these relationships. A second limitation could involve the fact that the study was based on self-reported data. Nevertheless, spillover effects can be assessed only according to this type of data, as these effects reflect the experiences of individuals. Moreover, we attempted to avoid common-method variance by embedding the measures within a broad array of unrelated topics included in the questionnaire. A single-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) indicated that common-method variance was not a problem. Finally, our study was based on information obtained from a sample of 418 graduates of two Dutch international business schools. Alumni from both schools had international backgrounds, and most were employed in international contexts, possibly suggesting that our findings are stable across industries and cultures. In strictest terms,

however, we cannot determine the extent to which our results are truly generalizable to other populations.

In this study, we only investigated the mediating role of perceived training and development practices. Future studies could address other HR practices, including those related to work-home balance (e.g. Valcour et al., 2011). It would also be interesting to consider the *actual* training and development practices of the employer, rather than focusing solely on the *perceptions* that employees have of these practices. In a similar vein, future studies could include a measure for the actual turnover of employees. Other interesting questions concern the role of family members and the moments at which turnover decisions are to be made. In some cases, employees might be encouraged to quit by other family members, as a means of resolving work-home conflict (Lee & Maurer, 1999). Moreover, the inclusion of other work-related attitudes and behaviors could both extend our research and respond to the call for additional scholarly attention to the relationship between negative non-work factors and workplace attitudes and behaviors (Laschober et al., 2012).

Management implications

Scholars suggest have suggested that the world of work is becoming increasingly demanding (cf. Guest, 2002), and that many people feel forced to develop their employability at all times (Rothwell, Jewell & Hardie, 2009). At the same time, contemporary home life appears to be placing increasing demands on people as well. As argued by McNall and colleagues (2010), employees who perceive that their organizations are helping them integrate their work and family roles also tend to perceive their organizations as more supportive. In other words, the creation of a sustainable workforce is likely to depend upon the willingness and ability of organizations to focus on needs relating to work-home balance, as well as on the development needs of individual employees. Another reason for organizations to invest effort in helping employees to maintain an effective work-home balance has to do with the finding that employees who experience less negative interference and more positive interference are objectively healthier, in addition to performing better and being absent from work less frequently (Van Steenbergen & Ellemers, cited in Brough & Kalliath, 2009). Finally, some studies report that women experience more negative home-to-work spillovers than men do (cf. Carlson, Kacmar & Williams, 2000) *in addition to* receiving fewer opportunities for

development (Tharenou, 1999; ILO, 2010). Our outcomes seem to contradict these findings (cf. Table 3.2). Considering the mediating role of perceived training and development practices for women in our research model, however, and in light of the high degree of variance that the model explains for women (cf. Figure 1), we suggest that organizations should investigate the possibility that their female employees need additional attention with regard to work-home balance and development opportunities.

3.5 Conclusion

In order to prevent turnover and to retain valuable employees, the outcomes of our study challenge organizations to provide support to employees in balancing their work and home life. Our results also encourage organizations to pay attention to the needs that their employees have for development and growth, not only in terms of maintaining their employability, but also with regard to retaining them within the organization.

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CHAPTER 4: Positive and negative spillover from work to home: the role of organizational culture and supportive arrangements⁵

Abstract

For today's managers, striking a work-home balance is an important factor. In this paper we investigate the relationship between organizational culture and work-to-home spillover. Two types of organizational culture, supportive and innovative, were compared with regard to work-to-home spillover. We measured work-to-home spillover with the help of positive and negative work-home interference measures: negative work-home interference was divided into strain-based negative work-home interference and time-based negative work-home interference. A total of 418 alumni of two Dutch business schools completed a questionnaire. The data were analyzed by means of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM). Findings showed that a supportive culture explains most of the variance in positive work-home interference and strain-based negative work-home interference. The relationships between a supportive culture and positive work-home interference and strain-based interference were fully mediated by flexible work-home arrangements (FWH). FWH explained the variance in time-based negative work-home interference, while no relationship was found between supportive culture and time-based negative work-home interference. Innovative culture was positively related to positive work-home interference and time-based negative work-home interference. The outcomes suggest that a supportive culture, expressed in flexible work-home arrangements, can enhance positive spillover from the work to the home domain and diminish negative spillover. We suggest that improving the work-home interface may attract and retain valued managers.

⁵ This chapter is based on: Sok, J., Blomme, R., & Tromp, D. (2014). Positive and negative spillover from work to home: The role of organizational culture and supportive arrangements. *British Journal of Management*, 25, 456-472.

4.1 Introduction

Work-home balance has become a primary concern to employers and policy makers in western industrial societies (Barnett, 2005; Blomme, van Rheede & Tromp, 2010; Kossek, Baltes & Matthews, 2011), especially with regard too highly educated employees (Guest, 2002). As we define it, the term 'highly educated' applies to employees who have completed a higher education programme at Bachelor's or Master's level (Blomme, 2006; Reijnders, 2003) and who hold a supervisory or management position (Blomme, van Rheede & Tromp, 2010). From an employee perspective, the term 'work-home balance' refers to striking and maintaining a balance between responsibilities in the professional arena and in the home environment (De Cieri, Holmes, Abbott & Pettit, 2005; Guest, 2002). In this respect, it should be born in mind that in the literature the terms work-family, work-home and work-life tend to be used interchangeably. In fact, Kossek, Baltes and Matthews emphasize that the term work-family should be "defined broadly, and not used simply to refer to nuclear families, but to the nonwork and personal roles of all employees" (2011, p. 354). Therefore, in this chapter we use the term 'home' instead of 'family' and 'life', because the definition of home covers a variety of possible home activities, including, family, community and leisure activities (cf. De Cieri et al., 2005; Guest, 2002; Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2013). Because work-family, work-home as well as work-life literature tends to include all activities outside work, we shall use these interchangeable terms to refer to work-home issues (cf. Guest, 2002; Lewis & Cooper, 1995; Poelmans, O'Driscoll & Beham, 2005). Over the past 60 years, both the work and the home domains have undergone profound changes. Balancing work and home life has become increasingly difficult for employees and private individuals (Barnett, 2005; Kossek, Baltes & Matthews, 2011), especially for those holding management positions (Guest, 2002). With regards to the work-home interface, several interconnected developments have taken place. One of the most significant changes is the growing labor force participation since the 1950s and 1960s (Bianchi & Raley, 2005; Kossek, 2005; Kossek, Baltes & Matthews, 2011). The growing number of dual-earner couples, single parents, co-parenting individuals and individuals who care for elderly relatives has brought about a dramatic shift in the allocation of time and energy devoted to the work and the home domains. Furthermore, authors seem to agree that work demands have grown excessively (e.g. Allen, O'Donnell & Peetz, 1999; Guest, 2002). Globalization, in combination with increasing competitive pressures on

businesses, has resulted in increased “work intensity” (Guest, 2002, p. 257), leading to more exhaustion, stress-related problems and work-home conflict (Allen, O’Donnell & Peetz, 1999; Guest, 2002). In addition, the increasing need of earning two incomes, combined with the growing need to remain employable, adds to the difficulty of balancing work and home life (Forrier, Sels & Stynen, 2009; Kossek, 2005; Kossek, Baltes & Matthews, 2011; Musson and Tietze, 2009).

We studied the positive and the negative spillover from work to home: positive and negative work-home interference. Negative work-home interference is experienced when pressures from the work and home domains are mutually incompatible (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). We make a distinction between time-based and strain-based negative work-home interference, which will be further explained below. We follow Hanson, Hammer and Colton (2006), who define positive work-home interference as the transfer of positively valenced affect, skills, behaviors and values from the originating domain to the receiving domain.

However, when looking at the definitions and operationalization of ‘culture’ in these studies, we can argue that the measures used are narrower than what is generally considered to be an ‘organizational culture’. To illustrate the point: Chen, Cheung and Law (2012) indicate that different forms of culture exist, such as ideologies (beliefs, basic assumptions and shared core values) and observable cultural artefacts (norms and practices). Additionally, Pizam’s ‘hierarchy of cultures’ (1993) explains that definitions of culture are used on different levels, ranging from national cultures to organizational cultures and, finally, attitudes and practices. Chen, Cheung and Law (2012) categorize the latter as facets of culture, or ‘subcultures’. We argue that organizational culture refers to a form of culture on an organizational level which includes core values and consensual interpretations about the way things are and that work-home culture or family-friendly culture refers to a facet of culture on the level of attitudes and practices, and thus that these can be modified more easily, based on newly acquired information. To our knowledge, however, the relation between organizational culture and work-home interference has scarcely been examined (cf. Blomme, Sok & Tromp, 2013). This is why, in the present study, we focused on ‘organizational culture’ comprising a broader range of conscious and visible, unconscious and invisible, cognitive, behavioural and emotional aspects (cf. Ashkanasy, Wilderom & Peterson, 2000). We suggest that a work-home or work-

family friendly work environment is a manifestation of a supportive organizational culture, which might have an impact on work-home interference (Guest, 2002; Kossek, Noe & DeMarr; Lewis and Cooper, 1995).

4.1.1 The present study

The purpose of the present chapter is twofold. First, our research seeks to fill a gap by providing insight into the relationships between the broader meaning of organizational culture, as perceived by the employee, and positive and negative work-home interference. As such, we aim to contribute to the development of work-home balance strategies, which are considered to be very important in attracting and retaining valued managers (Cooper, 2011; Kossek, Baltes & Matthews, 2011; Guest, 2002). We chose to focus on two different types of organizational culture: an innovative and a supportive culture (Cameron & Ettington, 1988). We wanted to compare the two because both types of culture are considered to have an impact on the enhancement or impediment of employee flexibility, which might affect the work-home interface and subsequently create negative and positive spill-over effects. Flexibility refers to the “discretion to determine the timing, pace, and location at which role requirements are met” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80). A supportive culture is more flexible toward the needs of the employees, which in turn might lead to enhanced flexibility. An innovative culture, however, is more flexible toward the needs of the outside world. This type of flexibility in an innovative culture, in turn, calls for a considerable degree of flexibility on the part of the employees - on the one hand with regard to time demands, and on the other hand with regard to learning ability and learning behavior. The difference between the two types of culture is that a supportive culture is more internally oriented whereas an innovative culture is more externally focused, which is an interesting distinction not only with regard to the way in which people can be employed but also with regard to positive and negative work-home interference.

A second object of focus is the mediating role of flexibility. We argue that flexibility can be seen as an expression of the ‘observable cultural artefacts (norms and practices)’ of a supportive culture (Chen, Cheung & Law, 2012). As such, flexibility expressed as flexible work-home arrangements, as a manifestation of the work-home friendliness of organizational

culture, is *instrumental* in enabling individuals to devote more time to responsibilities at home (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Flexibility and flexible arrangements can also be expected to enhance relations between organizational culture and work-home interference via positive *affect* (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). This specific mediating role seems interesting since flexible work-home arrangements have been found to negatively associate with time-based and strain-based interference (cf. Dikkers et al., 2007). If we can explain *how* the culture of an entire organization relates to the emotions and behaviors displayed by employees, ultimately leading to outcomes such as work-home interference, we feel that human resource (HR) practitioners can respond more adequately and more effectively to work-home balance issues. In other words, establishing a mediating effect of flexibility would offer us a chance to develop promising tools on a more practical level, either to diminish negative work-home interference or to strengthen positive work-home interference.

This paper is organized as follows. The next section presents the theoretical background and the development of the hypotheses. The method section discusses sampling, measures and analyses. Next, we present the results of our study, and we discuss the outcomes of the analyses concerning the measurement model and the structural model. We conclude our chapter with a discussion, followed by a description of management implications, study limitations and suggestions for further research.

4.1.2 Theoretical background and development of hypotheses

The work-home interface has been studied from different perspectives (for an overview see Guest, 2002). Staines (1980) was among the first to recognize that emotions and behaviors experienced and developed in work activities can spill over to the home environment, therewith transcending the physical and temporal boundaries of the workplace and the home domain. Consequently, what is gained in the work domain might become a positive spillover to the home domain. For example, work opportunities and resources can be used to promote growth and better functioning in the home domain (Barnett, 2005). This *spillover theory* has been proven useful in explaining how positive or negative experiences can be transferred from one life role to the other (cf. Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2013), and

this is why, in this study, we use it as our overarching theory. We argue that (positive or negative) behavior and emotions built up in the work domain and transferred to the home domain determine how the home and work domains are balanced.

4.1.3 Negative work-home interference

Negative work-home interference is experienced when pressures from the work and home domains are mutually incompatible (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). This research study distinguishes between *time*-based negative work-home interference and *strain*-based negative work-home interference (Dikkers et al., 2007; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Time-based conflict occurs when time devoted to one domain makes it difficult to fulfill the expectations of the other domain. Strain-based interference is experienced when fatigue or strain produced in one domain affects a person's performance in the other domain.

Negative spillover from work to home has been addressed in many areas as an important precursor for lower job satisfaction and reduced physical and psychological well-being (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Peeters et al., 2005), turnover intentions (Allen et al., 2000; Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Collins, 2001), turnover behavior, absenteeism, lower organizational commitment, lower job satisfaction and lower performance (Harris et al., 2007; Anderson, Coffey & Byerly, 2002). Time-based conflict has been known to result in many negative job-related outcomes such as lateness and absenteeism (Hammer, Bauer & Grandey, 2003), and an overall decrease in work productivity (Netemeyer, Maxham & Pullig, 2005). Strain-based conflict has been found to result in the build-up of several health complaints (Van Hooff et al., 2006).

Although many studies have focused on the consequences of negative work-home interference, less is known about its antecedents. Nevertheless, some relevant information is available. One example is the study conducted by Geurts et al. (2005), who found significant relations with job characteristics (high job pressure, high job control, low job support). In other studies, positive relations were found with workload (Dikkers et al., 2007) and work control (Lapierre & Allen, 2012). Some research has been conducted on the relationship between work-home culture or work-home policies and negative work-home interference. With regard

to a work-home friendly culture, a recent example is the work reported by Beauregard (2011), who found reduced levels of negative work-home interference for women in organizations with supportive work-home policies. In their meta-analysis, Allen et al. (2013) also found relations between flexible work arrangements and work-family conflict. However, to our knowledge, organizational culture and its relations with work-home interference has scarcely been examined (cf. Blomme, Sok & Tromp, 2013).

4.1.4 Positive work-home interference

In the past decade, also the benefits of multiple role memberships have been researched, albeit sparsely (Frone, 2003; Barnett, 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). We define positive work-home interference as the transfer of positively valenced affect, skills, behaviors and values from the originating domain to the receiving domain (Hanson, Hammer & Colton, 2006). Hence, positive work-home interference refers to the extent to which experiences in one domain improve the quality of life in the other (Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Therefore, positive spillover from the workplace to home has the potential to influence employee values and attitudes in the other domain: via an instrumental path, in which skills, abilities and values are applied effectively in another role, and via an affective path, in which affect or emotion is carried over from one role to another (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Little is known about the consequences of positive work-home interference (cf. Warner & Hausdorf, 2009; Kinnunen et al., 2006). In their meta-analysis, McNall, Nicklin and Masuda (2010) report on positive relationships with job satisfaction and affective commitment, family and life satisfaction, and finally physical and mental health. Even less research can be found about the antecedents of positive work-home interference. McNall, Nicklin & Masuda (2010) report that perceived support for non-work domains, from supervisors as well as stemming from a positive work-home culture, is related to positive work-home interference (for a review see Kelly et al., 2008). Moreover, certain aspects related to job design, such as autonomy and variety, have been found to relate to higher levels of positive work-home interference (Grzywacz & Butler, 2005). Similarly, enabling resources such as learning opportunities and psychological rewards (respect, meaningful work) have been found to show associations with positive work-home interference (Voydanoff, 2004). All the studies mentioned show that

supportive elements in a working environment can enhance positive work-home interference. However, not much is known about organizational culture as described above as an antecedent for positive work-home interference (Xiao & O'Neill, 2010).

4.1.5 Linking organizational culture to work-home interference

Organizational culture can be seen as a holistic construct which describes general social behavior as well as the complex set of knowledge structures that organization members use to perform tasks (Hofstede et al., 1990). In the literature, many differences can be found in the definitions regarding culture. Still, most scholars agree that an organizational culture is a socially learned and transferred group-level phenomenon (e.g. Ashkanasy, Wilderom & Peterson, 2000; Martin, 2002), comprising conscious and visible, cognitive, behavioral and emotional aspects (Ashkanasy, Wilderom & Peterson, 2000). It is generally believed to refer to the taken-for-granted values, underlying assumptions, expectations and definitions present which characterize organizations and their members (Cameron & Ettington, 1988; Schein, 1996). This is in line with the ideologies to which Chen Cheung and Law (2012) refer. According to Cameron (2008), organizational culture is usually approached from a semiotic perspective (e.g. culture resides in individual interpretations and cognitions) or from a functional perspective (e.g. culture emerges from collective behavior). In the latter perspective, it is assumed that differences among organizational cultures can be identified, that cultures can be changed and empirically measured, and that culture is a potential predictor of other organizational outcomes. In this chapter we use the functional perspective, since we seek to examine the functionality of organizational culture as a precursor for work-family interference. As such, an organizational culture determines whether employees are supported in maintaining a sound work-home balance (Clark, 2001; Guest, 2002; Lewis, 1997).

As mentioned above, we chose to compare two flexible culture types: the supportive (internally oriented) and the innovative (externally oriented) culture (Cameron & Ettington, 1988). A supportive culture, in general, represents and protects its core values by trying to use the flexibility of operational procedures to meet the employees' needs, maintaining human relations and showing concern for people. This means that an organization can be characterized as having a supportive organizational culture when it represents values which

can bring about peer and supervisor support, when it creates possibilities to make a career without constantly being visible and working long hours, when it demonstrates work-home friendly attitudes and when it presents possibilities to make effective use of work-home arrangements (Frone, 2003; Linehan & Walsh, 2000; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2006).

Following the *spillover theory* (Staines, 1980), we argue that a supportive organizational culture can generate and reinforce a positive spillover effect in employees. Hence, we argue that behaviours associated with the core values in a supportive culture, such as teamwork, participation, employee involvement and open communication (Cameron & Ettington, 1988), can spill over to the home domain via the *instrumental path*, as mentioned by Greenhaus and Powell (2006). Second, one of the assumptions underlying supportive cultures is the notion that human affiliation also produces *positive affect* in employees (Cameron & Ettington, 1988). This can be expected to result in positive spillover to the home domain via the affective path (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). In addition, the *role accumulation theory* (Sieber, 1974; Marks, 1977) explains that benefits including privileges, status security, psychological energy and personal growth gained in one role will result in the expansion of individual resources and the facilitation of role performance in another role (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). We therefore hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1a: Supportive organizational culture is positively related to positive work-home interference.

In line with the *spillover theory* (Staines, 1980), we argue that (positive or negative) behaviors and emotions, built up in the work domain and transferred to the home domain (i.e. positive and negative spillover), determine how the home and work domains are balanced. The positive outcomes of a supportive organizational culture, which is more internally oriented and is more focused on flexibility toward the needs of the employees, will help reduce time-based as well as strain-based interference.

In addition, Hobfoll and Shirom's (2001) *Conservation of Resources theory* (COR) explains how stress can occur when individuals experience a loss of resources (self-esteem, energy) in the work domain, a process which might result in a spillover of negative emotions and stress into the home domain. In a supportive culture direct attention is provided to prevent resource

depletion, including the depletion of time, psychological energy and self-esteem. This process can also be understood from the perspective of *role scarcity*, in which time and energy needed to fulfill multiple roles in the work domain and in the private domain are finite and scarce and might be conflicting (Goode, 1960; Geurts et al., 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Furthermore, direct work-to-home support, work-home-supportive cultures and supportive supervision have been found to relate negatively to negative work-home interference (Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Beauregard, 2011). Consequently, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1b: Supportive organizational culture is negatively related to time-based negative work-home interference.

Hypothesis 1c: Supportive organizational culture is negatively related to strain-based negative work-home interference.

Several authors (e.g. Guest, 2002; Lewis, 1997) emphasize the role that an organizational culture in general can play to support work-home balance. In relation to work-home interference, Lewis (1997) defined an important functionality of organizational culture as the provision of work-home policies by an organization that supports or impedes balance. For example, through its values, an organizational culture determines whether work obligations are prioritized over home obligations (Lewis, 1997). Consequently, how an organizational culture presents its perspective on work-home-friendliness (Lewis, 1995) is indicated by the provision of flexible work-home arrangements. Such arrangements are defined as arrangements that enhance the autonomy of workers in the process of coordinating and integrating the work and non-work aspects of their lives (De Cieri et al., 2005).

A review of the relevant literature reveals that limited empirical evidence exists regarding the mechanisms or processes mediating the relationship between organizational culture and positive work-home interference. Supported by the *spillover theory* (Staines, 1980) accompanied by the *role accumulation theory* (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974), however, we argue that flexible work-home arrangements can be instrumental (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) in the spillover process from a supportive culture to the home domain. Perry-Smith and Blum (2000), for example, state that flexible arrangements are, at best, not just isolated practices but

embedded in the supportive organizational culture. This is in line with the ‘observable cultural artifacts (norms and practices)’ to which Chen, Cheung and Law (2012) refer. The flexible arrangements will, for instance, increase the autonomy of workers (De Cieri et al., 2005), which in turn will help them to coordinate work and home life better. This process can be expected to be *instrumental* in the positive spillover to the home environment. Second, as stated above, the assumption underlying supportive cultures in general is that human affiliation produces positive affect in employees (Cameron & Ettington, 1988). We expect, therefore, that the positive psychological energy (Sieber, 1974; Marks, 1977) following from the support and family-friendliness of the organizational culture and expressed in flexible arrangements will enhance positive spillover via the *affective* path (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Hence, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2a: Flexible work-home arrangements mediate the relationship between a supportive organizational culture and positive work-home interference.

Flexible work-home arrangements include flexible schedules (e.g. compressed working weeks, part-time work, telecommuting) and leave programmes (e.g. parental leave, care leave), all of which help employees manage time pressures (cf. Lee et al., 2002; Kossek, 2005). According to Stavrou and Ierodiakonou (2011, p. 164), “seeking a more balanced lifestyle is a main driver of flexibility.” In line with the perspective of role scarcity, flexible work-home arrangements help workers to balance their work and home roles. Depletion of resources, including time and psychological energy, will be reduced by flexible work-home arrangements, leading to less strain-based and time-based stress spilled over from the work domain into the home domain. Byron (2005), in a meta-analytic review, reported significant negative relations between flexibility and negative work-home interference. Earlier research showed that when companies promoted family-friendly practices, employee satisfaction increased, turnover dropped and productivity increased (Enz & Siguaw, 2000; Stavrou & Kilaniotis, 2010). An organizational perspective on the provision of flexible work-home arrangements, thus promoting work-home friendliness, seems to be in line with the values and intention of a supportive organizational culture, including the flexibility to meet the employees’ needs, maintaining human relations and showing concern for people (cf. Kinnunen et al., 2005). Accordingly, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2b: Flexible work-home arrangements mediate the relationship between a supportive organizational culture and time-based negative work-home interference.

Hypothesis 2c: Flexible work-home arrangements mediate the relationship between a supportive organizational culture and strain-based negative work-home interference.

With regard to an innovative organizational culture, positive as well as negative spillover effects can be expected. On the one hand, constant changes and growth as experienced by employees may spill over to their home environments in a positive way while, on the other hand, the high demands that are put on employees may cause time-based and strain-based stress that subsequently spills over to the home environment.

Gaining benefits such as privileges, status security, psychological energy and personal growth in the work domain and ensuring positive spillover is possible in a culture in which learning and innovation are important values. These values can be found in an innovative work environment that is externally oriented and is supported by a flexible organizational structure. A fundamental assumption in an innovation culture is that change fosters the creation or garnering of new resources (Hartnell, Yi Ou & Kinicki, 2011). The belief here is that an idealistic and novel vision induces members to be creative and take risks. Hence, innovative organizations value growth, stimulation, variety, autonomy and attention to detail (Quinn & Kimberly, 1984). Behaviors that follow from these values include risk taking, creativity, and adaptability. Consequently, these behavioral outcomes are predicted to cultivate innovation and cutting-edge output (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991). In line with the spillover theory and the role accumulation theory, workers will be challenged to learn and organize, thus developing new skills which lead to higher levels of self-esteem and self-efficacy. These psychological benefits, when being spilled over, will result in the expansion of individual resources and the facilitation of role performance in the home domain (Sieber, 1974; Marks, 1977). Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3a: Innovative organizational culture is positively related to positive work-home interference.

However, since an innovative organizational culture is focused on the external world and requires a large degree of flexibility on the part of employees, we argue that in this type of

culture there will be little room for a strong emphasis on the employees' work-home balance. For example, Dobni (2008) claims that an innovative culture supports behaviors valuing teamwork which is solution-oriented, communicative, and quick in terms of decision making. As a result, and in contrast to a supportive culture, an innovative culture will not pay much attention to the work-home needs of the employees. This lack of attention to work-home balance can be expected to cause time-based stress. Moreover, in line with the *spillover theory* and, in addition, the role scarcity and *conservation of resources* theories, the flexibility in working hours and employability required by an innovative culture will not only cause problems for workers in terms of combining work and home demands but will also lead to a depletion of resources, including psychological and physical energy, in turn resulting in strain-based work-home interference. We therefore hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 3b: Innovative organizational culture is positively related to time-based negative work-home interference.

Hypothesis 3c: Innovative organizational culture is positively related to strain-based negative work-home interference.

4.2 Method

Sample

Our data were collected among alumni of two Dutch business schools. A total of 1806 registered alumni were invited by email to complete an online questionnaire. A total of 418 respondents filled out the questionnaire (23%). The respondents operated in a variety of industries, ranging from the hospitality sector to banking. Since both schools are internationally oriented, the alumni are employed in all parts of the world. In our sample, 54% were male ($n = 226$) and 46% were female ($n = 190$). Most of the respondents had a Bachelor's degree in higher professional education ($n=324$) and 22% held a Master's degree (mostly MBA). Table 4.1 presents an overview of all background characteristics.

