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Effect of Household Structure on Family-Friendly Benefit Utilization: Implications for Organizational Attraction and Workplace Withdrawal Behaviors of Federal Government Employees

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ABSTRACT

EFFECT OF HOUSEHOLD STRUCTURE ON FAMILY-FRIENDLY BENEFIT UTILIZATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR ORGANIZATIONAL ATTRACTION AND WORKPLACE WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIORS OF FEDERAL EMPLOYEES

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This study examined the effect of household structure on utilization of family-friendly benefits in organizations, as well as the impact that family-friendly benefit utilization has on organizational attraction and workplace withdrawal behaviors among Federal government employees with children. Results showed that alternative work arrangements (e.g., compressed and flexible schedules) were popular among all employees who have children. Family-friendly benefit utilization rates were highest among single parent employees and lowest among traditional family employees. Single parent employees were more likely to use flexible schedules, part-time, compressed schedules, telework, and sick and annual leave. Dual income employees were more likely to use flexible schedules, annual and sick leave, telework, and part-time work. Traditional family employees were more likely to use flexible schedules, annual and sick leave, compressed schedules, and telework. Employees utilizing flexible, part-time and job sharing schedules, telework, annual leave, the Federal child care centers and the Dependent Care Flexible Spending Account (DCFSA) showed higher levels of attraction toward the agency. Lower rates of absenteeism were found for employees who utilized compressed and flexible schedules, the Child Care Subsidy Program, and the DCFSA in lower rates of leave behaviors. Lower rates of absenteeism as measured in number of

hours of leave taken were found for employees who utilized job sharing. Employees using flexible schedules, job sharing, telework, annual leave, leave without pay, Federal child care centers, the Child Care Subsidy Program, and the DCFSA displayed higher rates of retention. Turnover intentions within an agency were lower for employees utilizing flexible schedules, telework, leave without pay, and Federal child care centers. Turnover intentions to another an agency were lower for employees that utilized flexible schedules, part-time, telework, sick leave, Federal child care centers, the Child Care Subsidy Program, and the DCFSA. Intentions to turnover and leave the Federal government altogether were lower for employees who utilized compressed schedules, flexible schedules, telework, annual leave, Federal child care centers, and the DCFSA. Results demonstrated differences in employees' use of family-friendly programs and that utilization of family-friendly policies is related to organizational attraction and workplace withdrawal behaviors.

There are three people whose presence in my life has impacted my personal growth, especially in the process of obtaining my Ph.D. They have inspired me to set high goals to challenge myself and given me the confidence necessary to achieve them.

"If you raise your children to feel that they can accomplish any goal or task they decide upon, you will have succeeded as a parent and you will have given your children the greatest of all blessings."

First, this doctoral dissertation is dedicated to my loving parents, Joseph and Barbara Aufenanger. Through many trials during the Ph.D. program process, they continuously encouraged me and supported the decisions I made. Thank you for instilling the value of education in our family, which was necessary for obtaining the Ph.D. Your unconditional love and continuous generosity was vital for completion of the program.

"The best and most beautiful things in the world cannot be seen, nor touched...but are felt in the heart." -Helen Keller

This dissertation is also dedicated to my best friend and the love of my life, Jermaine Slade. Your constant belief in my abilities gave me strength to continue when I doubted myself. Thank you for your caring nature and your encouragement, laughter, and love throughout the Ph.D. process, which gave me breaks when I desperately needed them and allowed me to focus on and achieve the ultimate goal. I am extremely grateful to have you in my life.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The changing nature of the workforce has given organizations reasons to examine ways of assisting employees in balancing work responsibilities with family responsibilities. In the last twenty years, the rise in dual-income families, single-parent households, and "sandwich" generation families (i.e., families with both child and adult dependents) has increased the complexity of managing both work and family lives (Sutton & Noe, 2005). Almost one decade ago, it was reported that about 85% of U.S. workers lived with family members and had immediate, daily family responsibilities off the job (Families and Work Institute, 1998a). More recently, reports have suggested that 90% of working adults indicate concern about not spending enough time with their family (Lockwood, 2003).