Table 4.1 Background characteristics of the sample (N=418)

Scales	Nr. (%)
Gender	
Male	226 (54%)
Female	190 (46%)
<i>Missing</i>	2 (0.5%)
Marital status	
Single	78 (19%)
Living apart together	39 (9%)
Living together	137 (33%)
Married	162 (39%)
<i>Missing</i>	2 (0.5%)
Children living in the home	
No	263 (63%)
Yes	155 (37%)
<i>Missing</i>	
Age (years)	
22-32	198 (49%)
33-43	158 (32%)
44-54	46 (12%)
>55	16 (7%)
Education	
BA	324 (78%)
MA(MBA)	92 (22%)
<i>missing</i>	2 (0.5%)
Contract (hours/week)	
0-12	11 (3%)
13-24	10 (2%)
25-36	70 (17%)
≥37	321 (77%)
<i>Missing</i>	6 (1%)

Measures

We based our supportive culture measure as well as our innovative culture measure on Cameron and Quinn's (1999) competing values framework (CVF). A supportive culture, in Cameron and Quinn's operationalization, is internally oriented and reinforced by a flexible organizational structure (Hartnell, Yi Ou & Kinicki, 2011). A core belief in supportive cultures is that the organization expresses trust in and commitment to its employees. An example item assessing a supportive organizational culture is 'I perceive management to be supportive'. Cameron and Quinn's (1999) operationalization of an innovative organizational culture expresses the external orientation of the culture. Another focus lies on the development of the employees to meet the ever-changing demands of the external world. An example item assessing an innovative culture is 'My organization is always looking for new markets'. The CVF measuring instrument was used and validated in several earlier research studies (e.g. Kalliath, Bluedorn & Gillespie, 1999; Ostroff, Kinicki & Tamkins, 2003; Hartnell, Yi Ou & Kinicki, 2011). Cronbach's alpha levels were .83 for supportive culture and .82 for innovative culture.

Positive and negative work-home interference (WHI) was measured with the Survey Work-Home Interaction Nijmegen (SWING) developed by Geurts et al. (2005). This measuring instrument was validated in several earlier studies (e.g. Marais, Mostert, Geurts & Taris, 2009; Moreno-Jiménez, Sanz Vergel, Rodriguez Muñoz & Geurts, 2009). The questionnaire distinguishes two types of negative WHI: time-based and strain-based interference. An example item assessing positive WHI is 'I am able to organize things better at home because this is what I do at work'. Example items concerning time-based and strain-based WHI are, respectively: 'My work schedule makes it hard to fulfill home obligations' and 'It is hard to fulfill home obligations because my mind is occupied with things from work'. Cronbach's alpha levels were .78 for positive WHI, .83 for time-based negative WHI and .87 for strain-based negative WHI.

For flexible work-home arrangements (FWH) we used a questionnaire compiled by Ten Brink (2004). This measuring instrument was validated in Ten Brink's study and has been used in several others (e.g. Lub et al., 2012; Blomme, van Rheede & Tromp, 2010). The scale consists of three items, one example being whether the organization offered the possibility for flexible working hours. Cronbach's alpha was .78.

All study variables were measured on a five-point Likert scale, with answer alternatives ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). We included gender (0 = male, 1 = female) and 'having children living in the home' or not (0 = no children in the home, 1 = children in the home) as control variables to avoid statistical confounds, since both variables show connections with the outcome variables (e.g. Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999).

Analyses

Mean scores, standard deviations, scale reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) and Pearson correlations were computed for all variables.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was executed for assessing the measurement model. This was done through AMOS 19 (Arbuckle, 2010).

First, we performed CFA on all study variables together, in order to establish whether independent and dependent variables were indeed separate constructs. We used Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) criteria for convergent validity (t -values > 2.00).

Common method bias was evaluated using CFA, because it is considered to be a serious problem if one factor accounts for the majority of the variance among the measures (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003).

Discriminant validity was further evaluated through a series of χ^2 difference tests between each pair of constructs in the measurement model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

The fit measures we considered were χ^2 and χ^2 / df , which should be 4 or lower. The comparative fit index (CFI) should be > 0.90, although a cut-off value of 0.95 seems to be more advisable. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) should be < 0.06 and the standardized root mean square (SRMR) should be < 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM; Amos 19) was used to test our hypotheses. 'Gender' and 'having children living in the home' were used as control variables. The control variables were entered in the last step of the analysis (cf. Kinnunen et al., 2006). With regard to the mediating role of FWH, Baron and Kenny's (1986) rules for mediation were applied. To evaluate the goodness of fit of the different models, CFI and RMSEA were calculated. In the analysis, the

different models were also compared by evaluating the change in χ^2 ($\Delta\chi^2$) relative to the change in degrees of freedom (Δdf).

4.3 Results

The measurement model

Table 4.2 gives an overview of the study variables, including mean scores, standard deviations, scale reliabilities and correlations between the study variables. The Cronbach alpha levels for the separate scales ranged between .78 and .87, suggesting satisfactory internal consistency.

Table 4.2 Mean values, standard deviations, Cronbach's alphas (α) and bivariate correlations between study variables

	<i>Means</i>	<i>Sd</i>	<i>α</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>
1. Gender	0.54	.50								
2. Children	0.37	.48								
3. FWH	3.45	1.02	.78	.03	.11*					
4. Sup.cult.	3.73	.67	.83	.02	.04	.29***				
5. Inn. cult.	3.71	.73	.82	.03	.10*	.10*	.61***			
6. Pos WHI	3.15	.70	.78	-.05	-.02	.17**	.29***	.27***		
7. TIME	2.46	.87	.83	.01	.04	-.28***	-.03	.11*	-.01	
8. STRAIN	2.23	.82	.87	-.02	.03	-.20***	-.14**	-.02	.01	.67***

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

Notes: Gender is coded 0 = male, 1 = female. Children is coded 0 = no children living in the home, 1 = children living in the home. FWH = flexible work-home arrangements. Sup.cult. = supportive culture. Inn.cult. = innovative culture. Pos WHI = positive work-home interference. TIME = time-based negative work-home interference. STRAIN = strain-based negative work-home interference.

In the CFA model, the negative work-home interference components (time and strain) were assumed to be related, and two error terms were allowed to correlate. None of the correlations exceeded the criterion of .70 (Stevens, 2009). Moderate to strong inter-

correlations were found between the two culture types and between time-based and strain-based interference. The correlation between supportive culture and innovative culture was .61 and significant, and the variation inflation factor (VIF) as well as tolerance were 1, suggesting that multicollinearity was not a problem.

We conducted CFA on the 31 variables. We removed five items because the second highest loading was 4/5 of the loading on the first scale (Stevens, 2009). The remaining measuring instrument contained 26 items. The six scales were FWH (three items), supportive culture (five items), innovative culture (five items), positive WHI (five items), time-based WHI (four items) and strain-based WHI (four items). Normality was confirmed by checking the skewness and kurtosis of the variables. Convergent validity was evaluated by inspecting the standardized factor loadings, which were all > 0.50 and statistically significant.

The overall measuring instrument showed a good fit to the data: $\chi^2 = 572.0$; $df = 283$; $\chi^2/df = 2.0$; CFI = .94; SRMR = .05; RMSEA = .05.

The single factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) showed that this six-factor model was superior to the single-factor ($\chi^2 = 3307.0$; $df = 298$; $\chi^2/df = 11.1$; CFI = .36; SRMR = .18; RMSEA = .16), indicating that common method variance was not a problem.

Discriminant validity was further confirmed by performing a series of χ^2 difference tests for each pair of constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Every time, a two-dimensional model was developed, after which we forced the items of both constructs into a single-factor solution. The χ^2 difference tests produced significant results for the one-to-one comparisons of each pair of measures, which showed that the two-factor solutions performed better in every analysis. This was also the case regarding time-based and strain-based WHI, confirming that negative WHI was better presented by two separate constructs instead of by one ($\Delta\chi^2 = 148.9$; $\Delta df = 1$; $p = .000$).

The structural model

The second step in our analyses was to test the structural theory expressed in our hypotheses. The application of Baron and Kenny's (1986) rules for mediation showed that: (1) supportive culture significantly affected two of the dependent variables, positive WHI and strain-based

negative WHI; the expected relationship with time-based work-home interference was not found; (2) supportive culture significantly influenced FWH and (3) FWH significantly influenced all three dependent variables. Finally, (4) introducing the mediator in the model showed that FWH fully mediated the relation between supportive culture and positive WHI and strain-based WHI, since supportive culture no longer showed significant impact after FWH had been introduced in the model. None of the control variables showed relations with the dependent variables.

Table 4.3 Comparison of structural models

	χ^2	Df	χ^2/df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA
Full-mediation model	630.9	291	2.2			.93	.06	.05
Non-mediation model	435.2	222	2.0	195.7***	69	.95	.06	.05

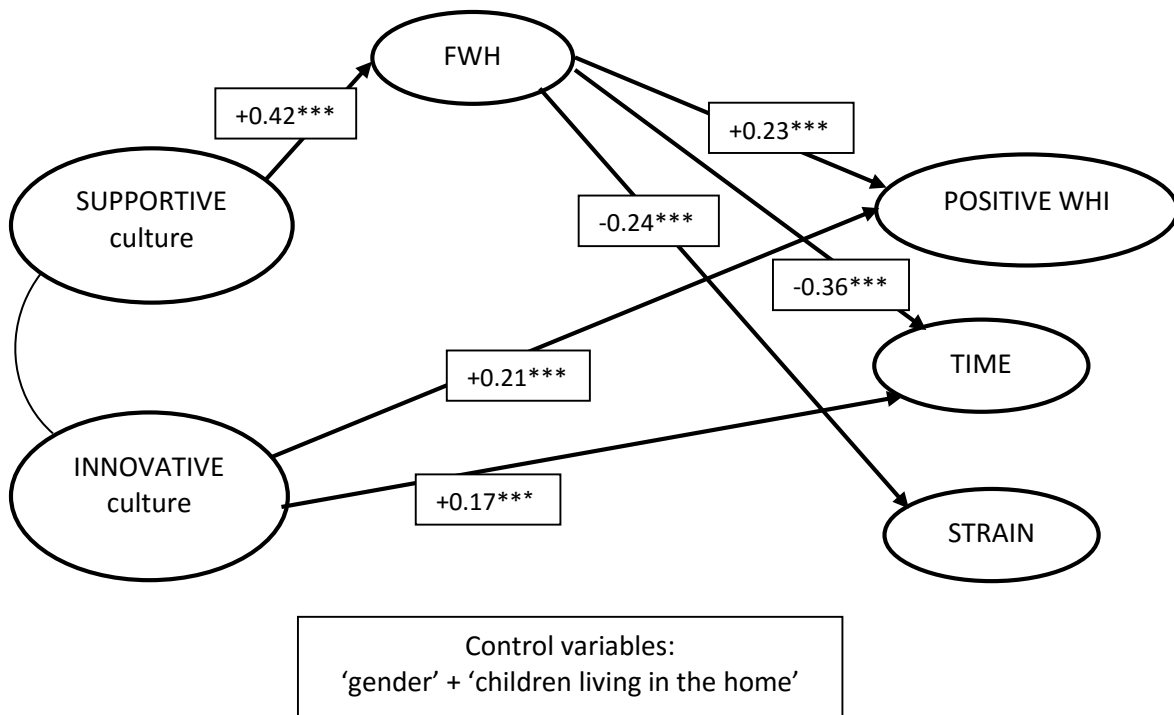
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 4.3 shows that, strictly considered, the model without FWH is to be preferred, because the χ^2 difference test suggests a significant difference between the non-mediation model and the full-mediation model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 195.7$; $\Delta df = 69$; $p = .000$).

However, since the model with FWH performs well too (CFI is slightly higher), and has the advantage of offering an explanation for the *nature* of the relationship between a supportive culture and positive WHI and strain-based WHI, we selected the mediation model as the final model.

Moreover, the small (standardized) indirect effects (supportive culture \rightarrow positive WHI = + 0.07**; supportive culture \rightarrow strain-based interference = - 0.10**) underline the critical role of FWH in the relationship between a supportive culture and WHI.

Figure 4.1 Structural model results



* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.001$

*Standardized indirect effect SUPPORTIVE culture \rightarrow FWH \rightarrow POSITIVE WHI = +0.07**. Standardized indirect effect SUPPORTIVE culture \rightarrow FWH \rightarrow STRAIN = -0.10***

Notes: Only (direct) significant (standardized) path estimates (β s) are displayed. TIME, time-based negative work-home interference. STRAIN, strain-based negative work-home interference. 'Gender' and 'Children living in the home' are not significantly related to the dependent variables. FWH is only a (full) mediator for SUPPORTIVE culture \rightarrow POSITIVE WHI and SUPPORTIVE culture \rightarrow STRAIN; the path FWH \rightarrow TIME represents a direct effect.

Figure 4.1 shows the final model. Hypothesis 1a was accepted: a significant positive relationship was found between a supportive culture and positive WHI ($\beta = + 0.29***$). However, after the introduction of FWH in the model, no direct effect was left. Hypothesis 1b concerning the relationship between a supportive culture and time-based interference was rejected: no significant relationship was found between the two variables ($\beta = - 0.03$). Hypothesis 1c (supportive culture \rightarrow strain-based WHI) was accepted ($\beta = - 0.14**$), with the

annotation that the relationship was fully mediated by FWH. This suggests that a supportive culture in itself does not reduce time-based WHI but does reduce the psychological strain via FWH.

Hypotheses 2a and 2c were accepted, since FWH showed a mediating effect between supportive culture on the one hand and positive WHI and strain-based WHI on the other hand (β positive WHI = + 0.23***; β strain-based negative work-home interference = - 0.24***). Hypothesis 2b was rejected, since FWH did not show a mediation effect but, instead, a direct significant (negative) relationship with time-based WHI (β = - 0.36***).

Hypotheses 3a and 3b were accepted, since innovative culture showed the expected significant (positive) relation with positive WHI (β = + 0.21***) and time-based WHI (β = + 0.17***). Hypothesis 3c, however, was rejected: the expected positive relationship between innovative culture and strain-based WHI was not found (β = - 0.02). Neither 'gender' nor 'children living in the home' showed a relationship with any outcome variables.

4.4 Discussion

This chapter aimed to examine the relations between two different types of organizational culture, supportive and innovative, and work-home interference. The results of the research evidence the existence of most of the proposed relations. The strength of this study, therefore, is the insight that organizational culture can act as a precursor for spillover from work to home.

First, both supportive culture and innovative culture seem to provide stimulants for positive spillover from work to home. Furthermore, flexible work-home arrangements were assessed as a full mediator of the relationship between supportive culture and positive work-home interference. This suggests that it is the practical flexibility arrangements in particular that make creating positive spillover easier for employees in this type of culture. Still, scholars insist that flexible arrangements work best when they are truly embedded in a wider supportive culture (e.g. Guest, 2002; Frone, 2003; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2006).

A more challenging and demanding work environment, as encountered in innovative organizational cultures, is not necessarily a hindrance for positive spillover from work to home life. On the contrary, the variety and complexity of innovative cultures seem to generate resources that can spill over to the home environment in a positive way. This is congruent with the idea that creativity and the creation of new resources (Hartnell, Yi Ou & Kinicki, 2011) stimulate growth and psychological energy that can, in turn, spill over to the home environment (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). The results of our study also seemed to be in line with the notion expressed by Hanson, Colton and Hammer (2003, cited in Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), who make a distinction between spillover via an instrumental path and an affective path. With regard to such spillover effects, future research could focus on disentangling instrumental elements such as knowledge and experience and affective elements such as energy and positive affect.

Second, in line with what Greenhaus and Powell (2006) state, our study suggests that a more supportive organizational culture seems to form a buffer for strain-based negative work-home interference. The negative relationship between supportive culture and strain-based interference proved to be (fully) mediated by flexible work-home arrangements when this variable was introduced in the model. Furthermore, flexible work-home arrangements showed a direct negative relationship with time-based interference. This is in line with the notion that mainly the work-home-friendliness of such a supportive culture can help to improve work-home balance by reducing stress and the loss of resources, and therewith the spillover of time-and strain-based interference to the home domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Geurts et al., 2005; Goode, 1960; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001).

Our study did not find the expected relationship between supportive culture and time-based interference. This outcome suggests that, while a supportive culture cannot prevent time-related problems from spilling over to the home environment, the support and work-home-friendliness that are offered can actually help reduce the feelings of stress (strain) that are brought about by work-home imbalances.

Innovative culture, which demands a larger degree of flexibility on the part of employees, did show the expected positive relationship with time-based interference. This is in line with the spillover theory. On the other hand, we did not find the expected relationship between

innovative culture and strain-based work-home interference. So, even though a demanding work environment can make it more difficult to meet the work-home time demands, as we argued earlier, this does not necessarily mean that it causes more work-home strain. An explanation for this could be that the psychological awards (Voydanoff, 2004), the psychological energy and/or the personal growth (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1994) that people gain from working in an innovative organizational culture are spilled over to the home domain in such a way that negative effects are neutralized. This assumption, however, requires further research.

Management implications

Scholars suggest that the world of work has become more and more demanding (e.g. Guest, 2002). The workload of employees is growing continually, and people feel forced to work on their employability all the time (Kossek, 2005; Forrier, Sels & Stynen, 2009). At the same time, contemporary home life seems to put more demands on people, too. Since the 1980s more women have entered the workforce, which has caused an increase in the number of dual-earner couples (Barnett, 2005; Kossek, 2005; Kossek, Baltes & Matthews, 2011). Growing divorce rates are responsible for the increase in the number of single parents and co-parenting individuals, and the aging population has forced more individuals to take care of elderly relatives (Kossek, 2005; Kossek, Baltes & Matthews, 2011).

Our research results suggest that an organizational culture, be it a supportive type of organizational culture or a more demanding type such as an innovative organizational culture, is to some extent capable of generating positive work-home interference. This suggests that creating positive work experiences in general helps employees find a balance between work and home life.

Our results also suggest that flexible work-home arrangements in particular seem to be related to positive as well as negative work-home interference. Other research also indicates that perceived support for non-work domains, offered by supervisors as well as stemming from the larger organizational culture, is related to positive work-home interference (e.g. Kelly et al., 2008). These outcomes are in agreement with those reported by McNall, Nicklin and Masuda (2010), who argue that it is important for organizations not only to consider ways to *reduce* negative interference but also to develop strategies for *increasing* positive work-home interference. They also argue that when employees perceive that their organizations are

helping them integrate work and family roles, they will perceive their organizations as more supportive and consequently feel obligated, in return, to reciprocate with favorable attitudes toward the job and the organization. According to Guest (2002), work-home balance is especially important for employees in management positions. This suggests that attracting and retaining this particular group of workers will become easier when they are supported in maintaining a sound work-home balance.

Still, two important remarks have to be made here.

First, Dikkers et al. (2007) report on several studies that, in view of the problems concerned, have shown remarkably small numbers of workers who actually make use of flexible work-home arrangements. There are, for example, quite strong indications that one reason why employees do not use available arrangements is that they fear that using them will endanger their jobs or career opportunities (e.g. Kinnunen et al., 2005). The missing link here may be the organization's 'work-home culture', which can be defined as "the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and private lives" (Thompson et al., 1999, p. 394). Managers and human resource practitioners need to realize that negative reactions from the work environment can form a hindrance to the actual use of flexible work-home arrangements.

A second interesting point is mentioned by Hammer et al. (2003), who argue that employees' *perceptions* of their schedule flexibility often are a greater determinant of outcome variables than their *actual* work-related time demands. This shows that managers and human resource professionals need to consider employees' personal perceptions and experiences with flexibility arrangements to make these truly effective.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

Some limitations to the present study should be noted. The cross-sectional design of our study does not allow for conclusions regarding causality. Especially with regard to spillover effects (Kinnunen, Geurts & Mauno, 2004), longitudinal data are preferred. Still, we feel that our analyses can serve as a first step in the investigation of the relations between culture and positive and negative spillover from work to home, and that they can be viewed as an indication that relations between the two exist.

Another limitation concerns sample size. Because our sample was small, no moderating effects were taken into account. Future research should address this issue. Moreover, all data were self-reported, which may be considered a limitation. However, spillover effects can only be assessed by self-reports, as they refer to an individual's experience. We tried to avoid common method variance by embedding the measures in a broad array of unrelated topics in the questionnaire. A single factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) indicated that common method variance was not a problem.

Finally, we made use of a sample of graduates of two Dutch international business schools. Alumni from both groups had international backgrounds and now mostly work in several international contexts, something which could lead us to conclude that these phenomena may be stable across industries and cultures. Still, strictly speaking, we cannot tell to what extent our results are truly generalizable to other populations.

In this study, we did not investigate the actual *use* of work-home policies among employees, but rather the influence on positive and negative spillover. We therefore recommend that the actual *use* of policies receive some research attention, as earlier investigations have suggested that certain barriers to such use exist (Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999; Linehan & Walsh, 2000). Interesting topics could include questions asking what the exact barriers would be, how they work, and how organizational cultures can be changed to eliminate those barriers.

We agree with Kelly et al. (2008), who recommended additional research with the aim to better understand spillover processes and ways in which organizations can create more supportive environments. For example, investigating the differences between instrumental and affective elements (cf. Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) may be fruitful. In addition, we recommend that the relations between organizational culture and work-home culture be studied (and disentangled).

4.5 Conclusion

Indicating that organizational culture can be a precursor for positive as well as negative work-home interference, the results of this study are of value. Furthermore, the study shows that flexible work-home arrangements are an important corollary of a supportive organizational culture with regard to work-home balance. Employers can help employees to balance their work and home lives, by working on the supportive and stimulating elements in their organizational culture.

To conclude, we agree with Guest (2002), who recommends using organizational culture as a unit of analysis in understanding work-home balance. We recommend research into those *aspects* of culture types that are important for diminishing negative work-home interference as well as aspects that can enhance positive interference.

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CHAPTER 5: Exploring success factors in top careers in the Netherlands⁶

Abstract

The purpose of this research project was to identify success factors in the careers of top women in the hospitality industry. We started out by interviewing five women who are currently working in a high management position in the hospitality industry, about their experiences on their way to the top. For the purpose of comparison we later on decided to apply theoretical sampling and include women from other industries, and subsequently men from inside and outside the hospitality industry. Grounded Theory analysis revealed six factors that influenced all their rising careers: internal drive, ambition, social skills, competencies, personality, and external factors. Although the factors were of varying importance at different stages of their professional life cycle, 'internal drive' and 'ambition' were found to be most important throughout the progressing careers. Some differences between the groups studied are described and implications for future research and practice are discussed.

⁶ This chapter is based on Sok, J., Blomme, R.J., Tromp, D.M., & Muijen, J.J. van (2011). Exploring success factors in top careers in the Netherlands. *Advances in Hospitality and Leisure*, 7, 3-27. This paper won an Outstanding Author Contribution Award of the Emerald Literati Network Awards for Excellence 2012.

5.1 Introduction

According to a report published by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2008), the number of women participating in the labor force in both developed and European countries increased from 60% in 1997 to 63% in 2007. Women, however, in the same year, still only account for 32% of the chief executives, directors and managers of small businesses in Europe – that is, those considered to be business leaders (European Commission, 2008). Moreover, in 2008 only 15% of the board directors listed in the Fortune 500 companies were women (Catalyst, 2008).

In the past decades, more women are choosing a career in the hospitality field (Brownell & Walsh, 2008; Knutson & Schmidgall, 1999), but, as in other industries, only few have risen to the highest positions (Brownell & Walsh, 2008; Purcell, 1996). This is all the more alarming because the hospitality industry is growing rapidly and is facing a number of problems. First, it is dealing with a shrinking skilled labor force (Knutson & Schmidgall, 1999; Walsh & Taylor, 2007). Second, management-level turnover is growing (Hoque, 1999a, 1999b; Walsh & Taylor, 2007) and today's human resource (HR) managers in the hospitality industry are finding it increasingly difficult to attract and retain highly educated personnel (Reijnders, 2003; Walsh & Taylor, 2007; Blomme, Tromp & van Rheede, 2008; Hoque, 1999a).

Blomme, Tromp and van Rheede (2008) found that, in the age category 32-44 years, significantly more women than men had left the hospitality industry: 61% compared with 47%. Therefore, the hospitality industry in particular faces the challenge to attract and retain highly educated women, as they form a substantial part of the workforce (Hoque, 1999a; Reijnders, 2003; Walsh & Taylor, 2007; Blomme et al., 2008). The advancement of women could solve some of the problems in the industry, aforementioned.

5.1.1 Barriers

There are two main obstacles which impede women's progress toward top executive and managerial positions: the 'glass ceiling' and work-family conflict.

The metaphor of a 'glass ceiling' was introduced by the U.S. Department of Labor in the 1970s to describe the invisible artificial obstacles that prevent qualified individuals from advancing upward in their organization into higher (management) level positions (1991). Our survey of related literature revealed that there are at least 150 barriers for women, ranging from cultural, social and legal factors to practical gender-specific ones (Melamed, 1995; Tharenou, 1999; Davidson & Burke, 2000).

The hospitality industry is often associated with work-family conflict (Cleveland, O'Neill, Himelright, Harrison, Crouter & Drago, 2007; van Rheede, Tromp & Blomme, 2009). In particular, rooms and F&B managers in hotels, who hold positions which traditionally form the 'route to the top', report a considerable number of problems with long, irregular and unpredictable hours. These work characteristics are potential work stressors associated with turnover intentions. Reducing turnover can create a larger, more experienced pool of managers to promote to higher-level leadership positions (Cleveland et al., 2007). Furthermore, as in other industries, old-boy networks, male bias and stereotyping, negative perceptions of females in executive positions and a lack of assertiveness are mentioned as barriers for women trying to reach top positions (Brownell, 1994a; Weber, 1998; Knutson & Schmidgall, 1999; Brownell & Walsh, 2008).