Workers with dependents tend to encounter frequent problems with dependent care, producing serious impacts on attracting and maintaining high performers (Schmidt & Duenas, 2002). In order to ease the burden and stress of balancing both work and family responsibilities, employers have become involved in the balancing process by creating a variety of family-friendly programs, or programs designed to alleviate conflict between work and family responsibilities. Some of these programs include flexible work arrangements, leave time allowances, and dependent care services (Sutton & Noe, 2005). Family-friendly programs allow the employee flexibility or assistance to manage family responsibilities while maintaining competitive performance at work.

This dissertation adheres to the format of the *Journal of Applied Psychology*.

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of benefit utilization on various behaviors of employees, including attraction, retention, turnover intention, and absenteeism. This research expands the traditional focus of examining family-friendly benefit utilization to consider benefit use by type of household structure (e.g., dual income families, single parent families). It contributes to the extensive work family literature by examining the differences in benefit utilization across a variety of household structures of Federal government employees and considers the outcomes (e.g., absenteeism, turnover) that result from differences in benefit utilization. Although the impact of work on family lives has been examined through various disciplines, including sociology, business management, and social psychology, this study will view work family constructs through the lens of Industrial and Organizational Psychology.

Although maintaining or improving performance is one reason employers implement family-friendly initiatives, many organizations also seek to reduce the high costs of recruitment, absenteeism, and turnover through these programs. Employees with care-giving responsibilities are more likely to arrive late, leave early, make dependent care related phone calls, and tend to dependent care tasks during work hours (Joice & Verive, 2006). Further, individuals may accommodate the demands of managing work and family by reducing work hours or leaving the workforce altogether (Chesley & Moen, 2006).

The balancing act many employees have of performing at work while tending to dependent care responsibilities has been found to negatively impact annual expenses in organizations (e.g., reduced productivity costs). Providing family-friendly supports help employees manage caregiving activities and reduce the stress and strain that arises when

work roles and family roles conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Through decreasing work-family conflict, employees should experience higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000). Also, decreases in work-family conflict should relate to decreases in absenteeism and turnover intentions (Allen et al., 2000). That is, individuals using the family-friendly supports offered in their organization should experience lower levels of work-family conflict and higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, leading these employees to remain at the organization. Thus, employers expect participation will reduce the high costs of attracting new employees by retaining current high performers, which will increase the likelihood that the programs will pay for themselves (Arthur & Cook, 2003).

For organizations interested in recognizing reduction in costs and more satisfied and committed employees, implementation of family-friendly programs is only the first step. Employees must *utilize* family-friendly policies and programs in order to realize the magnitude and significance of benefits. To date, many studies have focused on the availability, as opposed to the actual use of family-friendly programs. Some studies have shown the mere implementation of family-friendly programs may positively affect employees' attitudes or behaviors (Baughman, DiNardi, & Holtz-Eakin, 2003; Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Honeycutt & Rosen, 1997; Rau & Hyland, 2002; Rothausen, Gonzalez, Clarke, & O'Dell, 1998; Scandura & Lankau, 1997). However, others have shown that positive outcomes are more likely to be realized when the supports are actually being used by the employees (Hammer, Neal, Newssom, Brockwood, & Colton, 2005; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Milkovich & Gomez, 1976; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999).

It is important to decipher the individual differences that may affect benefit usage and the related outcomes (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Rau & Hyland, 2002). Individuals are likely to have different opinions on what benefits are most useful and best accommodate their lifestyle. One of the individual differences that may be most relevant today is household structure. For example, employees who come from dual income families may have different dependent care needs when compared to individuals who have a spouse who stays home with the children. Household structure should establish what family-friendly programs and policies are most relevant and valuable for managing the balance between work and family. Few studies (Rau & Hyland, 2002) have examined the individual differences that relate to family-friendly policies and programs and outcomes.