5.1.2 Success factors

Considerably fewer research studies were designed to predict career success, or which have investigated the moderating effect of gender. Factors leading to career advancement into higher (management) levels involve human capital attributes such as educational attainment, work experience and training (Schippmann & Prien, 1989; Cannings & Montmarquette, 1991; Tharenou, Conroy & Latimer, 1994; Melamed, 1996; Metz & Tharenou, 2001). Social capital attributes such as encouragement and having access to networks or mentors also appear to be important to career success (Cannings & Montmarquette, 1991; Metz & Tharenou, 2001). Furthermore, cultural and structural factors such as views on women and possibilities of working part time have an impact on the advancement of women (Nauta & Heesink, 1992; Brownell & Walsh, 2008). A final category of success factors can be characterized as 'individual factors'. First, personality traits such as confidence and independence seem to have impact

on advancing careers (Nicholson & West, 1988; Schippmann & Prien, 1989; Gattiker & Larwood, 1990; Melamed, 1996; Kirchmeyer, 2002). Second, both the effects of career choices and career intentions, such as attitudes toward work and career, interest and commitment, ambition and motivation, have been found to have an impact on career success (Cannings & Montmarquette, 1991; Herriot, Gibson, Pemberton & Pinder, 1993; Kirchmeyer, 2002). Finally, family responsibilities and considerations have been found to influence career advancement (Gattiker & Larwood, 1990; Metz & Tharenou, 2001; Kirchmeyer, 2002). The impact of some of these factors on career success have had different impact on the career success women compared with that of men (Melamed, 1996; Tharenou, 1999). Investing in human capital attributes such as education and training can be more advantageous to women, but having a family and children can be more advantageous to men.

Studies on success factors in the hospitality industry are still limited in number (Knutson & Schmidgall, 1999; Lyness & Thompson, 2000). Knutson and Schmidgall report on research that identified strategies that help women succeed in different parts of the industry. Most of the factors they found were on the individual level. Personal strategies such as working hard, exceeding expectations and perseverance, proved important for getting ahead. Interpersonal and communication skills were mentioned, as was having an effective personality. A good work-home balance and relocating or changing companies also helped. Furthermore, social capital, such as having mentors and networking, was considered important, as was human capital, such as getting more (formal and informal) education. Brownell (1994b) and Brownell and Walsh (2008) found that, according to both women and men, the three essential items were hard work, a positive attitude and communication effectiveness. The only difference between the two groups was that women valued the importance of mentors more highly.

However, while many studies have provided insight in factors that can positively influence the careers of women, most of the studies on success factors produce 'variance theory' (Langley, 1999). Few studies produce 'process theory', that is, theory about the career *paths* of those who actually break through the glass ceiling (Powell & Butterfield, 1994). As some scholars point out (Davies-Nettley, 1998; Lyness & Thompson, 2000), we need to learn from the experiences of women who have reached high corporate positions, *while* they were climbing the corporate ladder, in order to gain a deeper understanding of corporate mobility and

success. Knowing *when* success factors are important in progressing careers can be especially advantageous if certain groups are to be supported.

The initial research questions for this research study were:

- (1) How do women in the hospitality industry reach top positions?
- (2) What are the factors that contribute to their advancement along the way?

Later on, as we progressed in our Grounded Theory analysis, as a result of ‘theoretical sampling’, (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) we gradually included three more groups in our analysis (for an explanation of theoretical sampling, please refer to the analysis section). This resulted in the (combined) additional research question:

- (3) Can differences in success factors be identified between the career paths of women and men, inside and outside the hospitality industry?

The aim of this exploratory study was to add to the body of knowledge on success factors, by studying the entire career paths of successful women in the hospitality industry. Hoque (1999a, 1999b) emphasizes the importance of human resource management for the retention and advancement of highly educated staff. McGunnicle and Jameson (2000) note that some scholars argue that still not enough hospitality organizations are taking a strategic approach to the management of human resources. Our research design enabled us to detect leads to maximize talented employees’ opportunities to have successful careers. This approach fits well with current developments in social and behavioral sciences, which focus more on factors “that allow individuals, communities and societies to flourish” (Seligman, 2000, p.5). Especially in the hospitality industry, which is characterized by the requirement to work long, irregular and unpredictable hours, the emphasis of many research studies seems to be naturally on job stressors (e.g. Walsh & Taylor, 2007), rather than on positive outcomes of work relations. According to Brownell and Walsh (2008), in the hospitality industry, solutions are only gradually being addressed. Strengthening the success factors of highly competent employees, especially those of women, could help enlarge the pool of managers in the hospitality industry which, as explained earlier, is facing problems such as turnover, and retaining highly educated personnel (Blomme et al., 2008).

5.2 Method

Research design

The research was designed as an explorative study on success factors in the careers of women in top positions in the hospitality industry. For this purpose, 'top' positions were defined as chief corporate executives or general managers. We defined a 'career' as the sequence of work-related experiences during the course of a working life. 'Hospitality' included food, lodging, transportation, attractions and entertainment (e.g. theme parks, casinos) and events in general (Yu, 2008; Christie-Mill, 2008).

We started out by conducting extensive in-depth interviews with five women who had reached a top position within the hospitality industry. We asked the interviewees to give, in their own words, an account of their whole career, from their first position until now. By telling us about their experiences while climbing the corporate ladder, they would give us the opportunity to gain new insights into this complex social process. In line with Strauss and Corbin, we wished to tune into their way of interpreting certain events along the way (1998). This would prevent us from jumping to our own theoretical conclusions or making initial interpretations from any data, and force ourselves to consider alternative explanations (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

According to Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007), research that relies on rich qualitative data is becoming more common. The result can be fresh theory that makes an effective bridge between rich qualitative evidence and mainstream deductive research. Keeping the questions broad in scope would enable us to remain flexible during the research process (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). However, some of the events, thoughts and feelings which our respondents report on happened a long time ago and therefore may be remembered less well. Taris concludes that respondents find it easier to recall qualitative events than quantitative information (1994). Strauss and Corbin (1998) argue that, when respondents are asked to look back, they "have more distance or perspective on what it was all about" (p. 149). Because of that distance, they were able to present their story with more insight than they probably would have if interviewed during their way up the career ladder.

Qualitative data cannot be generalized in a statistical sense. However, staying close to the original data by constantly comparing small units of data with incoming data builds internal validity; the external validity is improved by comparing the results with existing literature (Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006; Yin, 1994).

Sampling

As our aim was to contribute to the knowledge regarding the advancement of women in the hospitality industry, we started to approach women from this particular group only. However, during the analysis we felt the need to see how the categories that emerged for women inside the hospitality industry matched those of women working in other industries and subsequently those of men. Since, in Grounded Theory analysis, the researcher is starting to see patterns emerging from the data, further sampling is often needed in order to make sure that, under the same conditions, the same would have happened to others; in our study men, or people working in different industries. This process of sampling is called 'theoretical sampling' by Strauss and Corbin (1998), implying that differences in experiences between men and women, and people inside and outside the hospitality industry, could lead to different theoretical insights. Therefore, we gradually included women from outside the hospitality industry in the study, and subsequently men from inside and outside the industry. We stopped including respondents when we had interviewed five respondents out of each group, and the 'categories' we developed were 'saturated' (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

We used the same purposive sampling approach for each of the four groups and we collected 20-30 names via work-related and private channels. We selected those five respondents who, between them, showed variation with respect to sector of industry and age (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006). The contact persons had no way of knowing whether or not their 'names' had been selected for the sample. We sent the selected respondents a personal invitation by e-mail. Although five of them declined the invitation to participate, they were replaced by others.

All the respondents were Dutch by origin. The interviewees were between 36 and 61 years old, their average age being 47.6. Apart from two of the men, all the respondents had started their career after completing a higher education qualification. All the respondents were at

least chief corporate executives or general managers, minimally had two layers of management beneath them, and at least 60 subordinates. All of them were involved in the strategic decision-making process concerning the entire company. Half of the women and men held positions in the food, lodging, casinos, events or transportation sector of the hospitality industry. The other half worked in industries ranging from financial businesses to health services. Nineteen of the respondents were married or co-habiting, one was widowed and twelve of them had children in their household. Four of the women and one of the men had never had any children.

Data collection

The interviews took place in 2007 and 2008, at a location chosen by the interviewee, mostly their place of work. They were all conducted by the same (female) interviewer. On average, the interviews took one and a half hours and were digitally recorded. The recordings were fully transcribed after each interview. The interviewer also made notes directly after the interview, which helped to recall verbal and non-verbal events that had occurred during the interviews. The respondents' CVs gave us the opportunity to check and add to the information from the interviews.

We asked the interviewees to give an account of their whole career, by answering two questions:

(1) Can you give me an overview of your whole career up till now?

(2) What are the factors that have had a positive influence on your way to the top?

We asked the respondents to tell their own story about the process of their whole career, in their own way. The interviewee was only interrupted when the interviewer was not sure whether she had understood her or him correctly: it was important to be sure of the actual meaning of the words and phrases that the respondent used.

Data analysis

Understanding patterns in events is the key to developing process theory (Langley, 1999). In this study we tried to make sense of the stories of the evolving careers of twenty top women and men. We followed the Grounded Theory approach, as described most recently by Strauss and Corbin (1998), primarily because we aspired to derive new theoretical insights from the

data we gathered. Second, this particular approach is useful for analyzing detailed descriptions of similar incidences or processes because it stays close to the original data and is therefore considered to have a high degree of accuracy (Langley, 1999).

We started our analysis after only a few episodes of fieldwork, gradually including the data from all four groups. By reading the transcripts, CVs and notes over and over again, we became aware of emerging themes. For the actual coding of the interviews, we used the AtlasTi computer program (Friese, 2004).

Following Strauss and Corbin (1998), we started the process of 'open coding', 'axial coding' and 'selective coding'. During 'open coding', the data are broken down into discrete parts, closely examined, and compared for similarities and differences. Through line-by-line analysis, we assigned labels (called codes) to small units of data in the transcripts of the interviews that characterized events, happenings, objects, ideas, feelings and experiences of the respondents as their careers advanced. We did not, of course, start the analysis with an "empty head" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998: p. 47). We had read a lot of literature in the subject-area, so we had a notion of some interesting themes that we might encounter. However, although some concepts seemed familiar to us from this literature, we chose not to use an a priori coding scheme, and decided to stay as close as possible to the wording of the respondents. By zooming in on the everyday reality of the respondents, their feelings and thoughts, we hoped to be able to find new insights. We wrote memos about the meanings they seemed to attach to events in their lives. We asked an independent coder to assign codes to a few pages of a transcribed interview; although sometimes worded slightly different, her codes were the same as ours. We gradually constructed a system of more abstract categories of 'success factors'. Since we were analyzing process data, we also assigned codes to units of data that represented actions and reactions of the interviewees, comments that represented changes, steps taken, changes in structural conditions and other processes that emerged from the data. Gradually, a pattern of phases unfolded.

Through the constant comparison of small units of data, and the gradual construction of a system of more abstract categories that described the phenomena being observed, our analysis resulted in the identification of a small number of 'core categories' that integrated the concepts into a coherent whole. The independent coder also assigned some excerpts from the interviews to the final categories in order to further verify the accuracy of the coding procedure. Subsequently, we refined the 'coding rules' where necessary. The results of the

open coding of the career phases can be found in Table 5.2, the results of the analysis of success factors can be found in Table 5.3. Along the way, we started to dig deeper into the interviewees' stories. We studied the memos we wrote about the meanings the respondents attached to events in their lives, and started to write 'theoretical memos' about them. We discussed our interpretations of the data with two hospitality industry experts.

During the 'axial coding', connections were made between the categories and their subcategories. Axial coding comprises a set of procedures whereby data is 'put back together in new ways', by making connections between categories. For example, while coding changes in actions, structural conditions and other processes, we started to notice that the importance of the categories representing success factors we were developing seemed to vary at certain points in their careers. An important step in our research involved linking our success factors categories to the process of change during the careers of the interviewees. We took a deeper look into the changes in situations (conditions) of the interviewees while they were climbing up the ladder, and traced the changes in their actions and interactions over time. A pattern of phases, in which success factors were of varying importance, started to emerge from the data. We compared our findings with literature on life cycle theories and brought this into the analysis.

We gradually entered the stage of 'selective coding'. During this stage we tried 'to make sense of it all' by integrating the codes and categories, and started to understand the inter-relationships. We summarized the emerging themes and patterns in a life cycle model. These were validated by comparing the different groups of interviewees and by comparing the emerging themes again and again with the notes which the interviewer had taken after the interviews and the notes, we had made during the analysis. Similarities and differences between all of the four groups were used to extend and refine the emerging theoretical explanation of the successful careers of the respondents. In the final stage of our analysis we compared our data with findings found in the existing literature. In Grounded Theory this serves to improve the external validity of the study by establishing how far the findings can be generalized.

5.3 Results

Characteristics of the careers

Table 5.1 presents some characteristics of the careers of the top women, compared to those of the men interviewed. Since the respondents differed considerably with respect to the length of their careers so far, the careers have been compared to the point where they reached their first top position.

Table 5.1 Characteristics of women and men in top careers

	Women inside hosp.*	Women outside hosp.	Men inside hosp.	Men outside hosp.
Number of positions before 1 st top position	4.2	3.0	3.2	3.8
Number of years working before 1 st top position	7.0	10.0	7.6	13.8
Number of different companies worked for, before company of 1 st top position	1.0	0.8	2.2	1.4
Number of people with career interruptions (pregnancy leaves included), before 1 st top position	2.0	3.0	0.0	2.0

*hosp. = hospitality industry

Career phases

The study's findings identified temporal periods, which we called phases, which emerged gradually as bounded eras. Each phase included the same types of behavior in every respondent. The career phases that emerged from our data seemed to fit a life cycle model well, for women as well as for men, for people inside and outside the hospitality industry.

According to life cycle theories, an entity develops according to a “prefigured logic” (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995: p. 515). Generally speaking, there are four stages which can be identified: (1) a start-up phase; (2) a phase of growth; (3) a harvest phase; and (4) a phase in which termination takes place. Table 5.2 displays all the factors that characterized the different phases in the careers of our respondents with top careers.

Table 5.2 Career phases

Main codes	Core categories
Trying out / eager to learn / responsibility / risks / results / effectively / visibility	‘Phase I’ Start-up
Professional growth / extra work / special positions / achieve things / communication; leadership / education; training / independent / arrange family and work / good reputation	‘Phase II’ Growth
Full potential / strengths interconnected / new challenges / outside; new borders / broader scope / special skills	‘Phase III’ Blossom
Termination of career (differences)	‘Phase IV’ Phasing Out

Success factors

All our respondents mentioned the same codes that described the development they underwent while climbing the ladder into higher positions. When analyzing the interviews, we found codes that seemed frequently to go together, forming clusters. By carefully comparing the units of data with each other and with incoming data, we were able to combine separate codes into higher level codes, called categories. Closely related codes overlapping with each other were combined. The final clusters or ‘categories’ of success factors are summarized in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Success factors

Main codes	Core categories
Go the extra mile; a lot of energy; need challenges; need dynamics / variation / change; never give up; show enthusiasm; show guts / take risks; take initiative; take responsibility; willing to learn / develop; willing to improve things; work hard; work-oriented	'Internal drive'
Want to achieve things; competitive; create / see / grab chances / opportunities; want to get ahead / get ahead in profession; goal oriented; want to prove myself; success oriented; want more / bigger / better; want status / money; want to take the lead	'Ambition'
Charisma; communication skills / leadership skills / networking skills / people-skills / organizing skills	'Social skills'
Right education; ideas / vision; innovative; intelligence; intuition; know 'how it works' / how the games are played; professional behavior; professional knowledge; a specialty	'Competencies'
Autonomous; confidence; (self-)efficacy; extravert; flexible; independent; pragmatic; resilience; self-knowledge; stress tolerance	'Personality'
Conditions in personal environment; conditions in branch; conditions in labor ambiance; luck / chance; parents / upbringing; partner / family; person / mentor; place; time / period	'External factors'

Table 5.3 shows codes that, in our data, seemed to cluster in two distinct categories. The first category represented the codes that were distinctly more about 'getting ahead'; we labelled this category 'ambition'. The second seemed to be more about individual challenges; we called this category 'inner drive'. This proved to be consistent with literature we found on the subject. For example Judge, Erez, Johnson, Kennedy and Washington (1994) report on studies that show that promotions, status and salary are not the only goals toward which ambitious

individuals strive; according to them, “ambitions of challenge” (p. 22) can be seen as a separate construct.

Success factors and career phases

The discovery of the career phases and the emergence of the categories of success factors were in fact two processes which were intertwined. When elaborating on a specific phase in their career, interviewees mentioned some clusters of success factors more often than others; the emphasis they put on the factors involved also varied. Through the process of the constant comparison of small units of data relating to new cases with the pattern which was emerging, an understanding of the overall pattern of connections between the life-cycle categories and the importance of the success-factor categories emerged. Table 5.4 summarizes the connections between the life cycle phases and the importance of the success factors as they emerged during the analysis.

Table 5.4 Success factors and career phases*

	Phase I Start-up	Phase II Growth	Phase III Blossom	Phase IV Phasing Out
Internal drive	+++	++	++	++
Ambition	++	+++	++	+
Social skills	+	++	+++	+
Competencies	+	++	+++	+
Personality	+	++	+++	+
External factors	+	++	+	+

Notes: * + of some importance ++ important +++ very important

The data show us the following. In the period leading up to their career, the professionals from within the hospitality industry seemed somewhat more confident about their career choice than the others. Furthermore, this group entered the first phase of their careers through their final internship more often than the others.

Phase I: Internal drive

In the start-up phase, 'internal drive' played the most important role in the advancement of the respondents. The respondents wanted to try out everything and develop themselves. They showed and took on a great deal of responsibility. They were result-oriented and seemed to work quite effectively. As one of our respondents said about this phase:

What I wanted from work was: make things better, bring on changes. If I had to push or pull, it didn't matter. (female 3)

The category of codes we labelled 'ambition', in the sense of 'getting ahead', was not extremely important to them in this phase of their career. Furthermore, the respondents gave 'social skills' a low degree of importance at that particular time. The respondents did already show some communication and organizing skills that helped them further along. They said they were "not afraid to stick their neck" out and were accepted as leaders, although they were still in their early twenties. In this phase the respondents did not feel very strongly that their 'competencies' enhanced their development. The topics in the 'personality' cluster were not mentioned as often, nor stressed as being as important as their own 'drive'. Externally, they were clearly 'visible' and were offered some opportunities to get ahead, although more men mentioned this than women and people from within the hospitality did so more than others. Two of the men from within the hospitality called themselves 'refractory' in this first phase of their career. The women moved up somewhat faster (Table 5.1).

Phase II: Ambition

In Phase II, the respondents found their way in the professional world, by learning and experimenting. During this period of growth, the respondents showed a little less 'internal drive', in the sense of wanting challenges, but had become more 'ambitious'; the results of their work became more important to them, and their successes started to count. Some interesting differences between the respondents also emerged from our data. Some of them called themselves ambitious, but for others the term seemed to have a negative connotation. As one of them told us:

I'm not ambitious. I never plan ahead. I'm not doing it all for myself. (female 1)

In addition, 'social skills' became more important for the advancement of all four groups, inside the hospitality industry somewhat more so than outside. While their responsibilities grew, their communication skills became apparent and developed. Their managing and leadership skills and their ability to network developed and brought them further. Some of them chose to develop their 'competencies' by following additional education or training. Their professional skills also developed and they started to become people with 'ideas' and 'vision'. Most of them developed special skills, such as reorganizing or rebuilding. As for 'personality', the respondents mentioned they became aware of their strengths such as their flexibility and their ability to cope with stress. They were independent and many of them needed a lot of 'freedom to act', which lead to career opportunities. Externally, some of the respondents started families, but this did not interfere much with their working lives. In their working environment, the respondents were valued for their work. In the hospitality industry in particular, other employers sometimes invited the respondents to apply for positions they had available. Sometimes, however, it was more difficult for women to make themselves 'visible', than it was for men, especially outside the hospitality industry. Also support from role models or mentors, who were often not officially appointed to them, played a role in helping our respondents advance, in this phase. Again, this seemed to occur somewhat more often in the hospitality industry than in other industries.

Phase III: Social skills, competencies and personality

The male respondents sometimes had more trouble making the transition into Phase III than the females and some of them felt the need to develop their social skills more. Others had asked too much of themselves and suffered a breakdown or a heart attack. In Phase III, the blossom phase, the interviewees reached their 'full potential'. All of them had moved (far) beyond their first top position. During this phase, all of the respondents' strengths seemed to be interconnected as an integrated whole. This phase is sometimes referred to as the "harvest" phase (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995: p. 520). They were indeed 'harvesting', but also still very much developing and learning and looking for new challenges. Therefore, their 'internal drive', the need for challenges, was still fairly strong. Although overall the 'ambition' of the respondents, in the sense of wanting to get ahead, seemed not to be as strong as it was in Phase II, successes and results were still quite important to them. One of the women from outside the hospitality industry and two of the men, one from outside the hospitality and one

from within, were not satisfied with the positions they had reached so far. For most of the respondents the scope of their activities seemed to have broadened. They had developed an interest in socially responsible business practice, or in the development of their business sector in a city, for example. The respondents mentioned in particular the need to be very strong on the social level. Their leadership skills and networking skills helped them to get further ahead, as did their ability to bring people together and 'make things happen'. Some of the male respondents felt the need to improve their social skills before they could hope to climb even further up the ladder. The social skills seemed somewhat more important for the advancement of women and men from within the hospitality industry, than for others. As for 'competencies', most of the respondents had additional training or education that, they felt, helped them to gain the knowledge they needed to get even further ahead. Also in Phase III, most of our respondents became specialized in something through experience and this allowed them to obtain special tasks and jobs. When speaking of her skills, one of the women told us:

(...) Because all of that, I have become sort of a 'company doctor'. I really like chaos: give me some chaos, and I will turn it into a good thing. (female 6)

On the level of 'personality', respondents mentioned that they knew their strengths and weaknesses very well, and were able to compensate for the weaker parts. They had confidence and relied on their ability to do things well, which helped them to advance. As one of our female respondents explained:

(...) I didn't doubt myself; I don't have it in me. I know what I'm capable of. Every problem has a solution. I never worry. (female 5)

Externally, because of the special skills for which they were known, the respondents in our investigation were offered interesting jobs and positions on boards and committees. Sometimes respondents made a radical move in a different direction. People could still combine their working and their home lives well, although some of the men in this phase regretted not spending enough time with their children.

Phase IV: Internal drive

Some of the interviewees were due to terminate their career. Still, the 'internal drive' that had driven them throughout their careers had not left them.

5.4 Discussion

Discussion and practical implications

Our exploratory research, which entailed asking people to tell us the entire story of their successful careers, enabled us to analyze which factors that they felt had been important to their advancement into higher positions. They were not directed toward certain answers. On the basis of our analysis, we propose a (preliminary) general 'top career model'; the experiences of the four groups, who were working in various environments, did not show many differences.

Our data suggests that a top career consists of four phases with specific characteristics: a start-up phase, a phase of growth, a blossom phase and a 'phasing-out' phase. This could be true for all careers, but the model suggests that the phases in the careers of those who reach a top position have specific characteristics. A comparison with literature that is used in HRM practice, however, shows that the phases we found appear to correspond to the phases in development and growth that are described by Dalton, Thompson and Price, on the basis of ongoing research on high performers (Dalton & Thompson, 1986, cited in Paffen, 1991). Although they found more stages in the careers of successful people, the steps they discovered bear a strong resemblance to ours, and also involve primary relations, central activities and psychological issues such as those our respondents described. Another question we have to address here is whether the phases in the top careers are 'prescribed' or whether, in the words of Van de Ven and Poole, they "follow a pre-figured logic" (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995: p. 515). This would mean that our respondents were not just lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time, but that their success was 'built-in' so that no matter what they had encountered, they would have made it to the top anyway. Our results suggest that this might be true. Despite experiencing discrimination and prejudice, disappointment and illness, our respondents moved on up. The question, however, is whether the outcomes may to some

extent result from the method we chose for our research. It could be argued that, if you ask people to elaborate on their own individual road to success, they will shed more light on their own role, their own actions and reactions, than those of others.

Another key issue is that, although our respondents report on the same phases in their evolving careers, the same path of development and the same use of objective measures, there seem to be differences in the rhythm and pacing of their careers. This applies particularly to the women inside the hospitality industry who moved up the corporate ladder faster at the beginning of their careers. They arrived earlier at their first top position, despite needing to change jobs more often. This suggests that they made smaller steps up the ladder. Later on, the men 'catch up', either because they grew up later, as some of them suggested, or because the women have more career interruptions. It would be interesting to find out more about the pacing and rhythm in the evolving careers of those who make it to the top.

Six clusters of success factors emerged from our data: 'internal drive', 'ambition', 'social skills', 'competencies', 'personality' and 'external factors'.

The overall driving force in top careers, throughout the entire career, seems to be the '*internal drive*'. This agrees with literature on success factors. Davies-Netzley (1998), Brownell (1994b), Knutson and Schmidgall (1999) and Brownell and Walsh (2008) report on similar results for different parts of the hospitality industry. Hard work, enthusiasm and a positive attitude were mentioned as being success factors by both women and men. Women added 'exceeding expectations' to this list (Brownell, 1994b). Our research results suggest that the 'internal drive' factors are not only important inside the hospitality industry, but also in the career of everyone who wants to get ahead. The results also suggest that this drive is necessary throughout the entire career (Brownell, 1994b; Knutson & Schmidgall, 1999). On the part of the employer this means that, in order to keep jobs interesting to high achieving employees, they have to invest in their development; they need training, education, challenges and opportunities (e.g. Herriot et al., 1996; Walsh & Taylor, 2007; Blomme et al., 2008; Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). According to Chiang, Back and Canter (2005), training can influence the intention to stay. Coff (1997) adds to that by stating, that losing knowledge is very costly. Furthermore, monitoring performance and keeping track of the development of individual talent seems to be required, in order to keep track of their changing development needs.

(Female) development programmes can also serve as a means to follow and develop individual careers.

Our data suggest that ambition can have many faces. Highly talented people are not always especially interested in moving up the corporate ladder; they (also) want to improve and develop themselves (Judge & Locke, 1993; Judge et al., 1994) and explains why 'internal drive' and 'ambition' emerged as two distinct categories, in our data.