Determining individual differences and preferences for family-friendly benefits is particularly important in the Federal government. Government agencies must compete with higher-paying private sector organizations. One strategy used is to offer a wide variety of family-friendly benefits and a supportive climate for utilizing benefits. The Federal government is well-known for offering benefits in lieu of high or competitive salaries. In fact, the Federal government introduced many of the family-friendly initiatives that are popular and are currently used in the workplace, including flexible, compressed, and part-time work schedules, teleworking, and childcare assistance (Bruce & Reed, 1994). Thus, Federal government positions often attract individuals who are interested in utilizing benefits to balance work and family roles. Indeed, research has noted that public sector employees report working fewer hours and spending more time with their families (Buelens & Van den Broeck, 2007). Many public sector employees are

less motivated by money and are more motivated to lead a balanced life (Buelens & Van den Broeck, 2007). Moreover, government agencies are known to establish a more supportive culture towards utilizing benefits when compared to the private sector (Secret, 2000). The literature suggests that supportive cultures will make it more likely that organizations will realize the benefits of implementing family-friendly programs (Allen, 2001; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Thompson et al., 1999). Some organizational cultures assume the amount of time spent at work (face time) is a signal of an employee's dedication and contribution to the organization, which makes employees hesitant to take time off or utilize programs such as telework to help manage family responsibilities (Thompson et al., 1999). It seems especially pertinent for the Federal government and similar organizations (e.g., non-profit organizations) to examine which benefits are most important to attract and retain employees. Although the Federal government is a key place to empirically examine family-friendly benefits, almost all studies that have examined use of family-friendly benefits have utilized private sector organizations (Roberts, Gianakis, McCue, & Wang, 2004).

Determining the benefits that may attract and retain different types of individuals is especially relevant for the Federal government at this particular time due to the large number of employees scheduled to retire in the next twenty years. In 2002, Abbey and Boyd noted that 46% of government workers were 45 years or older. The number of government employees who will be retiring in the next decade is much larger than the private sector (i.e., only 31% of private sector employees are 45 or older). Attracting and retaining employees will be especially critical as agencies work to maintain performance. One strategy to recruit and retain employees is for the government to determine what

benefits are likely to attract employees from various types of family situations. Sims (1994) noted that human resource departments will need to offer more innovative employment options to be able to attract and retain younger employees. Offering desired flexible benefits would be one way to increase retention rates, as younger employees have noted the desire to live a more balanced life where there is little separation between work, life, and family (Jamrog, 2004).

In addition, it is important that the government is familiar with benefits that retain employees. Human resource departments need to help organizations retain high performing employees to meet pressures from competition and demands from customers (Sutton & Noe, 2005). It will be important for the Federal government to distinguish itself from other private sector organizations that also offer family-friendly benefits. In the late 1990's, several researchers (Brooks, 1999; Families and Work Institute, 1998b; Vincola, 1998) questioned the ability of the Federal government to maintain the competitive edge they had held over the private sector in meeting the needs of nontraditional employees and families. Since the introduction of family-friendly policies in the workplace, many private sector companies have met or exceeded the standards set by the Federal government when implementing similar family-friendly programs and creating supportive atmospheres for family-friendly programs in the workplace. The Federal government no longer has a clear advantage when offering family-friendly policies to attract job candidates.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine the differences in benefit utilization between different family structures, including traditional families, single parent families, and dual income families. Further, this study will explore the relationship

between the family-friendly benefits being used by individual employees as they relate to their household structure type.

Background: Family-Friendly Benefits

Over the last couple of decades workforce demographics have changed dramatically. One of the most widely noted changes involves women with children entering the workforce or remaining in the labor force after childbirth. In the past, "traditional families" were more common, when one parent (typically the male) worked as the income provider and the other (often the female) remained at home as caregiver and managed the responsibilities of household tasks and activities. The increase in women balancing work and child care responsibilities has led to the rise in dual income families with dependents, or those families in which both parents work (Greenhaus, 2003). Single parent families are also on the rise, as single mothers or fathers maintain both the responsibility of children on their own, alongside those responsibilities of work (Kantrowitz et al., 2001). With the rise of dual income and single parent families, there is greater likelihood that both types of parents are more stressed as they struggle to balance work roles with family roles (Sutton & Noe, 2005). As a result, individuals who come from dual income and single parent families are more likely to experience higher levels of work-family conflict.