'*Ambition*' emerged from our research as a cluster of codes about wanting to achieve things. It seemed to be especially important in Phase II, the stage of growth. Even though it is still fairly important in Phase III, 'ambition' fades out slightly in Phase IV. Some researchers found a negative relationship between age and the desire to get ahead (Judge & Locke, 1993; Judge et al., 1994). This corresponds with the results that we obtained. The code 'wanting to get ahead' showed considerable variation. In general men seemed to be more concerned with upward movement than women. This appears to agree with other research (Herriot, Pemberton & Hawtin, 1996). Still, our group of men also showed some variation in this respect. The women outside the hospitality industry in our study seemed to want to get ahead a little more than those from within and were slightly more competitive. We do not know whether this means that people outside the hospitality industry were really more competitive, or whether they were forced to show more competitive behavior in other environments.

Our respondents reported that their '*social skills*' became increasingly important as their careers advanced. They stressed, for example, the importance of leadership skills, particularly in Phase III when many of the respondents held high management positions. Furthermore, their networking skills blossomed through their many contacts inside and outside their own company. Communications skills are considered to be important for career advancement (Brownell, 1994b; Brownell & Walsh, 2008). Effective listening and leadership skills were found to be most important. In the literature on leadership, some researchers have found differences between women and men in the way they 'lead' (Rosener, 1990) and in the way they network, as argued by Hartley and Mackenzie Davey (1997) and Brownell and Walsh (2008). Inside the hospitality industry social skills seemed to be somewhat more important than outside. Some of our male respondents, inside and outside the hospitality industry, had to find ways of substantially improving their social skills in order to gain access to higher

positions in Phase III. Our data suggest that HR management can support men to prevent shortcomings with respect to their social skills (especially listening was mentioned by our respondents), by providing tests and adequate training when deficiencies are detected. Policies that encourage and facilitate networking and improving networking skills can help employees developing. Our data also suggest that providing employees with opportunities to develop these kinds of skills seem to increase loyalty toward the organization.

In our study, all groups agreed that the importance of their '*competencies*' grew, up to Phase III. Human capital is considered an important factor in the advancement of women and men (e.g. Metz & Tharenou, 2001). Some researchers have found differences between women and men with respect to the effects of education and experience on their career progress (Cannings & Montmarquette, 1991; Melamed, 1996; Kirchmeyer, 2002). Melamed, for example, found through her research that education is more likely to facilitate success in men's careers than in women's. All our respondents felt they got further when they had additional training and were often asked to take seats on boards and committees, something which also helped in their advancement. Seeing the constant need of our highly competent respondents to learn and develop, we agree with Blomme et al. (2008), who argue that jobs should be designed with flexible boundaries. Talented employees should be enabled to obtain more tasks in a specific job (e.g. activities, responsibilities, and intrinsic development opportunities) with the provision of more control opportunities (e.g. autonomy and power). This also seems to agree with management literature on organizations, moving toward 'communities' in a 'learning organization' (Kofman & Senge, 1993). Also other scholars (e.g. Blau, Merriman, Surges Tatum & Rudmann, 2001; Ghiselli, La Lopa & Bai, 2001) found that job content was related to intentions to leave and that job enrichment can play a role in the prevention of turnover.

In our sample, particularly when passing through Phase III of their careers, all our respondents refer more often to their '*personality*' as being an important factor in their upward careers. Two of the women, one inside and one outside the hospitality industry, had been insecure at some points in their careers, mostly in Phase II. According to Costa and McCrae (1992), the relationship between the big five personality dimensions and career success is not unambiguous. In the literature, only 'extraversion' seems to show a positive relationship with

career success. Furthermore, for example Seibert and Kraimer (2001) and Sutin, Costa, Miech and Eaton (2009) only find a positive effect of personality on income.

In our respondents' accounts of their advancing careers, the '*external factors*' were mentioned least often. This corresponds with life cycle theories that contend that "an entity develops according to a prefigured logic. External environmental events and processes can influence how the entity expresses itself, but they are always mediated by the immanent logic, rules, or programs that govern the entity's development" (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995: p. 515). Other research has found that home roles and responsibilities reduce women's advancement (e.g. Tharenou et al., 1994). The women we interviewed mentioned they had families that fitted in with their life-style: cooperative spouses and children, if they had any. They also stressed their ability to make arrangements at home. Some of our respondents however, females as well as males, being managers themselves, showed little sympathy for women who had in fact trouble combining their demanding work in the hospitality industry and their home responsibilities. Deery (2008) offers many examples of practices that can improve work-family balance, such as flexible working hours and work arrangements, and providing training opportunities during work time. Furthermore, our respondents, both the men and women, found role models and mentors along the way who helped them further. This concurs with the findings of a study on women (Wallace, 2001), although the outcomes of an Australian study suggest that mentor career support increases women's advancement more than it does men's (Tharenou, 2005). Metz and Tharenou also found that mentors, encouragement and networks were more important to women's advancement to higher management levels than to lower management levels, although they concluded that these factors were not altogether of great importance (2001). Other literature suggests that informal networks lead to a larger number of actual promotions for men (e.g. Cannings & Montmarquette, 1991; Brownell & Walsh, 2008). In our study, the cluster of external codes only seemed slightly more important in Phase II. Our findings also suggest that mentoring and informal networks, although equally important for women and men, could be slightly more important for those within the hospitality industry than for those in other industries, especially at the beginning of their careers. For most of the time, however, our top women and men just followed their own individual path. There were situations that affected their job and their work. Most of the women found, for example, prejudiced attitudes and discrimination on the way. But, just like

other exterior factors, such as '9-11' or a collapse of the stock market, the women concerned were not particularly affected by them.

Limitations and implications for further research

Some issues concerning future research must be addressed. Due to time constraints, we did not include 'negative cases'. This might have given insight in the experiences of people whose ambition it was to climb the corporate ladder (further), but did not succeed, and differences with those who did.

Our study was retrospective, not in real time. This might have influenced the outcomes of the study. For example, the respondents may, in hindsight, have weighed the strength of the influence of a success factor differently.

We also have to refine our definition of 'top position'. Our respondents differed considerably in the extent to which they were charged with overall responsibility for the organization as a whole and the extent to which they were involved in the strategic decision-making process concerning the entire company. In future research, we need to include *levels* of responsibilities and decision-making.

We have to investigate the factors we found, 'internal drive', 'ambition', 'social skills', 'competencies', 'personality' and 'external factors', further. For example, the codes we labelled 'internal drive' and 'ambition' in our study seemed to form separate categories of codes for our respondents. Some scholars (Judge et al., 1994; Fels, 2004) explain that both categories can represent different constructs. Still, it could be argued, that 'internal drive' shows at least some overlap with 'ambition' or maybe even 'personality' (e.g. Cannings & Montmarquette, 1991).

Finally, we will have to come to a better understanding of what 'career success' really means, to (hospitality) employees of today, to women and to men. As also other scholars point out (e.g. Judge et al., 1994), the definition of having a successful career might even have gradually changed, from 'reaching the highest possible position', to 'being able to develop and grow'. We will address this issue in future research.

We will also have to investigate in greater depth the differences between the experiences of people from inside the hospitality industry, as compared to those from outside. Furthermore, our sample was too small to enable any elaboration on differences between different hospitality segments.

Since our focus was on women, there is one more interesting point to mention. Our female respondents reported they never had come across a 'glass ceiling'. This does not match the results of other research (e.g. Davidson & Burke, 2000) and has to be investigated further.

5.5 Conclusion

A career must be seen as a process during which actions and reactions change over time. The findings of our small research group cannot be applied generally to all people with top careers. Still, this research study suggests that, when success factors in careers are being investigated, change over time cannot be ignored. This kind of knowledge is particularly important now that the hospitality industry is facing the challenge of gaining and retaining higher educated personnel.

As for women in the hospitality industry, the initial focus of our research study, we can carefully conclude that it seems quite possible for them to enjoy a successful career in the industry. Women can be successful if they are driven, and are prepared to work hard and go the extra mile, if they make sure their actions are visible, aim for results and successes, make good use of their social skills, organize their home life well, and go their own way. They cannot do this alone. With sincere commitment of everyone involved, the hospitality can be an industry that allows women to “flourish” (Seligman, 2000, p. 5) and be successful.

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CHAPTER 6: The use of the psychological contract to explain self-perceived employability⁷

Abstract

This study examines the relationship between the psychological contract and self-perceived employability (intra-organizational mobility intentions, employee development and perceived labor market opportunities). A survey was completed by 247 alumni of the Hotelschool The Hague, a hotel management school in the Netherlands. Hierarchical stepwise regression analyses were used to assess the relative contribution of employer practices to the employability measures. The psychological contract measures were work-home flexibility, job content, autonomy, development opportunities, a clear task description, salary and intra-organizational mobility opportunities, job security, performance-related pay and promotion opportunities. The main predictors for employability were intra-organizational mobility opportunities, development opportunities and autonomy. Age and gender moderated some of the relations between psychological contract and employability. We conclude that the psychological contract can explain a fair amount of variance among hospitality workers' self-perceived employability.

⁷ This chapter is based on: Sok, J., Blomme, R., & Tromp, D. (2013). The use of the psychological contract to explain self-perceived employability. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 34, 274-284.

6.1 Introduction

In recent years, employability has received substantial interest. In general, the term refers to the extent to which an employee is capable of gaining and maintaining employment (Hillage & Pollard, 1998). It encompasses the ability to move self-sufficiently within the labor market in order to realize potential through sustainable employment. Employability has come to the fore in contexts of continuous change and new career models that transcend the traditional idea of a job for life (Bonfiglioli, Moir & Ambrosini, 2006; Carbery & Garavan, 2005; Forrier, Sels & Stynen, 2009). Globalization in combination with changing political, social and environmental developments have forced organizational structures to evolve (Bartel, Saavedra & Van Dyne, 2001; Rothwell, Jewell & Hardi, 2009). As a result, organizations have not only become flatter but they also work more flexibly and in a team-based manner, in order to respond fluidly and effectively to the ever-changing environment. Highly 'employable' workers are necessary for organizations to meet these fluctuating demands for numerical and functional flexibility (Van Dam, 2004; Fugate, Kinicki & Ashforth, 2004).

For the individual employee, these developments entail that the employee-employer relationship has become more individualized than used to be the case, with a greater emphasis on flexibility and employability (Van der Heijden, De Lange, Demerouti & Van der Heijde, 2009; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011). Increasingly, domain-specific occupational expertise is becoming insufficient to guarantee positive work outcomes during the course of one's entire career. A broad competence package enables workers to cope with fast changing job requirements (Van der Heijden et al., 2009). Some scholars emphasize the negative aspects of this development, such as the reduced job security of employees in the organization (e.g. De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011; Forrier et al., 2009). Workers can no longer rely on their employer to provide ongoing employment and therefore feel forced to constantly work on their employability. On the one hand, they have to keep developing themselves to remain attractive for their own employer by maintaining their *internal* employability; on the other hand, they must continuously work on their *external* employability (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011). Others, however, argue that the increasing scarcity of highly competent personnel has made the position of employees within organizations stronger (e.g. Ten Brink, 2004). This means that employees feel less obligated

to be loyal in exchange for security, which may stimulate ‘boundaryless’ or ‘protean’ careers (Hall & Mirvis, 1995; Forrier et al., 2009; Thijssen, Van der Heijden & Rocco, 2008). The highly employable worker may engage in job-hopping in search of financially lucrative or otherwise attractive jobs, or in pursuing his or her own values (De Grip, Van Loo & Sanders, 2004; Pearce & Randel, 2004). However, an employability (i.e. development-oriented) culture has been found to relate negatively to turnover intentions (Nauta, Van Vianen, Van der Heijden, Van Dam & Willemsen, 2009).

All in all, it seems clear that it is important for employees to be able to manage their own careers and to become or remain ‘employable’ (cf. De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011; Forrier et al., 2009). We may also conclude that stimulating workers’ employability is necessary and advantageous for both employees *and* organizations (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007).

This study seeks to contribute to the understanding of what organizations can do to stimulate workers’ employability, particularly since one of today’s most important challenges in many industries is to attract and retain personnel (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009; Walsh & Taylor, 2007; Ten Brink, 2004). In the hospitality industry, the focus of this study, the long, irregular and on-call (unpredictable) working hours, the emphasis on face-time and geographic mobility are often associated with work-family conflict (Cleveland et al., 2007). These work characteristics are potential work stressors, associated with turnover intentions. At the moment, it is especially the growth of turnover at management level that forms an important challenge within the industry (Blomme, Tromp & Van Rheede, 2010; Walsh & Taylor, 2007). Therefore, HR practitioners are looking for more effective approaches in particular to retain highly-educated employees (Walsh & Taylor, 2007). We define highly-educated staff as employees who have finished a higher education programme at Bachelor’s or Master’s level (Reijnders, 2003; Blomme et al., 2010). One way of retaining these employees could be to offer them more opportunities to become and remain employable because, according to Aggarwal and Bhargava (2009), it is precisely organizations that are responsive to the growth needs of their employees that will be able to attract and retain talent in today’s tight labor market. A final reason for conducting our research is that only very few studies to date have explored the psychological contract in a hospitality setting (Blomme et al., 2010; Kelley-Patterson & George, 2001) as we set out to do in this paper.

In narrower definitions, employability only encompasses assets such as knowledge and skills (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). However, for individuals, employability also depends on attitudes they possess, how they use these assets and how they choose to present them to employers. In addition, employability depends on the context (e.g. personal circumstances and labor market environment) within which individuals seek work (Hillage & Pollard, 1998). Therefore, we have also included perceptions on the capacity of gaining employment on the external labor market, an attitudinal mobility element and a behavioral developmental element (Van der Heijden & Van der Heijde, 1996; Hillage & Pollard, 1998), which will be further explained in section 6.2.

Because we expected some relations between psychological contract measures and employability to differ for both sexes and for different age groups (see section 6.4.2), we also studied the moderating roles of age and gender.

6.1.1 The psychological contract

Increasingly, the psychological contract is seen as an important framework for understanding the modern employer-employee relationship. ‘Psychological contract’ is defined as “an individual’s beliefs (perceptions) regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that focal person and another party” (Rousseau, 1989, p. 123). In other words, the psychological contract consists of what the employee perceives to be the *obligations* of the employer toward the employee and the obligations of the employee which the employer expects in return (Blomme et al., 2010). According to Rousseau (1995, p. 6), obligations are commitments to (future) actions and refer to attitudes and intentions. The psychological contract refers to a *social exchange* perspective (Gouldner, 1960; Blau, 1964) in which it is expected that the employee’s perception of the organizational role in the relationship will affect the individual employee’s obligation to *reciprocate* (i.e. give back) in terms of commitment and in-role or extra-role behaviors (Tsui, Pearce, Porter & Tripoli, 1997; Irving & Gellatly, 2001). Previous studies have indeed shown that high levels of employer *fulfillment* (i.e. the extent to which employer obligations are fulfilled) are related to high levels of employees reciprocating with positive behavior and intentions (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002; Coyle-Shapiro & Neuman, 2004; De Vos, Buyens & Schalk, 2003).

Some scholars define the psychological contract in a more restrictive sense; others include more elements. Broader conceptualizations include elements such as organizational trust (Rousseau, 1989), fairness (Guest, 1998) or support (e.g. Guzzo & Noonan, 1994). For the present study, we used a narrower conceptualization of psychological contract, since we focused on 1) the individual's perception of how well the organization's obligations are fulfilled, measuring the perception of employees based on their actual experiences, and 2) relations of the separate elements of the psychological contract with employability. Our operationalization of the psychological contract follows Ten Brink's (2004) approach; in the final analyses, we used the dimensions work-home flexibility, job content, autonomy, development opportunities, a clear task description, salary, intra-organizational mobility opportunities, job security, performance-related pay and promotion opportunities.

6.1.2 The psychological contract and employability

Organizational characteristics have been found to be important antecedents of employees' perceptions concerning their employability (van Dam, 2004). In modern employer-employee relationships, it is generally assumed that employees should strive for career self-management while managers are supposed to offer the desired opportunities and support (Herriot, Manning & Kidd, 1997; Rousseau, 1995; Thijssen et al., 2008). This is the reason, as suggested by Thijssen and colleagues (2008), that we studied employability within the theoretical framework of the psychological contract, thus linking two important and contemporary career constructs which intuitively seem to be related but have not yet been investigated in a detailed manner.

In this chapter, we argue that the psychological contract (i.e. the fulfillment of employer obligations) is an important antecedent of employees' perception of employability. In other words, employees who value their psychological contract more positively will be more inclined to *reciprocate* with positive behavior, perceptions and intentions regarding their employability. As such, self-initiatives and the ability to cope are among the basics of a modern psychological contract (Thijssen et al., 2008; Van der Heijden, 2005, Ten Brink, 2004). Central to this chapter, therefore, is the argument that employer practices have an impact on the attitudes, intentions and behaviors of employees and can work as motivational factors in the

process of social exchange and reciprocity (e.g. Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). For example, employees whose organizations provide opportunities for development for future jobs, either in the current company or elsewhere, can be expected to reciprocate by being ready and capable of using these facilities and by taking responsibility for career choices and efforts (Hall & Mirvis, 1995). In this view, employability is the *outcome* of the exchange process between employer and employee.

As explained earlier, we feel that a broader definition of employability fits the working world of today better than a narrower one (Hillage & Pollard, 1998). Therefore, we focused on an internal employability measure and an external employability measure as dependent variables (Torka, Geurts, Sanders & Van Riemsdijk, 2010), and also on a developmental measure (Hillage & Pollard, 1998). As argued above, all three measures are very important in today's working world and have so far received relatively little attention in the literature. Furthermore, all three of them can be considered to be important in relation to the psychological contract. First, intra-organizational mobility intentions were included because they reflect an employee's willingness to be flexible and adaptable to the needs of the organization, an important asset in today's working world (Fugate et al., 2004). Second, we also wanted to include a behavioral measure, because being employable also implies the need for employees to proactively work on their development (Hillage & Pollard, 1998; Eby, Butts & Lockwood, 2003). Therefore, it is important to assess whether, for example, offering development opportunities is reciprocated on the part of the employee by actual development behavior. Third, we included a capability measure. As Eby and colleagues (2003) argue: with jobs and career patterns being less long term and stable, employees have to remain marketable for other organizations.

'Intra-organizational mobility intentions' refer to the extent to which employees are willing to fulfill the current position in another department or to fulfill another (upward or lateral) position within the same organization (Fugate et al., 2004; Thijssen et al., 2008). The willingness to make lateral movements can be seen as fulfilling the employee obligation to remain internally employable (Thijssen et al., 2008) and as being flexible, hereby reciprocating to the employer. Hall and Mirvis (1995) state that offering development and internal mobility opportunities can help employees to remain employable, although these changes do not

necessarily suggest an upward promotion. Research suggests that employees who experience a good work-home balance will react with intentions to reciprocate with loyalty and commitment, resulting in a greater willingness to accept another job within the organization (Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Ten Brink, 2004). Other researchers found that autonomy and job content positively influenced employees' willingness to move within the organization (Schyns & Von Collani, 2002). Other scholars suggest that positive employer practices such as promotion opportunities, a high salary, job security and a clear task description will also strengthen the willingness of employees to be flexible (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). Therefore, in general, we expect that a positive psychological contract (i.e. fulfillment of employer obligations) will encourage employees to reciprocate with a positive attitude toward moving within the organization.

Hypothesis 1a: Fulfillment of employer obligations relates positively to intra-organizational mobility intentions.

'Employee development' refers to the extent to which employees develop knowledge and skills for their current and future positions (Hall & Mirvis, 1995). In the present view of the psychological contract, development and mobility intentions (flexibility) are seen as career self-management responsibilities or employee obligations (Rousseau, 1995; Thijssen et al., 2008).

A review of the literature suggests that perceptions of the work situation are important antecedents of employees' development. It has been found that job and task changes can lead to job enrichment and fulfillment of development needs (e.g. Birdi, Allan & Warr, 1997). More specifically, some researchers found that career development (opportunities for mobility and development), support and job content were related to employee development (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009; Van Dam, 2004; Ten Brink, 2004). Others have found that rewards and remuneration packages that are in congruence with employees' expectations encourage these employees gain professional expertise and develop core competencies across functional groupings (Hiltrop, 1995). In the same way, we expect other positive employer practices such as offering work-home flexibility, a clear task description and job security to positively relate to the development activity of the employee, since researchers have shown that individuals with positive psychological contracts have high levels of organizational commitment and show

extra-role behaviors that promote effective functioning of the organization (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000). We therefore expect that, in general, employees who are more positive about their psychological contract (i.e. fulfillment of employer obligations) will feel obligated to reciprocate in this specific way and will prove to be more willing and able to put greater effort into development activities.

Hypothesis 1b: Fulfillment of employer obligations relates positively to employee development.

‘Perceived labor market opportunities’ or perceived external employability encompasses the individual’s beliefs about how easy it is to find new employment in the external market (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). In today’s working world, it is very important for employees to remain attractive for the external market (Hall & Mirvis, 1995; Herriot & Pemberton, 1996; Schalk, 2005; Torka et al., 2010). Although limited, there is some empirical support for the expected relations between psychological contract fulfillment and perceived labor market opportunities. Previous research has found autonomy and job content to predict occupational self-efficacy, suggesting that individuals feel competent enough to manage new tasks in extra-organizational alternatives (Schyns & Von Collani, 2002). Furthermore, the social exchange theory also provides guidance to develop a hypothesis concerning the relationship between the psychological contract and external employability. We expect that positive employer practices such as work-home flexibility, high compensations, a clear task description and job security, development opportunities, intra-organizational mobility opportunities and promotion opportunities will encourage employees to reciprocate by working on their competencies and by keeping their external employability up to standard (Herriot et al., 1997; Schalk, 2005; Van der Heijden, 2005; Thijssen et al., 2008). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1c: Fulfillment of employer obligations relates positively to employees’ perceived labor market opportunities.

In general, women can be expected to have a different notion of their psychological contract than men. For example, they seem to expect less in terms of pay and promotion and “trade” these benefits for flexibility (Herriot et al., 1997). Several studies have shown that, compared

with their male colleagues, women receive lower wages for the same type of work, fewer opportunities for development, education, training and promotion, and less job security (International Labour Office, 2010). In addition, women have been found to experience fewer job alternatives with their current employer (Goudswaard, 2003, cited in Torka et al., 2010). We therefore also expect women to be less positive than men about their job content and autonomy. Because women in the hospitality industry have been found to experience more work-home stress than men (Doherty, 2004; Blomme et al., 2010), we also expect them to evaluate work-home flexibility as being lower. Therefore, our general expectation is that women demonstrate lower scores than men on the assessment of their psychological contract.

Moreover, we expect women to perceive their employability as being on a lower level, compared to men's. As a result of women being offered fewer opportunities, we expect them to reciprocate with less intra-organizational mobility intentions and development behavior. We also expect them to perceive their external opportunities as being lower (International Labour Office, 2010). As such, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2a: The mean group scores for psychological contract are lower for women, compared to those for men.

Hypothesis 2b: The mean group scores for perceived employability are lower for women, compared to those for men.

Because both sexes have been found to value certain employer practices differently (e.g. Blomme et al., 2010), we expect relations between psychological contract and employability to differ for women and men. In line with the social exchange theory, the rationale underlying this proposition is that if an employer practice is appreciated more positively by an employee, he or she will be more inclined to reciprocate with positive employability behavior and intentions. For example, men seem to value salary as well as job and promotion opportunities more positively, while women put more emphasis on work-home flexibility (Herriot et al., 1997). It can therefore be expected that men and women will react differently to those employer practices, leading to different employability outcomes. In a similar vein, research within the hospitality industry has shown that employer practices influence men's and

women's commitment and their intentions to leave in a different fashion, also showing different responses based on priorities (Walsh & Taylor, 2007; Doherty, 2004; Blomme et al., 2010). For example, work-family conflict was associated more strongly with women's intention to leave the organization, in comparison to men's (e.g. Blomme et al., 2010). We hypothesize, therefore, that on the part of men development opportunities, intra-organizational mobility opportunities and promotion opportunities, salary and performance-related pay will relate more positively to the perception of employability, while work-home flexibility will be more enhancing for women. With regard to job content, autonomy, a clear task description and job security, we will explore the moderating effect of gender. We expect the following:

Hypothesis 2c: Gender is a moderator for specific relations between fulfillment of employer obligations and employability (internal and external employability, development) in such a way that development opportunities, intra-organizational mobility opportunities, promotion opportunities, salary and performance-related pay are expected to be stronger predictors of employability for men than for women, while work-home flexibility arrangements are a stronger predictor of employability for women when compared to men.

Since the proportion of the workforce aged over 45 is increasing steadily in North-America and Europe (European Commission, 2005; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004), organizations employ a larger number of older workers, and hence have to adapt organizational policies to the specific needs and abilities of these workers. It is therefore not surprising that age has become an important factor in organizational research (Bal, Jansen, Van der Velde, De Lange & Rousseau, 2010). However, little research has been conducted on the role of age in the individual employment relationship (Hall & Mirvis, 1995; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). The modern psychological contract leaves room for quite radically changing priorities, or gradually changing priorities during the course of a lifetime (Thijssen et al., 2008; De Vos, Buyens & Schalk, 2003).

It has been argued that employees of a different age perceive their psychological contract differently (Thijssen et al., 2008; Hess & Jespen, 2009). For example, certain development

opportunities offered by organizations have been found to diminish with age (Birdi et al., 1997; Bal, De Lange, Ybema, Jansen & van der Velde, 2011).

Additionally, older workers may be less willing to engage in development (Van der Heijden et al., 2009). Some studies have found internal as well as external employability and age to be negatively correlated (Van der Heijden et al., 2009; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007, Posthuma & Campion, 2009; Bal et al., 2011). Age has also been found to negatively relate to attitudes toward employability within the organization of a current employer (Van Dam, 2004).

We therefore expect, in general, that older workers will consider the psychological contract as well as perceived employability levels to be lower. In this study, we compare two age groups: 'under-forty or forty' and 'over-forty', defining these as mid-career or beyond (James, 2007); Finkelstein & Farrell, 2007; Van der Heijden et al., 2009). Our hypotheses regarding age differences are as follows:

Hypothesis 3a: The mean group scores for psychological contract are lower for older workers, compared to those for younger employees.