Work-family conflict (WFC) is the interrole conflict that occurs when role pressures from work domains are mutually incompatible with role pressures from family domains (Allen et al., 2000). Further, the conflict that occurs between work and family can also occur when demands from family interfere with work responsibilities. This is referred to as family-work conflict (FWC; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). The

incidences of WFC and FWC and their potential negative consequences are well documented in current literature (Eby et al., 2005). Negative consequences of WFC include reduced levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and increased levels of absenteeism and turnover (Allen et al., 2000; Eby et al., 2005).

The notions of WFC and FWC derive from role conflict theory. Role conflict occurs when there is "an incompatibility of demands facing the focal person" (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991 p. 191). A number of sources may be blamed for this incompatibility, including conflicting expectations. For example, the focal person may believe their role in their job should be performed one way, whereas their supervisor may think it should be performed in another way. Expectations from supervisors, spouses, and oneself may also conflict with the time available to perform one's job responsibilities. A supervisor may expect an employee to work into the night or on the weekend. At the same time, a spouse may expect that parental duties will be performed in the evenings and on the weekends. These two divergent expectations create a time conflict for the two roles that the focal person inhabits. The increasing pressures from the two domains may result in greater absenteeism, WFC or FWC, and more job costs, among other outcomes (Lee & Phillips, 2006).

The conflicts between work and family responsibilities have prompted many organizations to implement programs or policies that assist employees in balancing and managing their family and work responsibilities (Allen, 2001). These policies are typically referred to as "family-friendly benefits" or "family supportive policies" and include services that assist employees with the management of daily family responsibilities (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). For this study, the terms benefits, policies,

programs, and supports will be used interchangeably. All will refer to family-friendly services that are used to help employees manage their dependent care responsibilities. Family-friendly services involve several types of policies or programs. In prior research, most family-friendly benefits have been classified into four major categories: (1) alternative work arrangements, (2) leave time allowances, (3) dependent care services, and (4) mental health and wellness programs (Bureau of National Affairs, 1986; Ferber & O'Farrell, 1991; Galinsky, Friedman, & Hernandez, 1991; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).

Alternative work arrangements

Alternative work arrangements (AWA) consist of organizational policies that allow the employee to modify daily start and stop times and/or locations of work. They do not fit the traditional fixed 8-hour day, 40-hour week work schedule with one office location. Benefits that are termed AWA include compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time work, job sharing, and telecommuting (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999; Secret, 2000).

Both compressed and flexible work schedules are also referred to as flextime programs. Flextime programs involve a core period during which the employee must be present (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990) and are considered one form of AWA. Employees are allowed to start work before core hours begin and leave work after core hours end. There is usually a limit to the earliest time an employee can start and the latest time an employee can finish (Baltes et al., 1999). Many of these programs are not costly to the organization and have shown many positive outcomes, including increased productivity and reduced absenteeism and tardiness. These benefits occur because employees can rearrange their work hours to accommodate responsibilities for dependents.

Compressed work schedules are fixed work schedules which enable employees to complete an 80-hour (two-week) pay period in less than 10 days. The most common form of compressed work schedules is four 10-hour days, though other compressed schedules have emerged, such as three 12-hour days (36-hour work weeks) or nine 9-hour days (40-hour work week) work periods (Baltes et al., 1999). Compressed schedules can either aid or hinder employees from spending more time with their families (Schmidt & Duenas, 2002), because these schedules allow employees to spend one more day a week at home; however these schedules also require the individual to leave earlier for or come home later from work. Research has shown that compressed work schedules are related to reductions in absenteeism, tardiness, and turnover (Olmsted, 1994).

Flexible work schedules include work schedules that allow employees to choose arrival and departure times within flexible time bands while maintaining agency-determined core hours. These AWAs have become increasingly popular. Specifically, organizations using flextime have increased from 24% in 1998 to 31% in 2005 (Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005). Flexible work schedules are also inexpensive and have been shown to increase productivity and reduce paid absences, tardiness, and turnover (Baltes et al., 1999; Schmidt & Duenas, 2002).