Hypothesis 3b: The mean group scores for perceived employability are lower for older employees, compared to those for younger employees.

In addition, we expect relations between psychological contract and employability to differ for younger and older employees (Freese & Schalk, 1995). For example, development opportunities have been found to be valued more highly by younger workers (Van der Heijden et al., 2009; Lub, Nije Bijvank, Bal, Blomme & Schalk, 2012). The same can be expected to be true for intra-organizational and promotion opportunities. We therefore expect younger workers to show stronger reactions to these employer's practices, reciprocating more often with positive employability behavior and intentions. Findings reported in research conducted within the hospitality industry suggest that job content is also more important to younger employees (Lub et al., 2012), so we expect an enhancing effect here, too. The older workers in this study proved to place more value on work-home flexibility, autonomy and job security. Therefore, we expect an enhancing effect of these practices for older workers. With regard to salary and a clear task description, the analyses have a more exploratory character. We hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3c: Age is a moderator for specific relations between the fulfillment of employer obligations and perceived employability (internal and external employability, development). Work-home flexibility, autonomy and job security are expected to be stronger predictors of employability for older workers than for younger workers, while development opportunities, intra-organizational and promotion opportunities, and job content are expected to be stronger predictors of employability for younger workers when compared to older workers.

6.2 Method

Data collection

Data for this study were collected among the alumni of the Hotelschool The Hague, an internationally oriented hotel management school in the Netherlands. Our respondents worked in the hospitality industry all over the world, in sectors defined as food, lodging, transportation, attractions and entertainment (e.g. theme parks, casinos) and events (cf. Yu, 2008; Christie-Mill, 2008). They all held positions at supervisory level or higher.

For the confirmatory factor analysis of the psychological contract measure, we had access to two different samples. Sample 1, our study sample (2006), consisted of 247 respondents: 157 males (64%) and 90 females (36%). In this sample, the mean age was 37.3; 167 of the respondents were 40 years of age or younger (68%), and 80 were over forty (32%). Most respondents held a Bachelor's degree in higher professional education ($n = 218$; 88%), and the others (12%) held a Master's degree, mostly MBA. For the confirmatory factor analysis, we also had access to another sample, collected for different purposes. Sample 2 (2008) consisted of 135 respondents: 75 males and 60 females (56% and 44% respectively). In this sample, most of the respondents were between 23 and 43 years old (84.5%). Most of them held a Bachelor's degree in higher professional education ($n = 317$), and the others (22.1%) held a Master's degree.

Measures

Psychological contract was measured with Ten Brink's validated questionnaire (2004) measuring the "state" of the contract, referring to employees' perception of what the

organization offers them in terms of many different intrinsic and extrinsic employment practices. The questionnaire builds on work from other scholars (Van Dijk, 1997; Schalk, Freese, & Van den Bosch, 1995; Herriot et al., 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Rousseau, 1990; all cited in: Ten Brink, 2004). The 36 items refer to a broad set of frequently used transactional and relational elements: job content (five items), work autonomy (three items), working atmosphere (seven items), development opportunities (six items), intra-organizational mobility opportunities (three items), work/family balance (four items), clear task description (three items), job security (one item), promotion opportunities (one item) and finally salary (three items).

We measured the three outcome variables by adapting and adding to Ten Brink's instruments (2004), developed for measuring employability. Intra-organizational mobility intentions were measured with three items, for instance: "I am willing to perform my current position in another department". Employee development was assessed by adding one item to ten Brink's instrument (2004): "I develop new skills and knowledge for future jobs in the same profession". Perceived labor market opportunities were measured with three items, for instance: "If I wanted, I could easily find a new job elsewhere", as suggested but not researched by Ten Brink (2004). Items of all measures were scored on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree).

Analyses

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was executed with the AMOS 19 computer program (Arbuckle, 2010). We started by performing a CFA on all study variables together, in order to establish whether independent and dependent variables were indeed separate constructs. Further CFAs were performed a) to confirm Ten Brink's (2004) measuring instrument for this particular group of respondents (hospitality workers) in two independent data sets (Sample 1, 2006, and Sample 2, 2008), b) to compare the final seven-factor solution with a higher order one-factor model (samples 1 and 2), and c) to test cross-group validity for both sexes and age groups. These analyses were only conducted for Sample 1, because of the small sample size of Sample 2. We used the change in chi-square ($\Delta\chi^2$) and the associated change in degrees of freedom (Δdf) to compare models, combined with the fit measures CFI, change in CFI (ΔCFI), SRMR, RMSEA and change in RMSEA ($\Delta RMSEA$) (Stevens, 2009). Constraining, respectively,

factor loadings (Model B), variances and co-variances (Model C) and residuals (Model D) to be equal for both sexes and age groups made it possible to achieve a significant reduction in terms of fit in each subsequent step.

When factors are correlated, it is important to examine whether factor correlations can be explained by one or more higher-order factors (Stevens, 2009). We performed several second-order analyses, with different combinations of variables, based on the literature.

Mean scores and Pearson correlations were computed for all psychological contract and employability variables. Independent-Samples T tests were performed to test differences in mean scores on the psychological contract and the employability measures: between men and women as well as between younger and older employees. Hierarchical stepwise regression (SPSS 19.0) was used to assess the relative contribution of employer practices to employability. This was done for the total group of respondents, and also separately for men and women as well as both age groups, because the sample size was too small to include interaction terms. Gender and age were entered in the first step, and the psychological contract measures were added in the second step (Tables 6.4, 6.5, 6.6; only significant results are shown).

6.3 Results

Confirmatory factor analysis

First, we conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the entire set of variables (only available for Sample 1). The results confirmed that independent and dependent variables were indeed separate constructs (Table 6.1). The modification indices gave no reason to examine this further. We continued with CFA on the psychological contract variables. Normality was confirmed by checking skewness and kurtosis of the variables. None of the correlations between the original items exceeded .80 (Stevens, 2009). We removed six items because their loadings on the first factor were below .30, or because the second highest loading exceeded .30 *and* counted for 4/5 of the loading on the first scale (Stevens, 2009; Ten Brink, 2004). For the same reason, the entire work atmosphere scale was removed. The remaining measuring instrument contained 23 items. The seven scales were work-home flexibility (e.g. flexible working hours), job content (e.g. challenging work), autonomy (e.g.

participation in decisions concerning one's work), development opportunity (e.g. opportunity to develop new skills for the current job), a clear task description (e.g. clear instructions about how to do one's job), salary (e.g. competitive salary) and intra-organizational mobility opportunities (e.g. opportunity to work for another department). The three single-item variables were job security, performance-related pay and promotion opportunities. Construct validity was assessed by inspecting the standardized factor loadings, which were all $>.50$ and statistically significant. Internal consistency reliability was assessed with Cronbach's Alphas that ranged from $.74$ to $.90$ in Sample 1 and from $.78$ to $.88$ in Sample 2 (Table 6.2). The fit measures of the final model were acceptable (Table 6.1). We considered χ^2 and χ^2/df , which was < 2 , and comparative fit index (CFI) was $>.90$. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was below $.06$, and the standardized root mean square (SRMR) was $<.08$ (Hu & Bentler 1999). The fit measures of model 5 for the (much smaller) sample of 2008 were slightly worse: SRMR was just above $.08$, and RMSEA was $<.08$, which indicates an 'acceptable fit' (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Higher order analyses showed that all factors combined could be represented by one second-order factor (Table 6.1, models 2 and 5), which can be viewed as an overriding construct (Stevens, 2009). However, since we were interested in the potential differential contributions of each construct, we decided to continue our analyses using the psychological contract variables separately. Second, despite the acceptable fit of the higher-order factor, both samples showed a significant change in χ^2 , and in Sample 2 the change in CFI $>.01$ (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). In future research studies, however, combining the psychological contract factors could prove to be useful.

The multi-group analyses showed that the model could be accepted for males, females, younger and older employees (Table 6.1). Despite the fact that χ^2 increased significantly in Models 3B and 4B, 4C and 4D, the relatively small changes in CFI, SRMR and RMSEA gave us enough justification to assume equivalence of the measurement model for the compared groups (cf. Stevens, 2009).

Table 6.1 Model comparisons and fit statistics for Sample 1 (2006) and Sample 2 (2008)

M	Description	χ^2	df	$\chi^2/$ df	χ^2 Δ	df Δ	CFI	CFI Δ	SRMR	RMSEA
<i>Sample 1</i>										
	all study variables	529,8	332	1.6	-	-	.940	-	.054	.049
1	final model	225.1	149	1.5	-	-	.968	-	.048	.046
2	2 nd order	248.2	163	1.5	23.1**	14	.964	.004	.040	.046
3	<i>multi-group</i> <i>(gender)</i>									
A	unconstrained	385.5	298	1.3	-	-	.961	-	.058	.036
B	factor weights	412.2	311	1.3	26.7*	13	.955	.006	.057	.038
C	(co-) variances	440.8	339	1.3	28.6	28	.955	.000	.058	.036
D	Residuals	470.4	359	1.3	29.6	20	.950	.005	.058	.037
4	<i>multi-group</i> <i>(age-group)</i>									
A	unconstrained	427.7	298	1.3	-	-	.948	-	.060	.042
B	factor weights	455.9	311	1.5	28.2**	13	.942	.006	.061	.044
C	(co-) variances	500.8	339	1.5	44.9*	28	.935	.007	.074	.044
D	Residuals	573.9	359	1.6	73.1***	20	.913	.022	.073	.049
<i>Sample 2</i>										
5	final model	255.1	149	1.7	-	-	.943	-	.060	.073
6	2 nd order	309.5	163	1.9	53.9**	14	.920	.023	.082	.082

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

Mean differences and bivariate correlations

Table 6.2 gives an overview of the scores on the study variables, including the number of items per scale and Cronbach's Alphas. With regard to the psychological contract, men only scored significantly higher than females on the performance-related pay measure. Men and women showed no differences in how they perceive their employability. Hypotheses 2a and 2b were therefore rejected. However, the older employees evaluated the work-home flexibility practices, the salary and performance-related pay significantly better, whereas the younger group scored higher on internal job mobility support. Additionally, older workers

scored significantly lower on all three employability measures. Hypothesis 3a was therefore rejected, and 3b was supported.

Table 6.2 Descriptive statistics Sample 1

Variables	Nr. of items	α^a	Mea n	SD	Mean males (157)	Mean females (90)	Mean ≤ 40 s (167)	Mean > 40 s (80)	T-value diff. m/f	T-value diff. y/ >40
Work-home flex.	3	.74 (.78)	3.33	.91	3.30	3.38	3.21	3.57	-.668	-2.961**
Job content	3	.84 (.89)	4.33	.58	4.31	4.36	4.30	4.38	-.641	-.915
Autonomy	3	.85 (.83)	4.20	.64	4.18	4.23	4.15	4.30	-.512	-1.574
Dev.opp.	4	.85 (.85)	3.84	.78	3.81	3.89	3.87	3.79	-.801	.848
Clear t.d.	2	.90 (.88)	3.34	.97	3.36	3.31	3.30	3.48	.381	-1.074
Salary	2	.77 (.82)	3.01	.96	3.05	2.94	2.82	3.41	.905	-4.868***
Intra-org.m.opp.	3	.86 (.86)	3.39	.91	3.43	3.33	3.48	3.22	.837	2.076*
Job security	1	- (-)	3.39	1.13	3.39	3.38	3.44	3.29	.114	.970
Perf.r.pay	1	- (-)	3.17	1.24	3.38	2.82	3.02	3.50	3.445**	-2.897**
Prom. opp.	1	- (-)	3.43	1.04	3.45	3.41	3.52	3.26	.252	1.870
Intra-org.m.int.	3	.70 (-)	3.50	.82	3.57	3.37	3.62	3.26	1.885	3.444***
Empl.dev.	3	.81 (-)	3.77	.72	3.79	3.73	3.87	3.55	.644	3.004**
Perc.l.m.opp.	3	.75 (-)	3.88	.68	3.87	3.90	3.96	3.71	-.241	2.628**

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

α : Cronbach's α * between brackets the values for Sample 2 (2008) are presented

Notes: work-home flex. = work-home flexibility; dev. opp. = development opportunities; clear t.d. = clear task description; intra-org.m.opp. = intra-organizational mobility opportunities; perf.-r.pay = performance related pay; prom.opp. = promotion opportunities; intra-org.m.int. = intra-organizational mobility intentions; empl.dev. = employee development; per.l.m.opp. = perceived labor market opportunities.

Table 6.3 shows the correlations between the study variables; none of them exceeded the criterion of .70 (Stevens, 2009). Moderate to strong inter-correlations were found between the psychological contract variables. Of the employability variables, only intra-organizational

mobility intentions and employee development were moderately correlated. Development opportunities, intra-organizational mobility opportunities and promotion opportunities showed moderate positive correlations with some of the employability measures. Overall, as expected, the more positive the psychological contract was perceived, the more positive respondents evaluated their employability.

Table 6.3 Correlations among study variables (2006; N = 247)

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.
1. Work-home flex.													
2. Job content	.161*												
3. Autonomy	.171**	.469**											
4. Dev. opp.	.092	.601**	.462**										
5. Clear t.d.	.045	.209**	.218**	.358**									
6. Salary	.157*	.204**	.218**	.265**	.219**								
7. Intra-org.m.opp.	.038	.374**	.283**	.530**	.193**	.132*							
8. Job security	.105	.299**	.230**	.387**	.225**	.198**	.424**						
9. Perf.-r.pay	.042	.239**	.241**	.335**	.179**	.513**	.257**	.096					
10. Prom. opp.	-.003	.455**	.310**	.666**	.292**	.348**	.606**	.335**	.369**				
11. Intra-org.m.int.	-.042	.256**	.111	.327**	.151*	.021	.354**	.213**	.118	.356**			
12. Empl. dev.	.039	.271**	.226**	.458**	.114	.044	.298**	.136*	.122	.358**	.400**		
13. Perc. l.m.opp.	-.001	.176**	.226**	.165**	.006	.002	.147*	.139*	.044	.063	.158*	.249**	

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

Notes: work-home flex. = work-home flexibility; dev. opp. = development opportunities; clear t.d. = clear task description; intra-org.m.opp. = intra-organizational mobility opportunities; perf.-r.pay = performance related pay; prom.opp. = promotion opportunities; intra-org.m.int. = intra-organizational mobility intentions; empl.dev. = employee development; per.l.m.opp. = perceived labor market opportunities.

Regression analyses

The results for the regression analyses are displayed in Tables 6.4, 6.5 and 6.6. In general, intra-organizational mobility opportunities contributed significantly to *intra-organizational mobility intentions*, except for the older group. Other significant predictors were promotion opportunities, job content, age (negative) and gender (negative). For men, development opportunities emerged as the most important predictor, followed by intra-organizational mobility opportunities and age (negative). For women, intra-organizational mobility opportunities and age (negative) showed significant results. In the younger group, intra-organizational mobility opportunities and job content showed positive relations. In the older group, promotion opportunities and performance-related pay accounted for the explained variance. Overall, approximately 22% of the variance in intra-organizational mobility intentions could be explained by the psychological contract variables, in combination with age and gender.

The explained variance in *employee development* was slightly higher: approximately 25%. Overall, development opportunities explained variance in employee development. Age also proved to be an important predictor (negative). For men, besides development opportunities and age, intra-organizational mobility opportunities and work-home flexibility proved to be important predictors for development. For women, besides development opportunities, only age added significantly to their development. For the older group, development opportunities were a significant predictor for development. In the younger group, besides development opportunities, a clear task description (negative) and autonomy were significant predictors.

The psychological contract predictors did not explain much of the variance in *perceived labor market opportunities* (9%). For men, the explained variance was 23%. Overall, only autonomy and age were found to be significant predictors of employability. None of the psychological contract variables, nor age, were significant predictors of the perceived labor market opportunities according to women, while autonomy, age (negative), job security and work-home flexibility accounted for the explained variance in perceived external opportunities for men. Autonomy proved to be a significant predictor of external opportunities for both the younger as well as the older group. In the older group, only job content and gender added significantly to the perception of having external opportunities.

Table 6.4 Hierarchical stepwise regression analyses to explain intra-organizational mobility intentions¹

	<i>Total</i> (<i>n=247</i>)	<i>Men</i> (<i>n=157</i>)	<i>Women</i> (<i>n=90</i>)	<i>≤40s</i> (<i>n=167</i>)	<i>>40s</i> (<i>n=80</i>)
	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>
<i>Step 1</i>					
Gender ^a	-.16**	-	-	-.13	-.25*
Age ^b	-.25***	-.22**	-.29**	-	-
<i>Step 2</i>					
Gender	-.15**	-	-	-.12	-.19
Age	-.21***	-.18*	-.26**	-	-
Promotion opportunities	.17*				.22*
Intra-org. mob. opp.	.17*	.19*	.31**	.27**	
Job content	.14*			.18*	
Development opp.		.32***			
Perf. -related pay					.40***
<i>Regression model</i>					
Explained Variance R ²	22%	24%	18%	17%	32%
Adjusted R ²	20%	22%	16%	16%	29%
F value	13.31***	15.66***	9.62***	11.14***	11.92***

***: p<.001; **: p<.01; *: p<.05

¹All psychological contract variables were entered, only significant results are shown

^a males are coded 1, females are coded 2

^b ≤ 40s are coded 1, > 40s are coded 2

Notes: intra-org. mob. opp. = intra-organizational mobility opportunities; development opp. = development opportunities; perf.-related pay = performance related pay

Table 6.5 Hierarchical stepwise regression analyses to explain employee development¹

	<i>Total</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>≤40s</i>	<i>>40s</i>
	<i>(n=247)</i>	<i>(n=157)</i>	<i>(n=90)</i>	<i>(n=167)</i>	<i>(n=80)</i>
	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>
<i>Step 1</i>					
Gender ^a	-.08	-	-	-.06	-.12
Age ^b	-.22**	-.21**	-.24*	-	-
<i>Step 2</i>					
Gender	-.10	-	-	-.07	-.13
Age	-.20***	-.19**	-.22*	-	-
Development opp.	.45***	.42***	.37***	.42***	.51***
Work-home flexibility		.17*			
Intra-org. mob. opp.		.17*			
Job content					
Clear task description				-.19*	
Autonomy				.18*	
<i>Regression model</i>					
Explained Variance R ²	25%	36%	19%	25%	28%
Adjusted R ²	24%	34%	17%	23%	26%
F value	27.32***	21.04***	10.21***	13.33***	14.90***

***: p<.001; **: p<.01; *p: <.05

¹All psychological contract variables were entered, only significant results are shown

^a males are coded 1, females are coded 2

^b ≤ 40s are coded 1, > 40s are coded 2

Notes: intra-org. mob. opp. = intra-organizational mobility opportunities; development opp. = development opportunities

Table 6.6 Hierarchical stepwise regression analyses to explain perceived labor market opportunities¹

	<i>Total</i> (<i>n=247</i>)	<i>Men</i> (<i>n=157</i>)	<i>Women</i> (<i>n=90</i>)	<i>≤40s</i> (<i>n=167</i>)	<i>>40s</i> (<i>n=80</i>)
	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i>
<i>Step 1</i>					
Gender ^a	-.02	-	-	-.14	.25*
Age ^b	-.18**	-.31***	.11	-	-
<i>Step 2</i>					
Gender	-.03	-	-	-.13	.21*
Age	-.21**	-.28***	.12	-	-
Autonomy	.25***	.27***		.22**	.51***
Job security		.18*			
Work-home flex.		.16*			
Job content					.30**
<i>Regression model</i>					
Explained Variance	9%	23%	1%	7%	15%
R ²					
Adjusted R ²	8%	21%	0%	6%	13%
F value	8.17***	11.07***	1.04	6.15**	6.77**

***: p<.001; **: p<.01; *p: <.05

¹All psychological contract variables were entered, only significant results are shown

^a males are coded 1, females are coded 2

^b ≤ 40s are coded 1, > 40s are coded 2

Notes: work-home flex. = work-home flexibility

In conclusion, hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c were partly supported, since many psychological contract variables were significantly positively correlated with employability and since the regression analyses showed a fair amount of explained variance in the outcome variables. On the other hand, some of the expected relations were not found.

Hypothesis 2c regarding the moderating effect of gender was partly supported. With regard to intra-organizational mobility intentions, age showed a negative correlation for both men and women. Unexpectedly, intra-organizational mobility opportunities were found to be more important to women. As expected, development opportunities were more important to men; no effects for women were found here. Regarding employee development, small differences between men and women occurred in (negative) relations with age and development opportunities, but intra-organizational opportunities showed a significant correlation only for men. Work-home flexibility also showed a significant correlation for men instead of for women, which was unexpected. With regard to perceived labor market opportunities, most of the differences in correlations with the predictors were found between men and women. The negative correlation with age was only significant for men, as were the positive correlations with autonomy, job security and work-home flexibility.

Hypothesis 3c regarding the moderating effect of age was also considered to be partly supported. The relations with intra-organizational mobility intentions showed a significant correlation with promotion opportunities for the older employees instead of the younger, and with intra-organizational mobility opportunities and job content for the younger, as expected. With regard to employee development, development opportunities were equally important to both age groups, but a clear task description (negative) showed a significant correlation only for the younger group. Autonomy showed a significant correlation for the younger group only, where a stronger relation was expected for the older group.

6.4 Discussion

With this paper, we have responded to the call for more detailed research into the relationship between the psychological contract and employability, in connection with possible gender and age differences (Thijssen et al., 2008). Our analyses showed that psychological contract measures can explain a fair amount of variance among hospitality workers regarding their self-perceived employability. Our respondents, highly-educated hospitality workers, considered themselves quite employable, although the older

respondents were less confident than their younger counterparts. These findings agree with those reported by Torka et al. (2010) with regard to external employability. Men and women, however, rated themselves equally employable. These results are remarkable, because they are in contrast with expectations and earlier research described by Torka et al. (2010) in which women reported seeing fewer alternatives to obtain a job, either with their current employers or with a different organization. Blomme and colleagues (2010) found a relationship between promotion opportunities and intentions to leave for women (and not for men). Moreover, actual turnover has been found to be higher among women than men (Hoque, 1999; Reijnders, 2003). This suggests that women who cannot find a way to get ahead leave the industry, and that those who do remain perceive their employability with regard to alternatives to be more satisfactory.

Looking more closely at our different groups, we found that promotion opportunities and salary were less important predictors of perceived employability for men than expected. Development opportunities and intra-organizational mobility opportunities, however, did show the expected connections, as did job security and autonomy, albeit to a lesser extent. These outcomes suggest that employers who respond to the growth needs of their employees may evoke a larger number of reactions resulting in higher employability levels. Another interesting result was that, for men, work-home flexibility contributed significantly to the explained variance of employee development and perceived labor market opportunities. For women, surprisingly, the expected relations for work-home flexibility were not found. Compared to men, this group also failed to show differences in satisfaction with this aspect. One explanation for this might be that women who were not able to make satisfactory work-home arrangements have left the industry, since work-home flexibility has been found to relate negatively to turnover intentions (Blomme et al., 2010). Still, the unexpected relations found on the one hand between work-home flexibility and two out of three employability measures for men on the other hand warrant further study.

In the younger group, autonomy proved to be more important than expected with regard to employability, maybe because it provides members of this group with feelings of confidence generally gained by being able to work independently (Schyns & Von Collani, 2002). Development support and job content also explained some of the variance in the

employability measures. A clear task description showed a negative correlation with employee development for the younger group. Ten Brink (2004) has found similar results for employees in the banking industry and among farmers, suggesting that, in some industries, having well-defined tasks leads to lower levels of employee development. For the older employees, only autonomy showed a positive relation with perceived labor market opportunities. Job content, development opportunities, performance-related pay and promotion opportunities showed positive relations with some of the employability measures, suggesting that these employer practices are important for older employees, too. Such results are not congruent with other research (Van der Heijden et al., 2009; Van Dam, 2004). It may be that our mid-career cut-off point of 40 caused these differences in results.

In conclusion, the explained variance in employability was generally higher for men and older workers. This leaves the question to be answered how employers can improve their ways to address the feelings of employability demonstrated by women and, to a lesser extent, younger employees.

Limitations and recommendations for future research

This research has certain limitations that need be discussed here. The question of causality in this study cannot be determined, because of the project's cross-sectional research design. In addition, the nature of the study, i.e. employees' assessment of the state of their psychological contract and self-perceived employability, required a single (self-reporting) method. We suggest that researchers try to clarify underlying mechanisms in the relationship between psychological contract and employability by studying a larger number of mediating and moderating factors. Furthermore, by performing CFA in two different samples, we found support for the structural consistency of Ten Brink's (2004) psychological contract measure in the hospitality industry. However, due to the adjustments we had to make because of the overlap among scales, we had to deal with smaller scales with a danger of being variable-specific (Stevens, 2009). It is recommended that in future research new items, derived from the literature, are added to the dimensions of the instrument. In addition, unfortunately, the measuring instrument that we selected to measure psychological contract contained three single-item measures. Although single-item measures have certain advantages, being short, simple and having no complementary nature, their disadvantages cannot be ignored. The

most important disadvantages are possible bias, an inability to assess internal consistency, low reliability and not knowing what the respondent has in mind. It is therefore recommended that future users of this measuring instrument add dimensions to the single-item measures.

Another limitation that must be mentioned concerns sample size. A group of 418 participants is large enough in terms of size and diversity, but it is too small to allow any significant conclusions to be drawn, especially if the separate analyses for the different groups are taken into account. Still, the results give some indication that different aspects of the psychological contract are important when men and women are considered as well as younger and older employees.

We also have to mention the fact that our analyses did not include external factors such as the size of the organization (Rothwell, Sanders & Soper, 1999) or macro-economic circumstances such as unemployment rates (Torka et al., 2010). Furthermore, personality factors were excluded. If included, these could reveal more information about the underlying mechanisms of the relations (Tokar, Fischer & Subich, 1998; Mignonac, 2008).