Part-time work includes those positions that are generally worked less than 35 hours a week (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2004). Working part-time is now considered a career position in many organizations which include promotion potential and fringe benefits (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Nearly 20% of all workers now work less than 35 hours per week (Blank, 1998). Part-time work schedules have been related to higher levels of productivity and lower levels of absenteeism, tardiness, and turnover

(Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002; Bureau of National Affairs, 1986; Nollen, 1980). Job sharing involves those situations when two people share the responsibilities and benefits of a single full-time job. These positions allow organizations to be staffed continuously while providing access to the resources of two workers (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).

Telework describes employees working outside of the physical location of the office and is also sometimes referred to as telecommuting or working-from-home. Over the past 15 years, the number of teleworkers has doubled to about 23 million on a part-time or full time basis (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2004). Teleworking has been shown to reduce recruitment costs, turnover, absenteeism, and to improve retention and productivity (International Telework Association & Council, 2001; Schmidt & Duenas, 2002). Organizations utilizing telework are able to recruit employees from a larger geographically dispersed labor pool. Additionally, telework allows some work to be done more efficiently, as work can be completed at odd hours or with less distraction than in an office setting (Schmidt & Duenas, 2002).

Leave time allowances

Leave time allowances (LTA) are those policies that permit employees to informally or formally take a few hours or a few days off, with or without pay (Secret, 2000). Examples of LTA include annual leave or paid time off, sick leave, and leave without pay. Annual leave is paid absence from duty to give the employee vacation periods for rest and relaxation and provide time away from work for personal business or family needs. Sick leave is a paid absence from duty granted to an employee when: (1) receiving medical, dental, or optical examination or treatment; (2) the employee is

incapacitated by physical or mental illness, injury, pregnancy, or childbirth; (3) the employee would, because of communicable disease, jeopardize the health of others by their presence on the job; or (4) the employee must be absent from work for adoption-related activities (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2001). Organizations that have flexible sick leave policies allow individuals to use their own allotted sick leave to care for sick family members (Baughman et al., 2003). Leave without pay allows employees to take a temporary absence without pay, but continue to receive agency benefits (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2001). The time off must be approved by a supervisor and cannot be taken for more than 12 months at a time.

Dependent care services

Dependent care services (DCS) are those programs that specifically assist employees with their dependent care needs and include child care centers, vouchers to subsidize dependent care costs, pretax credit accounts for dependent care expenses, and information and referral services for dependent care facilities and resources (Secret, 2000). The Federal Child Care Centers are offered by some Federal agencies, and refer to center-based group care for children, often at the worksite, which is sponsored by a Federal agency employer (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2006). Company sponsored day care programs have been associated with more successful recruitment and retention, increased levels of productivity, and reduced absenteeism and turnover intentions (Chambers, 1992; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Although many corporate-sponsored child care centers are partially or completely funded by the employer, Federal Child Care Centers charge the standard going rate for child care services.

The Child Care Subsidy Program allows agencies to use appropriated and revolving funds to subsidize licensed child care for lower-income Federal employees (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2006). This program is offered at the discretion of each Federal agency and individual agencies set the rules for participation. Eligibility for this program depends on family income (income threshold ranges from less than $39,000 to $69,000 depending on the Federal agency), child age (13 or younger or under age 18 if disabled), and licensure status of the child care center.

The Dependent Care Flexible Spending Account (DCFSA) refers to a tax savings account available to most Federal employees (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2006). It allows Federal employees to set aside pre-tax salary to pay for eligible dependent care expenses. Pretax credit accounts have become a more affordable method for assisting parents, as about 45% of employers are providing dependent care assistance plans to help employees pay for child care with pretax dollars (Bond et al., 2005).

Mental health and wellness programs

Mental health and wellness programs are implemented to help employees understand and better cope with stress, family-related issues, and include Employee Assistance Programs (Secret, 2000). Although these programs are important for assisting employees in coping with family needs, this study will not examine mental health and wellness program usage. Mental health and wellness programs assist employees in *coping* with dependent care issues, but do not directly give individuals the resources that help balance their responsibilities (Secret, 2000). For example, many mental health and wellness programs provide counseling services and stress management workshops. This

study focuses instead on the actual supports that aid employees in the balancing process, such as child care services or flexible sick leave.