Finally, further research is needed to explain age differences concerning employability and the psychological contract (Thijssen et al., 2008). In addition, we recommend that more in-depth research be done into the work-home balance needs of men as well as women in the hospitality industry, since our results showed greater effects of this employer practice on feelings of employability expressed by men instead of those expressed by women. We need to gain a better insight into the underlying mechanisms of this phenomenon.

Managerial implications

In the hospitality industry, as in many other industries, management-level turnover is growing rapidly (Walsh & Taylor, 2007), and today's human resources (HR) managers are increasingly concerned about their ability to attract and retain highly-educated personnel. Especially women and older employees need more attention with regard to these issues. Much can be gained, however, by knowing and responding to the expectations that employees have of their employers.

In general, our results suggest that especially offering (upward or lateral) mobility opportunities, development opportunities and autonomy can help to stimulate employees' (perception of) employability. Generally spoken, offering (upward or lateral) movement and development opportunities seems to positively influence intra-organizational mobility intentions. As Aggarwal and Bhargava (2009, p.15) put it: "Regardless of how long an employee may intend to stay with the organization, they place a premium on training and development opportunities. Organizations that are responsive to such growth needs of their employees will attract better talent in today's tight labor market." A better understanding of learning and development behavior can help to establish a learning organization which, in turn, can help to engage the older employee in development activities (Maurer, Weiss & Barbeite, 2003). Maurer and colleagues also state that recent development experiences can increase what is termed 'self-efficacy' with regard to development on the part of older employees. Offering development opportunities is therefore of major importance for employees to activate development behavior (cf. Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Fuller & Unwin, 2005). For women and older workers, this almost seems to be the *only* way, at least with respect to the employer activities that we measured. It seems that organizations will have to find other ways, such as job enrichment, to stimulate women and over-forties (Blomme et al., 2010). Autonomy proves to be an important predictor for perceiving more labor market opportunities, for younger as well as older workers and for men. This can be explained by the fact that experience and self-assurance generally give rise to increased confidence gained by being able to work independently (Schyns & Von Collani, 2002).

Concluding, we wish to put forward a number of recommendations that can be useful for (HR) managers. First, we want to stress the importance of employability enhancing factors, of which work-home flexibility, autonomy, development opportunities and intra-organizational mobility opportunities seem to be the most important ones. Second, we recommend that specific HRM policies be developed for different groups, since the outcomes of our study showed several differences between men and women and between younger and older employees in this industry. Especially with regard to women and older workers, we want to stress the importance for organizations of knowing *their* needs regarding development and mobility opportunities (cf. Armstrong-Stassen & Schlosser, 2008; Thijssen et al., 2008; Bal et al., 2010). But mostly, we want to emphasize the fact that employees need to be considered

on an *individual* basis, at least in terms of career development and planning, rather than on the basis of gender or membership of a certain age group. Many individual differences can be found within those groups (cf. Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). Our research study showed that looking at different groups of employees can be fruitful in terms of detecting differences in preferences or expectations. Still, psychological contracts are dynamic and *individual*, and they develop through interactive processes between employer and employee (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). With the help of these insights, based on the motivational processes of social exchange and the norm of reciprocity, looking at the individual employee has become more important than ever, also with regard to employability.

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CHAPTER 7: The work-home interface: How to make it work

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusions and implications of the findings obtained from the research studies and the conceptual chapter in this thesis. Section 7.2 provides an overview of the main findings, followed by the main conclusions in 7.3. In 7.4 the theoretical and practical implications are described. 7.5 provides the conclusion.

The *aim* of this thesis was to explore some concepts which are all, in different ways, connected to work-home balance.

The key issues were, first of all, the historical context of work-home balance, including the different roles for both genders and the different generations currently present in the working world. To this end, the *new career*, as the current relationship between organizations and employees is sometimes called, was explored, and the problem of retaining excellent work force (turnover).

In addition, the role of the organizational culture and flexible arrangements when working toward work-home balance was studied.

And finally an attempt was made to shed light on the position of the individual worker, his or her meaning of career success, employability and the psychological contract with his/her employer. In four out of the five chapters, special attention was paid to hospitality employees.

The studies respond to the call of many scholars for an approach on multiple levels. First, there is a call for including the *social and historical context* (Özbilgin, Beauregard, Tatli & Bell, 2011) when studying work-home balance at organizational or individual level.

Second, among others (e.g. Grzywacz, Carlson, Kacmar & Holliday Wayne, 2007; Allis & O'Driscoll, 2008), Özbilgin and colleagues (2011) also emphasize that work-home issues have important implications at both *organizational* and *individual* levels, which should both be included in research studies. Although studied at individual level, an attempt was made to respond to this call by including organizational culture in one of the studies, as well as flexible work-home arrangements, offered by the employer.

In addition, the relation between the psychological contract and the perception of employability was explored in chapter 6.

Furthermore, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) describe the growing importance of positive psychology and study what makes things better for individuals. Therefore, in chapter 3 positive home-work interference was included, and in chapter 4, negative and positive work-home interference were investigated.

7.2 Main findings

Chapter 2 presents the chapter on work-home values published in a book entitled: *Generational Diversity at work – New research perspectives* (2014, ed. Parry). In this chapter, it was argued that the increasing difficulty of maintaining a good work-home balance can be explained by different perspectives on work-home balance as held by the three generations operating in today's workforce (Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y). The claim was made that these generations have different interests with regard to their work-home balance. We built on the notion that every generation receives a distinctive imprint from the social trends that occurred during their youth. The profound societal changes of the past decades with regard to the work-home interface can therefore be expected to have produced different work-home values and behaviors in different generations.

Chapter 3 presents the outcomes of a research study in which the relationship between positive and negative home-work interference (HWI) and turnover intentions was investigated. In addition, the mediating role of perceptions concerning training and development practices among 418 males (n=226; 54%) and females (n=190; 46%), inside and outside the hospitality industry, was studied. As expected, *negative HWI* related positively to turnover intentions while *positive HWI* showed negative relationships with turnover intentions. *Positive HWI* and turnover intentions were partially mediated by training and development practices in which the mediation effect was stronger for women than it was for men. Training and development practices did not mediate the relationship between *negative HWI* and turnover intentions.

Chapter 4 investigates the relationship between two types of organizational culture, *supportive* and *innovative*, on the one hand and positive and negative work-home interference on the other hand among 418 males (n=226; 54%) and females (n=190; 46%), inside and outside the hospitality industry. The findings show that a supportive culture explained most of the variance in positive and strain-based negative work-home interference. The relationships between a supportive culture and positive work-home interference and strain-based interference were fully mediated by flexible work-home arrangements (FWH). FWH explained the variance in time-based interference, while no relationship was found between a supportive culture and time-based interference. Innovative culture explained some variance in time-based interference via a positive relationship and was positively related to positive work-home interference.

Chapter 5 explores success factors in the careers of 20 people, both women and men, from inside and outside the hospitality industry, who were all working in a high management positions in the Netherlands. Four stages in the general life cycle for top careers: (1) a start-up phase; (2) a phase of growth; (3) a harvest phase; and (4) a phase in which termination takes place, were identified. Six factors were revealed that influenced all their rising careers: internal drive, ambition, social skills, competencies, personality and some external factors, such as positive work-home arrangements. Internal drive and ambition proved most important throughout the careers.

Chapter 6 presents the outcomes of a research study performed among 247 alumni from the Hotelschool The Hague, a hotel management school in the Netherlands, in 2006 (Sample 1: 157 males; 64% and 90 females; 36%). This study examined the relationship between the psychological contract and self-perceived employability (1) intra-organizational mobility intentions, (2) employee development and (3) perceived labor market opportunities), among younger and older employees and males and females. The psychological contract measures were work-home flexibility, job content, autonomy, development opportunities, a clear task description, salary and intra-organizational mobility opportunities, job security, performance-related pay and promotion opportunities. The main predictors for employability were intra-organizational mobility opportunities, development opportunities and autonomy.

Age and gender moderated some of the relations between psychological contract and employability.

Regarding *gender*, unexpectedly intra-organizational mobility opportunities were found to be more important to women. As expected, development opportunities were more important to men; no effects for women were found here. With regard to perceived labor market opportunities, most of the differences in correlations with the predictors were found between men and women. The negative correlation with age was only significant for men, as were the positive correlations with autonomy, job security and work-home flexibility. Regarding employee development, small differences between men and women occurred in (negative) relations with age and development opportunities, but intra-organizational opportunities showed a significant correlation only for men. Work-home flexibility also showed a significant correlation for men rather than for women, which was unexpected.

Regarding *age*, the relations with intra-organizational mobility intentions showed a significant correlation with promotion opportunities for the older employees instead of the younger, and with intra-organizational mobility opportunities and job content for the younger, as expected. With regard to employee development, development opportunities were equally important to both age groups, but a clear task description (negative) showed a significant correlation only for the younger group. Autonomy showed a significant correlation for the younger group only, where a stronger relation was expected for the older group.

7.3 Overall conclusions

The *aims* of this thesis were:

- To gain greater insight into generations currently on the labor market and their work-home values (chapter 2).
- To determine the relationship between home-work interference and turnover intentions and the mediating role of training and development practices (chapter 3).
- To evaluate the relationship between organizational culture and positive and negative work-home interference and the mediating role of flexible work-home arrangements (chapter 4).
- To gain greater insight into objective career success and how people reached a top position in their field, including work-home considerations (chapter 5).
- To determine the relationship between psychological contract (including flexibility arrangements) and employability (chapter 6).

Evaluating the aims of this thesis, the following overall conclusions can be drawn.

Looking at the **key issues** described in chapter 1, from a *societal perspective*, one of the main conclusions of this dissertation is that the three current generations currently active on the labor market (and the next) generations require different approaches from policymakers and employers when it comes to work-home balance. From the *historical context* in chapter 2, the view emerges that the values that people place on their work and home lives have shifted quite substantially between the three generations. The Baby Boom generation places more value on work, with the men still putting greater emphasis on their work role and the women putting greater emphasis on their home role. The boundaries between both spheres are still

solid but permeable for this particular generation. However, work-home balance is a real problem for the younger generations. In Generation X, men and women have grown closer together, placing value on their roles at work as well as at home and valuing the boundaries between both spheres. As a result, they are more heavily affected by negative spillover processes and experience a greater loss of resources than the Baby Boomers. The Y Generation seems to value both work and home roles, trying increasingly hard to prevent the work role from interfering with their much-valued home role.

Although the youngest generation of workers may show fewer differences in expectations with regard to work-home balance, *gender* is still an important factor when it comes to resolving work-home problems. Also *age* seems to be an important factor to consider with regard to work-home balance.

Looking at the ***organizational perspective***, authors seem to agree that, in the ‘*new career*’, work life has become too ‘greedy’, consisting of more demanding jobs, part-time jobs, contracts of limited duration or flexible work schedules (Guest, 2002; Bianchi & Raley, 2005). This view is also supported by the findings of the research studies presented in chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6 of this thesis. The outcomes of chapter 3 suggest that helping employees to balance their work-home lives can be beneficial for employees as well as employers in terms of reducing turnover, measured at an individual level as *turnover intentions*. Furthermore, the findings of chapter 4 also suggest that improving the work-home interface may attract and retain valued managers. The outcomes suggest that a supportive *organizational culture*, expressed in *flexibility* via flexible work-home arrangements, can enhance positive spillover from the work domain to the home domain and diminish negative spillover. After having written chapter 5, it was clear that work-home balance was a crucial factor in the careers of women and men, inside as well as outside the hospitality industry.

From the ***individual perspective***, we found out that *objective career success* was not as important to employees as we thought it would be. Highly talented people are not always particularly interested in moving up the corporate ladder. They (also) want to improve and develop themselves (Judge, Erez, Johnson, Kennedy & Washington, 1994; Judge & Locke, 1993). Therefore, the next step was to redefine career success. In the next research study, *employability* was explored. Chapter 4 showed that training and development opportunities

may not have as much of a buffering effect when it comes to negative work-home interference, but that *positive* home-work interference and turnover intentions were indeed partially mediated by training and development practices, especially for women, suggesting that these practices can be beneficial. Chapter 6 showed that internal mobility and development opportunities were among the main predictors for employability. From chapter 6 we also conclude that the *psychological contract* can explain a fair amount of variance among hospitality workers' self-perceived employability.

7.4 Implications

7.4.1 Theoretical implications

This section describes the contribution of our thesis to the body of knowledge in the field around the work-home interface. In addition, I reflect on the theories that proved to be useful with regard to studying the work-home interface.

Contribution

The studies respond to the call of many scholars for an approach on multiple levels. First, there is a call for including the *social and historical context* (Özbilgin, Beauregard, Tatli & Bell, 2011) when studying work-home balance at organizational or individual level. In their view, the social and historical context has more explanatory power on work-home dynamics than the micro-individual level of explanations. Some emphasize the distribution of power with regard to work-home balance, such as Özbilgin, Beauregard, Tatli and Bell (2011), while others focus more on the distribution of economic resources (Inglehart, 1997; Scott, 2000). Inglehart, for example, emphasizes the *values* that are formed in individuals in childhood and adolescence, within a societal context (1997). This process was described in more detail in chapter 2.

This chapter supported the claim that a better understanding of generational perspectives contributes to the existing knowledge about the increasing problems related to balancing the work and home domains. Existing information and knowledge was combined in a new way to make clear that organizations need to realize that employees from different generations may

have different work-home values and needs. The conclusion from this chapter was that, in order to attract and retain talent, organizations must find ways to reconcile the two most important institutions in the lives of their employees: work and home life. It was concluded that if employers become more familiar with the work-home values and expectations held by employees from different generations, they will be able to respond to them more adequately and improve current working conditions and work-home arrangements (Van der Lippe & Bäck-Wicklund, 2011).

Second, among others (e.g. Grzywacz, Carlson, Kacmar & Holliday Wayne, 2007; Allis & O'Driscoll, 2008), Özbilgin and colleagues (2011) emphasize that work-home issues have important implications at both *organizational* and *individual* levels, which should both be included in research studies. They argue that the diversity in the working world of today should give rise to many more adaptations at organizational level with regard to work-home balance.

Although studied at individual level, an attempt was made to respond to this call by including home-to-work interference in the study described in chapter 3. Not many studies have examined the relationship between positive home-work interference and turnover (McNall, Nicklin & Masuda, 2010). It is also important to focus on the effect of *negative* non-work relationships, as negative interactions are likely to have a more profound effect on attitudes and behavioral intentions than positive non-work relational exchanges are (Laschober, Allen & Eby, 2012). Moreover, as noted by Greenhaus and Singh (2003), few scholars have addressed the processes through which non-work relationships affect work-related attitudes and behaviors.

Another study described was about organizational culture as well as flexible work-home arrangements offered by the employer (chapter 4). Although the importance of organizational culture as a precursor for work-home interference has been emphasized in the literature (e.g. Kinnunen, Mauno, Geurts, & Dikkers, 2005), only a few studies have explored this relationship (e.g. Xiao & O'Neill, 2010). The literature suggests that organizational culture and human resources are closely related because organizational culture significantly affects the behaviors and actions of a company's members (Xiao & O'Neill, 2010). However, organizational culture in a broader sense and resulting in a supportive work-home

environment has scarcely been examined (cf. Blomme, Sok, & Tromp, 2013). This thesis sheds light on flexible work-home arrangements as an important representation of organizational culture (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

In addition, the relation between the psychological contract and the perception of employability was studied, as described in chapter 6. This study contributes to the understanding of what organizations can do to stimulate workers' employability, particularly as one of today's most important challenges many industries are facing is to attract and retain personnel (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009; Walsh & Taylor, 2007; Ten Brink, 2004).

Finally, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) describe the growing importance of positive psychology and study what makes things better for individuals. This is why Allis and O'Driscoll, for example, not only study conflict but also facilitation in relation to each other (2008). Chapter 4 addresses positive as well as negative work-home interference. In chapter 5, the focus is on the positive factors with regard to career advancement.

Theories used

Life roles and values theories

These theories were used in chapter 2. Inglehart's (1997) *Theory of Intergenerational Values Change* was used to explain how the values of the current working generations were formed during their childhood and adolescence. The theory proved to be useful for explaining (a) how the basic values held by adults reflect the socio-economic conditions of their childhood and adolescence (socialization hypothesis), and (b) that the greatest value is placed on those socio-economic aspects that were in short supply during a generation's childhood years and adolescence (scarcity hypothesis).

The two general views on life roles and values, Super's *Life-Career Rainbow* (1980) and the *Theory of Basic Individual Values*, in which nineteen basic values held by individuals are placed on a continuum based on compatible and conflicting motivations (Schwartz et al., 2012) provided useful insights regarding values of individuals. Both theories explain how values are connected to the various roles people fulfill in their lives.

However, with regard to work-home research in general, in chapter 2 we conclude that we need to obtain a deeper insight into how the work-home values of workers from different

generations have taken shape and what precisely they are today. In addition, we must answer the question which combination and level of integration of values is successful when we consider work-home balance? Furthermore, little is still known about how exactly people integrate their values, connected to different life roles. The border theory (Clark, 2000) could be a good starting point for investigating how people integrate different sets of values in their lives in order to create work-home balance (chapter 2, figure 2.1), because it places emphasis on how people shape their work and their home environments. The identity centrality approach (Settles, 2004) could also be of use here, since it focuses on how people deal with different central value systems for different life roles.

Spillover and work-home interference

From a theoretical perspective, the *Spillover Theory* (e.g. Staines, 1980) proved to be useful to explain that emotions and behaviors related to the work environment can spill over to the home environment (or the other way around). Many scholars studying the work-home interface have used the theory.

In this thesis, the Spillover Theory could explain the interplay between values concerning the working life and values concerning the non-work life. Chapter 2 explains how Super (1980) and Schwartz and colleagues (2000) used the theory to explain the spillover effects between different life spheres. Elizur and Sagie (1999), for example, made an attempt to offer a more holistic view on values, with the help of the idea of spillover.

Also in chapter 2, the *Resources-Demands model* (Voydanoff, 2005) helped us understand how the perception of work-home balance derives from assessing the relative demands and resources associated with work roles and home roles.

Furthermore, the spillover theory was helpful to explain positive and negative home-to-work and work-to-home interferences. In chapter 3, it helped us understand (turnover) intentions, in relation to home-to-work interferences, as few scholars have addressed the processes through which non-work relationships affect work-related attitudes and behaviors. In chapter 4, the relationship between the organization's culture and spillover from work to home was investigated.

Negative work-home and home-work interference can be understood from the perspective of the *Role Theory* (Katz & Kahn, 1978), paying attention to *Role Scarcity*, in which time and energy needed to fulfill multiple roles, such as roles in the work and private domain are finite

and scarce and might be conflicting (Goode, 1960). The *Role Accumulation* theory, on the other hand, postulates that positive behaviors and emotions developed in one role, for example positive psychological energy, will expand individual resources and facilitate role performance in another role (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). These theories proved useful in chapters 3 and 4 in order to understand positive and negative work-home and home-work interference.

The *Conservation of Resources theory* (COR; Hobfoll & Shirom, 1980, 2001) was also used. Hobfoll and Shirom argue that stress can occur when individuals experience a loss of resources (self-esteem, energy) in the work or home domain, which might result in a spillover of negative emotions and stress into the other domain. On the other hand, in his *Compensation Theory*, Staines argues that people will make investments in each domain, attempting to compensate what is missing in the other domain (1980). The conservation of resources theory was used in chapter 2 with regard to work-home balance, in chapter 3 with regard to home-work interference and in chapter 4 with regard to work-home interference. The compensation theory was used in chapter 4 to explain how people try to balance the work and the home domain.

The Spillover theories and the notion of work-home interference in particular can be useful when studying the work-home interface. Overall they explain, to a certain extent, how individuals play different roles in the work and home environment, and how the role one plays in one domain can interact, in a positive or negative way, with the role one has to play in the other domain.

Still, there is a need for a deeper understanding of what exactly “spills over” and how this spillover process precisely works for different groups of people. Greenhaus and Powell, for example (2012), call for research on how decisions with regard to their work situation are made, within households, which could prove fruitful.

Culture

Earlier it was described how socio-economic conditions can form values in children and adolescents and as such bring about different value systems in different generations with regard to work-home balance. In chapter 4, it was argued that the shared values within the organization or the organizational culture may also play an important role in establishing

work-home balance. The *Competing Values Framework* is a theoretical model, which refers to whether an organization has a predominant internal or external focus and strives for flexibility and individuality or stability and control. The supportive culture measure as well as the innovative culture measure in chapter 4 were based on Cameron and Quinn's framework (CVF; 1999).

Overall, the Competing Values Framework proved useful for showing the distinction between a supportive and an innovative culture as a precursor for work-home interference, positive as well as negative.

However, we need to learn more about this relationship, as not all the expected relationships were found, for example the one between innovative culture and negative (strain-based) work-home interference. Also, the strong mediating role of flexible work-home arrangements calls for more insight into what a positive "work-home culture" really entails and how it relates to the 'general' organizational culture.

Psychological contract

In relation to the organization, as seen from the view of individual employees, the 'deal' or social exchange relationship (Gouldner, 1960; Blau, 1964) they have with their employer seems to be an important precursor of their perception of employability. The *Psychological Contract framework* (Rousseau, 1995) consists of what the employee perceives to be the obligations of the employer toward the employee and the obligations of the employee which the employer expects in return (Rousseau, 1989).

Ten Brink's validated questionnaire (2004) measures the "state" of the contract, referring to employees' perception of what the organization offers them in terms of many different intrinsic and extrinsic employment practices. The questionnaire builds on work from other scholars (Van Dijk, 1997; Schalk, Freese & Van den Bosch, 1995; Herriot et al., 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Rousseau, 1990; all cited in: Ten Brink, 2004). The items refer to a broad set of frequently used transactional and relational elements: job content, work autonomy, working atmosphere, development opportunities, intra-organizational mobility opportunities, work-home flexibility, clear task description, job security, promotion opportunities and salary.

The psychological contract framework was used in chapter 6 to establish the level of fulfillment perceived by employees, since previous studies have shown that high levels of employer fulfillment (i.e. the extent to which employer obligations are fulfilled) are related to high levels of employees reciprocating with positive behaviors and intentions (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Coyle-Shapiro & Neuman, 2004; De Vos, Buyens & Schalk, 2003).

From chapter 6, we may conclude that the framework can explain a fair amount of variance among hospitality workers' self-perceived employability. The main predictors for employability were intra-organizational mobility opportunities, development opportunities and autonomy. Work-home flexibility measures were not as important as expected and seemed to matter to men rather than to women, as we expected. One explanation for this finding could be that women who were unable to make satisfactory work-home arrangements have left the industry, because work-home flexibility has been found to relate negatively to turnover intentions (Blomme, Van Rheede & Tromp, 2010).

The Psychological Contract appears to be an important precursor of the perception of employability in employees. However, we need more insight into differences in psychological contracts between different types of employees, as this study revealed that both men and women as well as younger and older employees have different needs with regard to employer practices, and especially with regard to development and mobility opportunities (cf. Freese & Schalk, 1995; Armstrong-Stassen & Schlosser, 2008; Thijssen, Van der Heijden & Rocco, 2008; Bal, Jansen, Van der Velde, De Lange & Rousseau, 2010). For example, development opportunities have been found to be valued more highly by younger workers (Van der Heijden, De Lange, Demerouti, & Van der Heijde, 2009; Lub, Nije Bijvank, Bal, Blomme, & Schalk, 2012). The two genders have also been found to value employer practices differently (Blomme, Van Rheede & Tromp, 2010).

In a similar vein, we must also consider other strands of diversity besides gender and age or generation. For example, as Özbilgin, Beauregard, Tatli and Bell (2011) point out, today's considerable diversity in demography and household structures should also be taken into consideration.

But mostly we need to acknowledge that employees should be considered on an individual basis, at least in terms of career development and planning, even more than on the basis of

gender or membership of a certain age group. Many individual differences can be found within those groups (cf. Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). Psychological contracts are dynamic and individual and they develop through interactive processes between individual employer and employee (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). With the help of these insights, based on the motivational processes of social exchange and the norm of reciprocity, looking at the relationship between individual employees and their employers has become more important than ever.

High performers

The exploratory research which involved asking people to tell me the entire story of their successful careers made it possible to analyze which factors they felt had been important to their advancement into higher positions. They were not directed toward certain answers. On the basis of the analyses, a (preliminary) general '*top career model*' could be proposed. The experiences of the four groups (women and men, working inside and outside the hospitality industry) who were working in various environments did not reveal many differences.

The data suggested that a top career consists of four phases with specific characteristics: a start-up phase, a phase of growth, a blossom phase and a 'phasing-out' phase. This could apply to all careers but the model suggests that the phases in the careers of those who reach a top position have specific characteristics. However, a comparison with literature used in HRM practice showed that the phases we found appear to correspond to the phases in development and growth described by Dalton, Thompson and Price, based on ongoing research into *high performers* (Dalton, Thompson and Price, 1986, cited in Paffen, 1991). Although they found more stages in the careers of successful people, the steps they discovered bore a strong resemblance to ours and also involve primary relations, central activities and psychological issues such as those described by our respondents.

The conclusion with regard to high performers (Paffen, 1991) is that the careers of this particular group of people seem go through some prescribed phases, or "follow a pre-figured logic" (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995, p. 515), with specific characteristics. Combined with the knowledge of the needs of high achievers, this can help organizations to attract and attain key employees. However, we need more research in order to further develop a '*top career model*'.

Limitations

It is important to note the most important limitations to the presented research studies.

First, let us consider the studies presented in chapters 3, 4 and 6. These studies were based on a *cross-sectional* design; the results do not allow any conclusions regarding causality. Longitudinal data would be preferable, especially with regard to spillover effects (Kinnunen, Geurts & Mauno, 2004). Nevertheless, the analyses represent an initial step in the investigation of relationships between home-to-work spillover and turnover intentions (chapter 3), as well as of the mechanisms underlying these relationships. The analyses can serve as a first step in the investigation of the relations between culture and positive and negative spillover from work to home, and they can be viewed as an indication that relations between the two exist (chapter 4). And finally, at least some light was shed on the relationship between the psychological contract and three important aspects of employability (chapter 6).