Many studies that have focused on the relationships between family-friendly benefits and various outcomes have concentrated on AWA, such as flextime and compressed schedules (Baltes et al., 1999; Joice & Verive, 2006; Narayanan & Nath, 1982; Pierce, Newstrom, Dunham, & Barber, 1989; Rau & Hyland, 2002; Scandura & Lankau, 1997). Fewer studies have placed attention on DCS (Baughman et al., 2003; Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Milkovich & Gomez, 1976; Rothausen et al., 1998; Youngblood & Chambers-Cook, 1984). Some research has addressed a combination of benefits from each of the former benefit type groups (Allen, 2001; Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Hammer et al., 2005; Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). LTA are rarely mentioned in these studies (Baughman et al., 2003). Only a few studies (Grover & Crooker, 1995; Secret, 2000; Thompson et al., 1999) have analyzed three or more types of supports at the same time. Thus, most studies have examined one or two specific benefits at a time instead of looking at the wide realm of family-friendly benefits utilized. This study will explore the implications of utilizing three types of family-friendly benefits (i.e., AWA, LTA, and DCS) on behavioral outcomes.

Relationships between Family-friendly Benefits and Outcomes

Over the years, researchers have studied various attitudinal, affective, and behavioral outcomes associated with implementation of family supportive benefits. Organizations tend to implement these programs in order to achieve financial gains or savings through increased levels of employee performance and reduced costs of

absenteeism, recruitment, and turnover of employees (Glass & Fujimoto, 1995; Sutton & Noe, 2005). The relationships between family-friendly programs and employee behaviors have been studied less frequently. Instead, many studies have focused on general attitudinal or affective effects of these programs. Findings from these studies are inconsistent.

Numerous studies have examined the effect of family-friendly benefits on WFC. Studies have reported an expected decrease in WFC with an increase in benefit access or use (Allen, 2001; Christensen & Staines, 1990; Hammer, Allen, & Grigsby, 1997; Messmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2006; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). Others have found no significant relationship between supports and WFC or FWC (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Goff et al., 1990; Hammer et al., 2005), and still other studies have found positive correlations between use of family-friendly supports and WFC or FWC (Hammer et al., 2005).

Relationships between other family-friendly supports and attitudinal or affective variables have been demonstrated in the literature. For example, research shows a positive relationship between family-friendly benefits and organizational commitment (Allen, 2001; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Thompson et al., 1999). However, Christensen and Staines (1990) failed to show a relationship between flextime and organizational commitment. Also, the research support for the hypothesized relationship between family-friendly supports and job satisfaction has been inconsistent, as several studies have reported a positive relationship (Allen, 2001; Baltes et al., 1999; Evans, 1973; Hammer et al., 2005; Scandura & Lankau, 1997) and results of other studies have found no relationship between family-friendly supports and job satisfaction (Hicks

& Klimoski, 1981; Lee & Johnson, 1991; McGinnis & Morrow, 1990; Narayanan & Nath, 1982). Additional attitudinal relationships that have been studied include work schedule satisfaction (Baltes et al., 1999), attitudes towards managing work and family (Kossek & Nichol, 1992), control perceptions (Thomas & Ganster, 1995), flexibility (Narayanan & Nath, 1982), workgroup relations (Narayanan & Nath, 1982), organizational citizenship behaviors (Lambert, 2000), and anticipated organizational support (Casper & Buffardi, 2004).

Comparatively few studies have focused on the differences in behavioral variables or the intent to engage in specific behaviors, such as attraction, turnover intention, productivity, and absenteeism (Allen, 2001; Baltes et al., 1999; Bretz & Judge, 1994; Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Honeycutt & Rosen, 1997; Goff et al., 1990; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Joice & Verive, 2006; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Milkovich & Gomez, 1976; Narayanan & Nath, 1982; Parker & Kulik, 1995; Rau & Hyland, 2002; Rothausen et al., 1998; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Youngblood & Chambers-Cook, 1984). This study will address the effect that family-friendly benefits have on employees' organizational attraction and withdrawal behaviors or intentions.