A second limitation could involve the fact that the studies were based on *self-reported* data. Nevertheless, spillover effects can only be assessed according to this type of data, as these effects reflect the experiences of individuals. Moreover, common-method variance was avoided by embedding the measures within a broad array of unrelated topics included in the questionnaire. Single-factor tests (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003) indicated that common-method variance was not a problem in any of the studies.

In addition, the cross-sectional field studies described in chapters 3, 4 and 6 were based on information obtained from a sample of 418 graduates of two Dutch international business schools. Alumni from both schools had international backgrounds and most were employed in international contexts, possibly suggesting that our findings are stable across industries and cultures. In strictest terms, however, it was not possible to determine the extent to which the results were truly *generalizable* to other populations.

Another limitation concerns *sample size*. In chapters 3 and 4, all 418 respondents were used, while in chapter 6 only those who were working in the hospitality industry, i.e. 247 in Sample 1, were used for all analyses, and 135 in Sample 2 were only used for the CFAs. Because the

samples were small, we could not take many moderating effects into account in our SEM analyses or include interaction terms in our regression analyses.

In addition, the analyses of the field studies did not include *external factors*, such as the size of the organization (Rothwell, Sanders & Soper, 1999) or macro-economic circumstances such as unemployment rates (Torka, Geurts, Sanders & Van Riemsdijk, 2010). Furthermore, personality factors were excluded. If included, these could reveal more information about the underlying mechanisms of the relations (Tokar, Fischer & Subich, 1998; Mignonac, 2008). In hindsight, not much attention was paid to the '*home*' context of our respondents. Özbilgin, Beauregard, Tatli and Bell (2011), for example, emphasize the importance of acknowledging the diverse forms of home and family life and demographic groups. More variables could have been included concerning partners or significant others in the lives of individuals, such as work hours, children or values of others.

The conceptual chapter on generations and work-home values describes the different situations in which the generations currently on the work floor grew up. In the qualitative study on career success, respondents often reflect on their home situations when explaining how their way to the top had been made possible. In the field studies, however, no home variables were included in the analyses, other than 'children in the house' as a control variable in chapter 4.

In *chapter 3*, about the relationship between home-work interference and turnover intention, it would have been interesting to address the *mediating role of HR practices* other than training and development practices (e.g. Valcour, Ollier-Malaterre, Matz-Costa, Pitt-Catsoupes, & Brown, 2011). It would also be interesting to consider the *actual* training and development practices of the employer, rather than focusing solely on the employees' *perceptions* of these practices.

In a similar vein, a measure for the actual turnover of employees could have been included. Other interesting questions concern the role of family members and the moments at which turnover decisions must be made. In some cases, employees might be encouraged to quit by other family members as a means of resolving work-home conflict (Lee & Maurer, 1999).

In *chapter 4* about the relationship between culture and work-home interference and the mediating role of flexibility arrangements, the *actual use of work-home policies* among employees was not studied, but rather the influence of the existence on positive and negative spillover. However, the *actual use* of policies should receive some research attention, as earlier investigations have suggested the existence of certain barriers to such use (Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999). Interesting topics could include questions asking what the exact barriers would be, how they work and how organizational cultures can be changed to eliminate those barriers.

With regard to the qualitative study on success factors described in *chapter 5*, it should be mentioned that this study was *retrospective*, not in real time. This might have influenced the outcomes of the study. For example, the respondents may in hindsight have weighed the strength of the influence of a success factor differently.

Also, the definition of '*top position*' could be refined. The respondents appeared to differ considerably in the extent to which they were charged with overall responsibility for the organization as a whole and the extent to which they were involved in the strategic decision-making process concerning the entire company. In future research, *levels* of responsibilities and decision-making could be included.

As mentioned before, a better understanding of what '*career success*' really means to (hospitality) employees of today is necessary (e.g. Judge & Bretz, 1994). It would also have been useful to investigate in greater depth the differences between the experiences of people from inside the hospitality industry compared to those from outside the industry. And finally the *sample* in this study was too small (20) to enable any elaboration on differences between different hospitality segments.

Directions for future research

Looking at the state of knowledge with regard to the work-home interface, we can deduce six important pillars, which are all intertwined, on which future research should rest.

1. Theory

We need to obtain more insight into the following:

- The forming of work-home values of different generations and the forming of a 'work-home identity'.
- The integration of different value systems connected to different life roles in individuals.
- What exactly "spills over" from the work to the home environment and vice versa?
- How exactly does this spillover process work for individuals and for different groups of people (Kelly et al., 2008)? Investigating the differences between instrumental and affective elements could prove fruitful (e.g. Greenhaus & Ten Brummelhuis, 2013).
- How are decisions with regard to the work situation made within different household situations (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012)?
- What is the relationship between (aspects of) 'general' organizational culture and positive and negative work-home interference?
- What does a positive 'work-home culture' really entail and how does it relate to 'general' organizational culture? In other words: how are different value systems integrated within organizations?
- What are the differences in psychological contracts between different types of employees (for example with regard to development opportunities, employability and work-home arrangements), other than both genders and different age groups?
- What does a 'successful career' entail in today's working world?

2. Multi-level

Many scholars are calling for an approach on multiple levels. As mentioned before, Özbilgin, Beauregard, Tatli and Bell (2011), for example, emphasize the need to include the social and historical context when studying work-home balance at organizational or individual level. Grzywacz, Carlson, Kacmar and Holliday Wayne (2007), and Allis and O'Driscoll (2008), among others, emphasize that work-home issues have important implications at both organizational and individual levels and should both be included in research studies.

I agree with other researchers in the field that home and work variables could be more integrated in work-home research. Most studies focus on either one or the other. For example, as noted by Greenhaus and Singh (2003), few scholars have addressed the processes through which non-work relationships affect work-related attitudes and behaviors.

Greenhaus and Powell (2012) call for research on decisions about work made in different types of households.

There is also a need for more longitudinal research in the field of work-home balance. With regard to negative and positive spillover, for example, we need information on changes, as a result of the implementation of positive interventions (Kossek, Baltes & Matthews, 2011).

3. Values

Values seem to be important in the process toward work-home balance. We need more insight into values in different levels.

First, we need to obtain deeper insight into how the work-home values of workers from different generations have taken shape and what precisely they are today. In addition, we have to study which combination and level of integration of values is successful when we consider work-home balance.

Furthermore, at *individual* level, little is still known about how exactly people integrate their values systems connected to different life roles. The border theory (Clark, 2000) could be a good starting point for investigating how people integrate different sets of values in their lives in order to create work-home balance (chapter 2, figure 1), because it places emphasis on how people shape their work and their home environments. The identity centrality approach (Settles, 2004) could also be of use here, since it focuses on how people deal with different central value systems for different life roles.

And finally, we need more insight into value systems at *organizational* level, in the form of organizational culture and work-home culture within organizations. As Cegarra and colleagues point out, positive and supportive *values* can be even more important with regard to work-home balance than actual practices (Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012).

We need to define what a positive work-home culture entails, for different groups of individuals. Also, how is work-home culture related to the 'general' organizational culture? If we know, for example, that people who 'dare' to make use of flexibility policies find

themselves back on a 'mummy track' with regard to career advancement, we can ask ourselves how different value systems within organizations are integrated.

As mentioned in chapter 4, the actual *use* of positive policies should therefore receive some research attention, as earlier investigations have suggested that certain barriers to such use exist (Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999). Interesting topics could include questions asking what the exact barriers would be, how they work and how organizational cultures can be changed to eliminate those barriers.

4. Diversity

The working world is more diverse than ever and many questions regarding different groups of workers still have to be answered.

More research is required into the needs of different generations with regard to work-home arrangements. Questions to be answered concern ways in which generations differ with regard to specific work-home arrangements expected to be provided by employers. Future research could also address the question how generations differ with regard to reactions to employers' efforts to accomplish work-home balance. Finally, we could investigate what factors influence the reactions of the different generations.

Furthermore, the explained variance in employability was generally higher for men and older workers. This leaves the question to be answered how employers can improve how they address the feelings of employability demonstrated by women and, to a lesser extent, younger employees.

In addition, researchers should try to clarify underlying mechanisms in the relationship between psychological contract and employability by studying a larger number of moderating factors. For example, further research is needed to explain age differences concerning employability and the psychological contract (Thijssen, Van der Heijden & Rocco, 2008).

Finally, more in-depth research should be conducted into the work-home balance needs of both men and women in the *hospitality industry* since the results of the studies in this thesis revealed that this employer practice has a greater impact on feelings of employability expressed by men than those expressed by women. We need to obtain better insight into the underlying mechanisms of this phenomenon.

In future research on work-home balance as well as on employability, we need to consider other strands of diversity besides gender and age or generation. For example, as Özbilgin,

Beauregard, Tatli and Bell (2011) point out, today's considerable diversity in demography and household structures should also be taken into consideration.

5. Positive

Traditionally, a great deal of emphasis is placed on the *problems* that people face in their work-home environments, the stresses and the strains. The focus is naturally on removing barriers, and finding where things go wrong. However, it is equally important to see how *positive* elements can be *strengthened* (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

More insight into positive work-home and home-work interference could help us understand what organizations can do to build on positive spillover possibilities. The recent attention for positive spillover processes, from work to home as well as from home to the work environment, shows that much can be gained from research attention for the positive consequences, such as performance, lower turnover, positive behaviors, emotions and intentions.

6. Individualistic

Let us repeat here that employees must be considered on an individual basis, at least in terms of career development and planning, even more than on the basis of gender or membership of a certain age group. Many individual differences can be found *within* certain groups of employees (cf. Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004).

Psychological contracts are dynamic and individual and they develop through interactive processes between individual employer and employee (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). Insight into these processes, based on the motivational processes of social exchange and the norm of reciprocity, has become more important than ever.

In addition, if we learn to understand what value system lays beneath the behaviors and decisions of individuals concerning their working life (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012), and how value systems regarding different life domains are integrated, organizations can respond with the right work-home policies.

7.4.2 Practical implications

Three remarks must be made here before addressing the management considerations.

First, in the hospitality industry, as in many other industries, management level turnover is growing rapidly (Walsh & Taylor, 2007) and today's human resources (HR) managers are increasingly concerned about their ability to attract and retain highly educated personnel.

Second, according to Guest (2002), work-home balance is especially important for employees in management positions. This suggests that attracting and retaining this particular group of workers will become easier if they are supported in maintaining a sound work-home balance.

Third, especially women and older employees may need more attention with regard to work-home balance and employability issues. However, as shown in chapter 6, much can be gained by knowing and responding to the expectations that these employees have of their employers.

Management considerations

Work-home balance

An important reason for organizations to invest in helping employees to maintain an effective work-home balance is related to the finding that employees who experience less negative interference and more positive interference are objectively healthier, perform better and are absent from work less frequently (Van der Sluis, 2007; Van Steenbergen & Ellemers, cited in Brough & Kalliath, 2009).

Furthermore, if our conclusion is right and our working world has become too 'greedy' (Guest 2002), at the expense of our home life, while contemporary home life is also placing increasing demands on people, the creation of a sustainable workforce is likely to depend on the willingness and ability of organizations to focus on the needs relating to work-home balance. As argued by McNall and colleagues (McNall, Nicklin & Masuda, 2010), employees who feel that their organizations are helping them integrate their work and family roles also tend to perceive their organizations as more supportive.

Our research results suggest that an organizational culture, whether it is a supportive type of culture or a more demanding type such as an innovative culture, is to some extent capable of

generating positive work-home interference. This suggests that creating positive work experiences generally helps employees find a balance between work and home life.

Our results also show that flexible work-home arrangements in particular seem to be related to positive as well as negative work-home interference. These outcomes correspond with those reported by McNall, Nicklin and Masuda (2010), who argue that it is important for organizations not only to consider ways to *reduce* negative interference but also to develop strategies for *increasing* positive work-home interference. They challenge practitioners to explore other work arrangements as a means to improve positive work-home interference. McNall, Nicklin and Masuda (2010) also argue that when employees perceive that their organizations are helping them integrate work and family roles, they will perceive their organizations as more supportive and consequently feel obliged, in return, to reciprocate with favorable attitudes toward the job and the organization. Interestingly, as Cegarra and colleagues point out, positive and supportive *values* can be even more important, with regard to work-home balance, than actual practices (Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012).

Still, two important remarks need to be made here. First, Dikkers and colleagues (Dikkers et al., 2007) report on several studies that, in view of the problems concerned, have shown remarkably small numbers of workers who actually *use* flexible work-home arrangements. For example, there are quite strong indications that one reason why employees do not take advantage of available arrangements is the fear that using them will endanger their jobs or career opportunities (e.g. Kinnunen, Mauno, Geurts & Dikkers, 2005). The missing link here may be the organization's 'work-home culture', which can be defined as "the shared assumptions, beliefs and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and private lives" (Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999, p. 394). Managers and human resource practitioners need to realize that negative reactions from the work environment can obstruct the actual use of flexible work-home arrangements.

A second interesting point is mentioned by Hammer, Bauer and Grandey (2003), who argue that employees' *perceptions* of their schedule flexibility are often a greater determinant of outcome variables than their *actual* work-related time demands. This shows that managers

and human resource professionals need to consider employees' personal perceptions and experiences with flexibility arrangements to make these truly effective.

Employability

Organizations need to focus on the development needs of individual employees. Many people feel forced to develop their employability at all times (Kossek, 2005; Rothwell, Jewell & Hardie, 2009). The results of the studies in this thesis suggest that offering work-home flexibility, (upward or lateral) mobility, development opportunities and autonomy are particularly helpful for stimulating employees' (perception of) employability. According to Aggarwal and Bhargava (2009), organizations that are responsive to the growth needs of their employees, no matter how long they stay, will attract better talent. Autonomy proves to be an important predictor for perceiving more labor market opportunities. This can be explained by the fact that experience and self-assurance generally give rise to increased confidence gained by being able to work independently (Schyns & Von Collani, 2002).

Second, we recommend that specific HRM policies be developed for different groups, since the outcomes of our study showed several differences between men and women and between younger and older employees in this industry. But mostly, we want to emphasize the fact that employees need to be considered on an *individual* basis, at least in terms of career development and planning, rather than on the basis of gender or membership of a certain age group. Many individual differences can be found within those groups (cf. Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). Our research study showed that looking at different groups of employees can be fruitful in terms of detecting differences in preferences or expectations. Still, psychological contracts are dynamic and *individual* and they develop through interactive processes between employer and employee (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). With the help of these insights, based on the motivational processes of social exchange and the norm of reciprocity, looking at the individual employee has become more important than ever, also with regard to employability.

How to make it work... starting tomorrow

Within our organizations, we can:

- Map out the diversity in the organization, remembering that there can be other strands of diversity with important implications for experiences of work-home balance than just gender, age or generation, such as race/ethnicity, life or career phase, socio-economic class, etc., and establish the work-home needs of different groups.
- Have a look at the state of everyone's psychological contract, at group level but also at individual level. To what extent are employability and work-home balance obligations fulfilled in the eyes of employees, and how do they reciprocate with positive behaviors, perceptions and intentions regarding their employability?
- Examine the level of support or work-home culture in our own organizations and the relationship with the 'general' culture, as experienced by employees.
- Map out the available flexibility measures. Examine the actual *use* of the measures and the desirable and undesirable consequences of the use of flexibility measures.
- Work holistically, do all of the above in order to achieve the best results.

And, finally, based on the available information, we will be able to implement well chosen interventions. We can monitor whether the envisioned change (more work-home balance, more positive and less negative spillover) is going in the right direction, adjust (flexibility) arrangements where necessary, measure again, etc., until we get it right, for *these* employees, in *this particular* organization.

We, as researchers, can:

Get more involved with organizations. Find ways to work together, for example in a consortium. Partner with employers and other groups, *IN* and *WITH* organizations and help them to do all of the above. Help organizations collect all the necessary information, design and plan, implement, monitor and adjust interventions effectively.

7.5 Conclusion

The creation of a sustainable workforce in today's working world and in the hospitality industry in particular is likely to depend largely on the willingness and ability of organizations to focus *holistically* on the needs of *individual* employees relating to work-home balance. This can be done by simultaneously focusing on the work-home values of employees, on the psychological contract with their employer, on the work-home culture within the organization, as well as on employees' needs with regard to employability.

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Summary in English

Because of the many changes in the past 60 years in the work and home lives of people in western industrialized societies, organizations do not seem to fulfill the work-home needs of their increasingly diverse and varied workforce. Societies and organizations are in search of a healthy integration of the work domain and the home domain.

Background

Both in Europe and in the U.S., several interconnected developments in the work domain and the home domain have taken place. For example, work demands have grown excessively and employees have to show more flexibility. Seemingly, globalization and changing political, social and environmental forces have forced organizational structures to evolve. As a result, organizations have become flatter and they work more flexibly and team-based in order to be able to respond fluidly to the ever-changing environment.

For the individual employee these developments entail that the employee-employer relationship has become more individualized with greater emphasis on flexibility and employability. Some scholars highlight the negative aspects of this development, for example the reduced job security of employees. On the one hand, employees have to keep developing themselves to remain attractive for their own employer by maintaining their *internal* employability; on the other hand, they must continuously work on their *external* employability. Others argue that periods of economic prosperity and the increasing scarcity of highly competent personnel have strengthened the position of employees. It is suggested that only those organizations that negotiate careers will survive. For example, organizations that are responsive to the growth needs of their employees attract better talent. However, authors and scholars agree that for employees it has become all the more important for employees to manage their own careers.

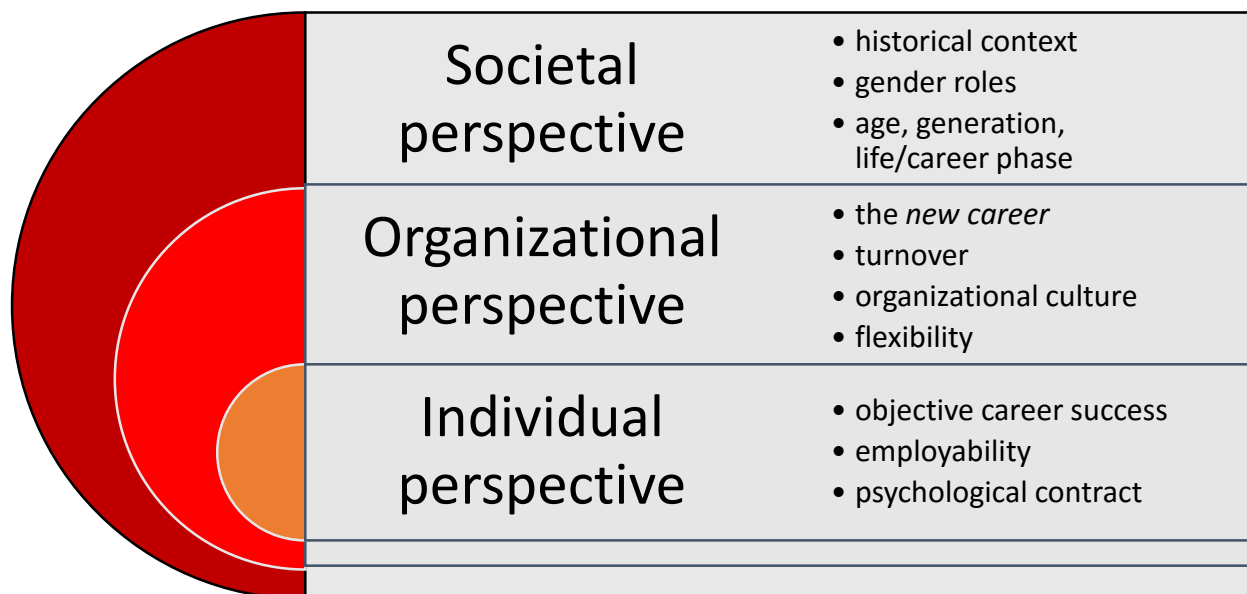
One of the most significant demographic changes, however, is the growing labor force and participation of women that has been witnessed since the 1950s and 1960s. This has brought

about a dramatic shift in the allocation of time and energy devoted to work and home roles. Furthermore, many people also need to take care of older relatives. As a result of increasing divorce rates, families are also becoming more diverse. Single parents and co-parenting ex-couples find it more difficult to combine work and home tasks.

Goal

The ultimate goal of this dissertation is to answer the question: *“How can we make the work-home interface work?”* To this end, several concepts that seem important and are all, in different ways, connected to work-home balance, are investigated (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Key Issues, connected to positive & negative work-home interference



The chapters in this thesis

Chapter 2 was written after extensive literature study exploring historical trends with regard to work-home balance, the formation of work-home values, current work-home balance issues and generations literature. In this chapter, we build on the notion that every generation receives a distinctive imprint from the social trends that occurred during their youth. The profound societal changes of the past decades with regard to the work-home interface can therefore be expected to have produced different work-home values and behaviors in different generations. We argue that the increasing difficulty of maintaining a good work-home balance can be explained by different perspectives on work-home balance as held by

the three generations operating in today's workforce (Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y). As a result, work-home balance is a real problem for the younger generations. When employers become more acquainted with the work-home values and expectations held by employees from different generations, they will be able to respond to them more adequately and improve current working conditions and work-home arrangements.

For the study described in *Chapter 3 and 4*, data from a cross-sectional field study performed in 2008 among alumni from two Dutch business schools are used. The (418) respondents were working all over the world in a variety of industries. The data were analyzed using SPSS and AMOS.

Chapter 3 studies the relationship between positive and negative home-work interference (HWI) and turnover intentions, and the mediating role of perceptions concerning training and development practices. Not many studies have examined this relationship. As expected, *negative HWI* relates positively to turnover intentions while *positive HWI* shows negative relationships with turnover intentions. *Positive* HWI and turnover intentions are partially mediated by training and development practices. Training and development practices do not mediate the relationship between *negative* HWI and turnover intentions.

Chapter 4 investigates the relationship between two types of organizational culture, supportive and innovative on the one hand and positive and negative work-home interference on the other hand. Organizational culture in a broader sense and resulting in a supportive work-home environment has scarcely been examined. This thesis sheds light on flexible work-home arrangements as an important representation of organizational culture. The findings show that a supportive culture explains most of the variance in positive and strain-based negative work-home interference. The relationships between a supportive culture and positive work-home interference and strain-based interference are fully mediated by flexible work-home arrangements (FWH). FWH explains the variance in time-based interference, while no relationship is found between a supportive culture and time-based interference. Innovative culture explains some variance in time-based interference via a positive relationship and is positively related to positive work-home interference.

For the study described in *Chapter 5*, a qualitative field study was performed. 20 people who were currently holding top positions in the Netherlands were interviewed. These included ten

women and ten men, 5 from each group working in the hospitality industry and 5 outside the industry. The data were analyzed using grounded theory. Studies on success factors, especially in the hospitality industry, are still limited in number. The focus is, understandably, more often on barriers and negative aspects. The interviewees were asked to give an extensive account of their whole career. Four stages in the general life cycle for top careers could be identified. Six factors are revealed that influenced all their rising careers: internal drive, ambition, social skills, competencies, personality and some external factors, such as positive work-home arrangements. Internal drive and ambition prove most important throughout the careers.

For the study described in *Chapter 6*, a survey was completed by 247 alumni from the Hotelschool The Hague, a hotel management school in the Netherlands, in 2006. The respondents were working in hospitality businesses all over the world. The data set encompassed cross-sectional data on psychological contract, employability and turnover intention. The psychological contract measures were work-home flexibility, job content, autonomy, development opportunities, a clear task description, salary and intra-organizational mobility opportunities, job security, performance-related pay and promotion opportunities. The data were analyzed using AMOS and SPSS. This study contributes to the understanding of what organizations can do to stimulate workers' employability, particularly as one of today's most important challenges many industries are facing is to attract and retain (highly educated) personnel. The study examines the relationship between the psychological contract and self-perceived employability (intra-organizational mobility intentions, employee development and perceived labor market opportunities). The main predictors for employability were intra-organizational mobility opportunities, development opportunities and autonomy. Gender and age moderated some of the relations between psychological contract and employability.

Chapter 7 provides the conclusions and implications for future research.

Limitations

First, the studies presented in chapters 3, 4 and 6 were based on a *cross-sectional* design; the results do not allow any conclusions regarding causality.

A second limitation involves the fact that the empirical studies were based on *self-reported* data. Nevertheless, spillover effects can only be assessed according to this type of data, as these effects reflect the experiences of individuals.

In addition, the cross-sectional field studies described in chapters 3, 4 and 6 were based on information obtained from a sample of 418 graduates of two Dutch international business schools. Alumni from both schools had international backgrounds and most were employed in international contexts. In strictest terms, however, it was not possible to determine the extent to which the results were truly *generalizable* to other populations.

Another limitation concerns *sample size*. Because the samples were small, we could not take many moderating effects into account in our SEM analyses or include interaction terms in our regression analyses.

In addition, the analyses of the field studies did not include *external factors* and not many factors concerning the '*home*' context of our respondents.

Directions for future research

Looking at the state of knowledge with regard to the work-home interface, we can deduce six important pillars, which are all intertwined, on which future research should rest.

Theory: We need to obtain more insight into the following: The forming of work-home values of different generations and the forming of a 'work-home identity'; the integration of different value systems connected to different life roles in individuals; what exactly "spills over" from the work to the home environment and vice versa?; how exactly does this spillover process work for individuals and for different groups of people?; how are decisions with regard to the work situation made within different household situations?; what is the relationship between (aspects of) 'general' organizational culture and positive and negative work-home interference?; what does a positive 'work-home culture' really entail and how does it relate to 'general' organizational culture? In other words: how are different value systems integrated within organizations?; what are the differences in psychological contracts between different types of employees (for example with regard to development opportunities, employability and work-home arrangements), other than both genders and different age groups?; what does a 'successful career' entail in today's working world?

Multi-level: Many scholars are calling for an approach on multiple levels. As mentioned before, we need to include the social and historical context when studying work-home balance at organizational or individual level, which preferably should both be included in research studies. There is also a need for more longitudinal research in the field of work-home balance. With regard to negative and positive spillover, for example, we need information on changes, as a result of the implementation of positive interventions.

Values: We need more insight into values in different levels. Firstly, we need to obtain deeper insight into how the work-home values of workers from different generations have taken shape and what precisely they are today. Furthermore, at *individual* level, little is still known about how exactly people integrate their values systems connected to different life roles. Clark's border theory, or Settles' identity centrality approach could be of use here. And finally, we need more insight into value systems at *organizational* level, in the form of organizational culture and work-home culture within organizations. We need to define what a positive work-home culture entails, for different groups of individuals. Also, how is work-home culture related to the 'general' organizational culture? If we know, for example, that people who 'dare' to make use of flexibility policies find themselves back on a 'mummy track' with regard to career advancement, we can ask ourselves how different value systems within organizations are integrated.

Diversity: The working world is more diverse than ever and many questions regarding different groups of workers still have to be answered. More research is required into the needs of different generations with regard to *work-home arrangements*. Questions to be answered concern ways in which generations differ with regard to specific work-home arrangements expected to be provided by employers. Future research could also address the question how generations differ with regard to reactions to employers' efforts to accomplish work-home balance.

The question needs to be answered how employers can improve how they address the feelings of *employability* demonstrated by women and, to a lesser extent, younger employees. In addition, researchers should try to clarify underlying mechanisms in the relationship between psychological contract and employability by studying a larger number of moderating factors, such as age. More in-depth research should be conducted into the work-home balance needs of both men and women in the *hospitality industry* since the

results of the studies in this thesis revealed that this employer practice has a greater impact on feelings of employability expressed by men than those expressed by women. We need to obtain better insight into the underlying mechanisms of this phenomenon. In future research on work-home balance as well as on employability, we need to consider other *strands of diversity* besides gender and age or generation. For example, today's considerable diversity in demography and household structures should also be taken into consideration.

Positive: Traditionally, a great deal of emphasis is placed on the *problems* that people face in their work-home environments, the stresses and the strains. However, it is equally important to see how *positive* elements can be *strengthened*. The recent attention for positive spillover processes, from work to home as well as from home to the work environment, shows that much can be gained from research attention for the positive consequences, such as performance and positive behaviors, emotions and intentions.

Individualistic: Let us repeat here that employees must be considered on an individual basis, at least in terms of career development and planning, even more than on the basis of gender or membership of a certain age group. Many individual differences can be found *within* certain groups of employees. Psychological contracts are dynamic and individual and they develop through interactive processes between individual employer and employee. Insight into these processes, based on the motivational processes of social exchange and the norm of reciprocity, has become more important than ever.

Practical implications

Work-home balance: An important reason for organizations to invest in helping employees to maintain an effective work-home balance is related to the finding that employees who experience less negative interference and more positive interference are objectively healthier, perform better and are absent from work less frequently. Furthermore, if our conclusion is right and our working world has become too 'greedy' at the expense of our home life, while contemporary home life is also placing increasing demands on people, the creation of a sustainable workforce is likely to depend on the willingness and ability of organizations to focus on the needs relating to work-home balance. Our research results suggest that an

organizational culture, whether it is a supportive type of culture or a more demanding type such as an innovative culture, is to some extent capable of generating positive work-home interference. Our results also show that flexible work-home arrangements in particular seem to be related to positive as well as negative work-home interference. Therefore, it is important for organizations not only to consider ways to *reduce* negative interference but also to develop strategies for *increasing* positive work-home interference.

Still, two important remarks need to be made here. First, scholars report that a remarkably small numbers of workers actually make *use* of flexible work-home arrangements. Managers and human resource practitioners need to realize that negative reactions from the work environment can obstruct the actual use of flexible work-home arrangements. A second point is that employees' perceptions of their work demands can be more important than the actual demands.

Employability: The results of the studies in this thesis suggest that offering work-home flexibility, (upward or lateral) mobility, development opportunities and autonomy are particularly helpful for stimulating employees' (perception of) employability. Organizations that are responsive to the growth needs of their employees, no matter how long they stay, will attract better talent. Second, we recommend that specific HRM policies be developed for different groups, since the outcomes of our study showed several differences in needs, between men and women and between younger and older employees. But mostly, again, we want to emphasize the fact that employees need to be considered on an *individual* basis. Many individual differences can be found within those groups. Our research study showed that looking at different groups of employees can be fruitful in terms of detecting differences in preferences or expectations.

How to make it work in our own organization... starting tomorrow?

Map out the diversity in the organization, remembering that there can be other strands of diversity with important implications for experiences of work-home balance than just gender, age or generation, such as race/ethnicity, life or career phase, socio-economic class, etc., and establish the work-home needs of different groups; Have a look at the state of everyone's psychological contract, at group level but also at individual level. To what extent are

employability and work-home balance obligations fulfilled in the eyes of employees, and how do they reciprocate with positive behaviors, perceptions and intentions regarding their employability?; Examine the level of support or work-home culture in our own organizations and the relationship with the 'general' culture, as experienced by employees; Map out the available flexibility measures; Examine the actual *use* of the measures and the desirable and undesirable consequences of the use of flexibility measures; Work holistically, *do all of the above* in order to achieve the best results; And, finally, based on the available information, we will be able to implement well-chosen interventions. We can monitor whether the envisioned change (more work-home balance, more positive and less negative spillover) is going in the desired direction, adjust (flexibility) arrangements where necessary, measure again, etc., until we get it right, for *these* employees, in *this particular* organization.



Summary in Dutch – Nederlandse samenvatting

Organisaties lijken vandaag de dag niet goed in staat tegemoet te komen aan de behoefte aan werk-privé balans van de huidige werkende bevolking. De oorzaak lijkt te liggen in de vele veranderingen die in de laatste 60 jaar hebben plaatsgevonden in zowel het werkende bestaan als het privéleven van mensen in de westerse wereld. Als gevolg hiervan zijn samenlevingen en organisaties op zoek naar een gezonde integratie van beide domeinen: privé en werk.

Achtergrond

Zowel in Europa als in de Verenigde Staten hebben verschillende, samenhangende, ontwikkelingen plaatsgevonden, zowel in de werk- als in de privésfeer. Om verschillende redenen zijn de eisen met betrekking tot de werksfeer enorm toegenomen. Zo is de werkdruk toegenomen en wordt van werknemers meer flexibiliteit geëist. Globalisering en veranderende politieke, sociale en omgevingsfactoren hebben ertoe geleid dat organisaties gedwongen geëvolueerd zijn. Organisatiestructuren zijn platter geworden. Ook werken organisaties meer flexibel en team-gestuurd, om soepeler te kunnen reageren op de snelveranderende omgeving.

Voor de individuele werknemer houden deze ontwikkelingen in dat de werknemer-werkgeverrelatie individueler is geworden, met een grotere nadruk op flexibiliteit en inzetbaarheid. Sommige onderzoekers benadrukken de negatieve aspecten van deze ontwikkeling, bijvoorbeeld door te wijzen op de afgenomen baanzekerheid van werknemers. Hierdoor moeten werknemers zich constant blijven ontwikkelen om aantrekkelijk te blijven voor hun huidige en eventuele toekomstige werkgevers. Anderen menen echter dat perioden van economische voorspoed en de toenemende vraag naar hoogopgeleid personeel de positie van werknemers juist heeft versterkt. Zij geven aan dat alleen die organisaties die succesvol met werknemers onderhandelen over loopbanen een kans maken om te overleven. Zo zullen organisaties die tegemoet komen aan de ontwikkelingsbehoeften van werknemers

beter talent kunnen aantrekken. Allen zijn het er echter over eens dat het voor werknemers in toenemende mate belangrijk wordt de eigen loopbaan te ‘managen’.

Eén van de belangrijkste demografische ontwikkelingen echter is de groeiende arbeidsmarktparticipatie van vrouwen sinds de jaren 1950 en 1960. Deze heeft een enorme verschuiving in de verdeling van tijd en energie, besteed aan werk en privérollen, teweeg gebracht. Ook zijn er steeds meer mensen die zorgen voor oudere familieleden. Bovendien worden families steeds diverser door de toenemende aantallen echtscheidingen. Vooral alleenstaande ouders en gescheiden co-ouders hebben doorgaans moeite om werk en zorgtaken te combineren.

Doel

Het overkoepelende doel van deze dissertatie is de vraag te beantwoorden: *“Hoe kunnen we de work-home connectie werkbaar maken?”* Hiertoe worden verschillende factoren onderzocht, die alle op verschillende manieren zijn verbonden met de werk-privébalans (figuur 1).

Figuur 1. Factoren, verbonden met positieve en negatieve werk-privé interactie



De hoofdstukken in deze dissertatie

Hoofdstuk 2 is gebaseerd op een uitgebreide literatuurstudie naar historische trends met betrekking tot werk-privébalans, de vorming van werk-privéwaarden, werk-privébalans-literatuur en generatieliteratuur. In dit hoofdstuk gaan we uit van de aanname dat elke generatie beïnvloed wordt door de sociale trends tijdens zijn jeugd. De omvangrijke sociale veranderingen van de afgelopen decennia met betrekking tot de werk-privéconnectie hebben de opeenvolgende generaties waarschijnlijk verschillend beïnvloed. Wij gaan ervan uit dat het groeiende probleem van werk-privé balans verklaard kan worden door de diverse perspectieven die de verschillende generaties in de huidige arbeidsmarkt hebben (Baby Boomers, Generatie X en Generatie Y). Als gevolg hiervan is werk-privébalans met name een probleem voor de jongere generaties. Wanneer werkgevers zich meer verdiepen in werk-privéwaarden en verwachtingen van werknemers van verschillende generaties zullen zij adequater kunnen reageren, en de huidige werkomstandigheden en werk-privémaatregelen kunnen verbeteren.

Voor de studies, beschreven in *Hoofdstuk 3 en 4* zijn data gebruikt van cross-sectioneel veldonderzoek, uitgevoerd in 2008 onder de alumni van twee Nederlandse business opleidingen. De (418) respondenten werkten over de hele wereld in een verscheidenheid aan industrieën. De data zijn geanalyseerd met behulp van SPSS en AMOS.

In *Hoofdstuk 3* is de relatie tussen positieve en negatieve privé-werk-interactie (PWI) en het voornemen om ontslag te nemen bestudeerd, en de mediërende rol van de perceptie met betrekking tot training en ontwikkelingsmogelijkheden. Deze relaties zijn nog weinig bestudeerd. Zoals verwacht is er een positieve relatie tussen *negatieve PWI* en het voornemen om ontslag te nemen, terwijl *positieve PWI* een negatieve relatie laat zien. *Positieve PWI* en het voornemen om ontslag te nemen worden gedeeltelijk gemedieerd door training en ontwikkelingsmogelijkheden. Er is geen mediërend effect gevonden van training and ontwikkelingsmogelijkheden in de relatie tussen *negatieve PWI* en het voornemen om ontslag te nemen.

Hoofdstuk 4 onderzoekt de relatie tussen twee typen organisatieculturen, de ondersteunende en de innovatieve cultuur aan de ene kant, en positieve en negatieve werk-privé-interactie (WPI) aan de andere kant. Organisatiecultuur in bredere zin, resulterend in een ondersteunende werk-privé-omgeving, is slechts zelden onderzocht. Deze dissertatie

belicht flexibele werk-privémaatregelen (FWP) als een belangrijke representatie van organisatiecultuur. De resultaten laten zien dat een ondersteunende cultuur de meeste verklaarde variantie biedt in positieve en stressgerelateerde WPI. De relaties tussen een ondersteunende cultuur en positieve WPI and stressgerelateerde WPI worden volledig gemedieerd door FWP. FWP verklaart verder de variantie in *tijd*gerelateerde WPI, er is geen relatie gevonden tussen een ondersteunende cultuur en *tijd*gerelateerde WPI. Innovatieve cultuur verklaart enige variantie in *tijd*gerelateerde WPI via een positieve relatie en is positief gerelateerd aan positieve WPI.

Voor de studie die in *Hoofdstuk 5* is beschreven is kwalitatief veldonderzoek uitgevoerd. Er zijn 20 diepte-interviews gehouden met mensen in top-posities in Nederland over het verloop van hun carrière. Onder hen bevonden zich tien vrouwen en tien mannen, van wie er telkens 5 binnen en 5 buiten de hospitality industrie werkzaam waren. De data zijn geanalyseerd met behulp van de grounded theory. Er zijn slechts weinig studies uitgevoerd naar succesfactoren, met name in de hospitality industrie. De focus ligt hier vaker op barrières en negatieve aspecten. De geïnterviewden is gevraagd een volledige beschrijving te geven van hun carrière. De resultaten lieten vier stadia in de levenscyclus van de top-carrières zien. Zes factoren bleken met name van belang in de opwaartse loopbanen: interne 'drive', ambitie, sociale vaardigheden, competenties, persoonlijkheid en enkele externe factoren, zoals positieve werk-privémaatregelen. Interne 'drive' en ambitie bleken de belangrijkste factoren, door alle fasen heen.

Voor de studie die beschreven wordt in *Hoofdstuk 6*, is in 2006 een vragenlijst ingevuld door 247 alumni van Hotelschool Den Haag, een hotelmanagementopleiding in Nederland. De respondenten waren over de hele wereld werkzaam in de hospitality industrie. De dataset omvatte cross-sectionele data over psychologisch contract, inzetbaarheid en het voornemen om ontslag te nemen. De psychologisch contract variabelen waren flexibele maatregelen, baaninhoud, autonomie, ontwikkelingsmogelijkheden, een duidelijke taakomschrijving, salaris, interne doorstroommogelijkheden, baanzekerheid, prestatiebeloning en promotie mogelijkheden. De data zijn geanalyseerd met behulp van AMOS en SPSS. De studie levert een bijdrage aan de kennis over wat organisaties kunnen doen om de inzetbaarheid van werknemers te stimuleren, vooral omdat een van de belangrijkste uitdagingen in de huidige

arbeidsmarkt is om (hoogopgeleid) personeel aan te trekken en te behouden. De studie onderzoekt de relatie tussen het psychologisch contract en de individuele perceptie van de eigen inzetbaarheid (intenties met betrekking tot interne mobiliteit, ontwikkeling en de gepercipieerde arbeidsmarktmogelijkheden). De belangrijkste voorspellers voor inzetbaarheid bleken interne doorstroommogelijkheden, ontwikkelingsmogelijkheden en autonomie te zijn. Sekse en leeftijd bleken sommige van de relaties tussen psychologisch contract en inzetbaarheid te modereren.

Hoofdstuk 7 geeft de conclusies en de implicaties voor toekomstig onderzoek weer.

Beperkingen

Ten eerste zijn de studies in hoofdstuk 3, 4 en 6 *cross-sectioneel*; de resultaten kunnen daarom niet causaal geïnterpreteerd worden. Een tweede beperking is dat in de empirische studies gebruik is gemaakt van *zelf-rapportage*. Helaas kunnen spillover effecten alleen op deze manier worden gemeten. Verder zijn de cross-sectionele veldstudies uit de hoofdstukken 3, 4 en 6 gebaseerd op informatie die verkregen is uit een steekproef van 418 afgestudeerden aan twee Nederlandse business opleidingen. Alumni van beide scholen hebben veelal een internationale achtergrond en de meeste respondenten waren werkzaam in een internationale context. Strikt genomen, echter, is het niet mogelijk vast te stellen in hoeverre the resulaten werkelijk *generaliseerbaar* zijn naar andere populaties. Een andere beperking is de steekproefgrootte. Vanwege de *kleine steekproeven* konden we vrijwel geen modererende effecten meenemen in de SEM analyses of interactietermen gebruiken in de regressie analyses. Tot slot zijn in de analyses van de veldstudies geen *externe factoren* meegenomen en vrijwel geen factoren uit de *privésfeer*.

Aanbevelingen voor toekomstig onderzoek

Als we kijken naar de stand van zaken met betrekking tot de werk-privéconnectie, kunnen we 6 pijlers herkennen, alle onderling verbonden, waarop toekomstig onderzoek zou kunnen steunen.

Theorie: We hebben meer inzicht nodig op het gebied van de volgende punten: de vorming van werk-privéwaarden van verschillende generaties en het vormen van een ‘werk-privé-identiteit’; de integratie van verschillende waardensystemen, verbonden met de

verschillende rollen die individuen vervullen; wat is het dat “spills over”, van de werkomgeving naar de privé-omgeving, en andersom?; hoe precies werkt dit “spillover” proces, voor individuen en voor verschillende groepen mensen?; hoe worden beslissingen binnen verschillende huishoudens genomen, met betrekking tot de werksituatie?; wat is de relatie tussen (aspecten van) de ‘algemene’ organisatiecultuur en positieve en negatieve werk-privé-interactie?; wat houdt een positieve ‘werk-privécultuur’ precies in, en wat is de relatie met de ‘algemene’ organisatiecultuur? Met andere woorden: hoe worden verschillende waardensystemen geïntegreerd, binnen organisaties?; wat zijn de verschillen in psychologisch contract tussen verschillende typen werknemers (bijvoorbeeld met betrekking tot ontwikkelingsmogelijkheden, inzetbaarheid en werk-privémaatregelen), *buiten* de beide seksen en verschillende leeftijdsgroepen?; wat houdt een ‘succesvolle carrière’ in, in de werkende wereld van vandaag?

Multi-level: Veel onderzoekers roepen ertoe op om een multi-levelbenadering te gebruiken in het onderzoek naar de werk-privébalans. Zoals gezegd moeten de sociale en historische context worden meegenomen in onderzoek op organisatieniveau of op individueel niveau, waarbij die niveaus liefst ook beide opgenomen moeten worden in onderzoeken. Er is ook een vraag naar longitudinaal onderzoek op het gebied van werk-privébalans. Met betrekking tot negatieve en positieve werk-privé-interactie hebben we meer kennis nodig over veranderingen als gevolg van de implementatie van positieve interventies.

Waarden: We hebben meer inzicht nodig in waarden, op verschillende niveaus. In de eerste plaats dient ons inzicht in hoe de werk-privéwaarden van de verschillende generaties gevormd zijn en wat zij vandaag precies inhouden verdiept te worden. Verder is er op individueel niveau weinig bekend over hoe mensen hun waardensystemen die verbonden zijn met verschillende levensrollen met elkaar integreren. De ‘border’-theorie van Clark, of the ‘identity centrality’-benadering van Settles zouden hiervoor bruikbaar kunnen zijn. Tenslotte hebben we meer inzicht nodig in de waardensystemen op organisatieniveau, in de vorm van organisatiecultuur en de werk-privécultuur binnen organisaties. We moeten ook beter definiëren wat een positieve werk-privécultuur precies inhoudt voor verschillende groepen individuen. En wat is de relatie tussen de werk-privécultuur en de ‘algemene’ organisatiecultuur? Als we bijvoorbeeld weten dat mensen die het ‘wagen’ gebruik te maken

van flexibele maatregelen terechtkomen op een 'mummy track' als het gaat om hun carrièreperspectieven, kunnen we ons afvragen hoe geïntegreerd verschillende waardensystemen binnen organisaties zijn.

Diversiteit: De werkende wereld is diverser dan ooit en er moeten nog veel vragen met betrekking tot verschillende groepen werknemers beantwoord worden. Zo is er meer onderzoek nodig met betrekking tot de behoefte aan werk-privémaatregelen van verschillende generaties. Vragen die gesteld kunnen worden zijn bijvoorbeeld welke specifieke werk-privémaatregelen verschillende generaties verwachten van hun werkgever. Toekomstig onderzoek zou ook over de vraag kunnen gaan hoe generaties verschillen in hun *reacties* op pogingen van hun werkgever aan hun werk-privéwensen tegemoet te komen. Verder is er meer duidelijkheid nodig over hoe werkgevers het gevoel van inzetbaarheid bij vrouwen en, in mindere mate, bij jongere werknemers kan vergroten. Ook kunnen onderzoekers proberen de onderliggende mechanismen in de relatie tussen psychologisch contract en inzetbaarheid te verklaren, door meer modererende factoren te onderzoeken, zoals bijvoorbeeld leeftijd. Er zou meer diepgaand onderzoek uitgevoerd kunnen worden naar de behoeften voor wat betreft werk-privébalans van vrouwen en mannen die werkzaam zijn in de *hospitality industrie*, omdat de resultaten van onze studie laat zien dat flexibele maatregelen meer impact hebben op de perceptie van inzetbaarheid bij mannen dan bij vrouwen. We hebben meer inzicht nodig in de onderliggende mechanismen van dit fenomeen. In toekomstig onderzoek naar zowel werk-privébalans als inzetbaarheid dienen we ook andere vormen van diversiteit mee te nemen dan sekse en leeftijd. We kunnen bijvoorbeeld meer rekening houden met de groeiende diversiteit in demografie en structuren van huishoudens.

Positief: Van oudsher wordt veel nadruk gelegd op de problemen die mensen hebben in hun werk-privé-omgeving, de stress en de spanningen. Het is echter even belangrijk om te weten hoe positieve elementen versterkt kunnen worden. De recente aandacht voor positieve 'spillover'-processen, van werk naar privé en andersom, laat zien dat dit veel op kan leveren.

Individueel: Werknemers dienen meer op individuele basis beschouwd te worden als het gaat om carrière-ontwikkeling en -planning dan op basis van sekse of leeftijdsgroep. Er bestaan

veel individuele verschillen binnen groepen werknemers. Psychologische contracten zijn individueel en ontwikkelen zich door interactie tussen individuele werknemer en werkgever. Inzicht in deze processen is belangrijker geworden dan ooit.

Praktische implicaties

Werk-privébalans: Een belangrijke reden voor organisaties om te investeren in de werk-privébalans van hun werknemers is de bevinding dat werknemers die minder negatieve werk-privé-interactie ervaren en meer positieve interactie objectief gezien gezonder zijn, beter presteren en minder vaak afwezig zijn van het werk. Bovendien, als onze conclusie juist is en de werkende wereld te 'gulzig' is geworden ten koste van ons privé-leven, terwijl tegelijkertijd ons privéleven ook veeleisender is geworden, hangt het totstandbrengen van een duurzaam personeelsbestand af van de bereidheid en het vermogen van organisaties om aandacht te besteden aan de behoeften met betrekking tot werk-privébalans. Onze onderzoeksresultaten suggereren dat een organisatiecultuur positieve werk-privé-interactie kan genereren. Onze resultaten laten ook zien dat flexibele maatregelen gerelateerd zijn aan zowel positieve als negatieve werk-privé-interactie. Daarom is het voor organisaties belangrijk niet alleen te proberen de hoeveelheid negatieve interactie te verlagen, maar ook strategieën te ontwikkelen om positieve interactie te verhogen.

Hier moeten twee kanttekeningen bij geplaatst worden. Ten eerste, onderzoekers melden dat er maar weinig werknemers werkelijk *gebruik* maken van flexibele maatregelen. (HR) Managers moeten zich realiseren dat negatieve reacties van de werkomgeving het gebruik van flexibele maatregelen kan tegengaan. Een tweede punt is dat de *percepties* die werknemers van hun werkomstandigheden hebben zwaarder kunnen wegen dan de werkelijke belasting.

Inzetbaarheid: De resultaten van onze studies laten zien dat met name flexibele maatregelen, (op- of zijwaartse) mobiliteit, ontwikkelingsmogelijkheden en autonomie het gevoel van inzetbaarheid van werknemers positief beïnvloeden. Organisaties die groeimogelijkheden bieden, hoe kort of lang zij ook bij de organisatie blijven, zullen betere werknemers aantrekken. Verder bevelen we aan dat HR-maatregelen worden ontwikkeld voor verschillende groepen; mannen en vrouwen, en jongere en oudere werknemers hebben

blijkbaar verschillende behoeften. Maar we willen nogmaals benadrukken dat werknemers (ook) op individuele basis behandeld dienen te worden, ook als het gaat om inzetbaarheid.

Hoe maken we het werkbaar, vanaf morgen, in onze eigen organisatie?

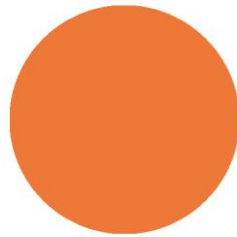
Breng de diversiteit in de organisatie in kaart, er rekening mee houdend dat er meer vormen van diversiteit zijn die belangrijk zijn voor werk-privébalans dan sekse en leeftijd, zoals culturele achtergrond, levensfase en dergelijke, en stel de werk-privébehoeften van verschillende groepen vast; kijk naar de psychologische contracten van individuen.

In hoeverre wordt voldaan aan de behoeften met betrekking tot inzetbaarheid en werk-privébalans, en in hoeverre reageren zij met positief gedrag, positieve percepties en intenties voor wat betreft hun inzetbaarheid?; ga na wat het niveau van ondersteuning, of de werk-privécultuur, is in de organisatie en de relatie met de 'algemene' organisatiecultuur zoals die wordt ervaren door de werknemers; breng de flexibele maatregelen in kaart. Meet het werkelijke *gebruik* van de maatregelen en de gewenste en ongewenste gevolgen van dat gebruik. Ga holistisch te werk; doe al het bovenstaande voor het beste resultaat.

Uiteindelijk zullen we dan, op basis van de beschikbaar gekomen informatie, in staat zijn goedgekozen interventies te plegen. We kunnen monitoren of het met de voorziene veranderingen (meer werk-privébalans, meer positieve en minder negatieve spillover, meer gevoel van inzetbaarheid) de gewenste kant opgaat. Waar nodig kunnen we de maatregelen aanpassen, opnieuw meten, etc., totdat het werkt, voor *deze* werknemers, in *deze* organisatie.

How can we make the work-home interface work?

This thesis contributes to the debate around the work-home interface. In one conceptual chapter, one qualitative and three quantitative empirical field studies, several concepts that seem important and are all, in different ways, connected to work-home balance, are investigated. Results from these studies indicate that the creation of a sustainable workforce in the working world of today, and in the hospitality industry in particular, is likely to depend largely upon the willingness and ability of organizations to focus on the needs of employees relating to work-home balance. This can be done by simultaneously focusing on the work-home values of employees, the psychological contract employees have with their employer, the work-home culture within the organization, and employees' needs with regard to employability.



“Organizations can make it work by addressing the issue of the work-home interface both holistically and individually.”

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