The widespread interest in the relationship between family supportive benefits and various attitudes and affect is understandable. As noted previously, employers implement these programs in response to the increased demands placed on parents in maintaining a career in addition to caring for household responsibilities. That is, employers note the conflict that may exist in balancing work and family roles and want to provide assistance in managing that conflict. However, organizations expect that positive affect or attitudinal outcomes will be converted into "bottom line" results, such as

attracting new employees, retaining high performing employees, and increasing employee productivity (Secret, 2000; Sutton & Noe, 2005). Therefore, managers recognize that the relationship between family-friendly practices, attitudinal or affective, and behavioral variables may be an indirect one. The majority of the literature that explores the effects of benefits on attitudinal variables suggests employees in organizations with family-friendly policies will display reduced levels of work family conflict and increased levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Later, these outcomes should in turn lead to increased employee performance and attraction to the organization, decreased their rates of absenteeism, and increased organizational tenure (Goff et al., 1990; Higgins, Duxbury, & Irving, 1992).

However, studies that have examined attitudinal or affective variables have not simultaneously examined the influence that general attitudes have on behavioral variables or variables that imply direct intent to engage in specific behaviors. That is, most studies solely analyze the relationship between work family programs or policies and general attitudes, such as work family conflict (Goff et al., 1990; Hammer et al., 2005; Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999), job satisfaction (Baltes et al., 1999; Hammer et al., 2005), or organizational commitment (Grover & Crooker, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). Many scholars use past research to support a theoretical relationship between attitudinal and behavioral variables rather than testing the relationship directly in the same research. For example, researchers in the work life arena have conducted studies that show family-friendly programs display a positive relationship with organizational commitment. Past research (Aranya, Kushnir, & Valency, 1986) has revealed a negative relationship between organizational

commitment and turnover intention. Researchers studying work life balance have taken this past research and inferred the positive relationship between family-friendly programs and organizational commitment suggests that family-friendly programs will also reduce intentions of turnover through the increased levels of organizational commitment. Thus, the relationship between family-friendly supports and turnover intention is generally established through aggregating results of separate studies. Therefore, most studies that explore the relationships between family-friendly benefits and attitudinal or affective variables have not fully examined proposed indirect relationships (i.e., family-friendly benefits leading to attitudes which result in behaviors) as reason to implement family-friendly programs.

Although research is inconsistent, in general it supports the indirect relationship between benefit utilization, attitudes, affect, and behaviors (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Collins, 2001; Kelloway, Goyylieb, & Barham, 1999; Thompson et al., 1999). It is also important to examine the *direct* impact of family-friendly supports on attracting and retaining employees, and reducing employee turnover and absenteeism (Sutton & Noe, 2005). Direct effects are those related effects that are not mediated by any other variable, whereas indirect effects occur when another variable intervenes in the relationship between two variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). If a direct relationship between family-friendly programs and improved performance levels (through decreases in turnover and absenteeism levels and increased retention) is displayed, reduction in costs of turnover and absenteeism would occur. That is, utilization of family-friendly benefits will help lower turnover intent and rates of absenteeism. By being in the office more often and not having an intention to leave, performance levels should be maintained

or improved. Further, the financial costs to the organization that coincide with employees being absent or leaving would be reduced with lower rates of absenteeism and turnover. Economic gains would be expected, providing rationale for approving implementation of these expensive programs. Most organizations would not employ family-friendly supports if there were no evidence that the benefits outweighed the costs. For example, researchers (Goff et al., 1990) have noted that many companies' interest in child care programs waned in the 1970s due to lack of evidence that benefits outweighed the costs, and absenteeism and turnover were not shown to have significantly decreased.

Organizations implementing family-friendly benefits expect to realize financial savings from behavioral changes in employees. Specifically, employers expect that by offering friendly-family benefits, individuals may be more attracted to the organization, which provides better quality candidates for employment (Glass & Finley, 2002). Further, job incumbents are less likely to take time off (e.g., annual leave or sick leave) or permanently leave the organization if they are given flexible options to deal with their dependent care responsibilities and are not forced to compromise their work situation (Baughman et al., 2003). Employees who utilize family-friendly supports will find it more difficult to leave a family-friendly organization for a less supportive organization, particularly when the individual is aware they will have to discontinue family supportive benefits and determine new ways to balance work and family responsibilities (Grover & Crooker, 1995). Since remaining at the current organization is a more desirable option, the organization should experience higher levels of retention and reductions in turnover.

These outcomes should lead to lower costs of recruitment and retention and assist the organization in maintaining a competitive advantage within its industry. Eventually,

organizations expect the gains from applying work family practices and policies to the workplace will outweigh the cost of the programs.

Relationships between family-friendly benefits and performance

One of the primary reasons that organizations implement family-friendly benefits is to increase employee productivity or performance levels. Job performance has been defined as "the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time" (Motowidlo, 2003). Employees who are less concerned with dependent care needs while at the office will be more able to concentrate and not worry about distractions (Kossek & Nichol, 1992). Additionally, utilizing AWA may allow employees to take advantage of circadian rhythms, or schedule work arrival times for when peak performance periods occur. Aligning circadian rhythms with work hours should result in higher levels of performance (Pierce et al., 1989; Scandura & Lankau, 1997). Moreover, if through benefits employers attract highly qualified candidates and select from a larger applicant pool (as the recruitment literature suggests), then the newly hired employees should be of higher quality, increasing productivity levels (Baughman et al., 2003).

A few studies have shown that performance or productivity has increased alongside the offering of family-friendly supports. Baltes and colleagues (1999) performed a meta-analysis involving flexible and compressed work schedules. The results showed that flexible work schedules favorably influenced productivity but not self-reported performance. Compressed work schedules did not affect productivity, but positively influenced supervisor performance ratings. Flextime has been found to increase productivity levels in the past (Pierce et al., 1989). Also, Joice and Verive (2006)

found that a majority (60%) of employees believed that teleworking helped improve performance. However, in some studies the hypothesized relationship between family-friendly benefits and productivity or performance was not supported (Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Milkovich & Gomez, 1976; Narayanan & Nath, 1982).

Relationships between family-friendly benefits and organizational attraction

An expected employer advantage of implementing family-friendly benefits is the increased level of attraction and intention to pursue certain jobs by top candidates (Rynes, 1991). In times of labor shortages or low employment levels and high rates of retirement, it is important to be able to compete with other organizations by various means. In an early study, Galinsky, Bond, and Friedman (1993) showed that new employees rated the effect of the job on family life second behind open communications as the two most important considerations when making decisions about accepting job offers. Further, it has been suggested that salary may not influence attraction above an "adequate pay" threshold (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Honeycutt & Rosen, 1997), thus organizations must be able to offer something other than financial compensation to attract employees. In fact, many individuals decide to apply for jobs based on *both* financial compensation and benefit packages offered (Baughman et al., 2003).

It has been shown that providing family-friendly resources increases perceptions of organizational support by both applicants who plan to use family-friendly benefits and those applicants who do not plan to use in them. Perceptions of organizational support have been shown to influence pursuit of employment intentions (Allen, 2001; Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Grover & Crooker, 1995). In addition, job applicants who desire family-friendly policies and programs are more likely to be attracted to organizations offering

family-friendly options (Bretz & Judge, 1994). Moreover, individuals who cannot or do not want to work a traditional schedule may be attracted to organizations that support flexible work scheduling (Olmsted & Smith, 1989). By attracting a wide variety of individuals who are interested in working for a supportive organization (both those who need flexible scheduling as well as those who do not need family-friendly benefits), the applicant pool should become larger for family-friendly organizations (Arthur & Cook, 2003).

Whether all potential employees, regardless of need, would be attracted to organizations offering family-friendly benefits is a matter of some debate. Honeycutt and Rosen (1997) examined the effects of family-friendly career paths among MBAs. They hypothesized that individuals concerned with balancing family and work would be more attracted to organizations that offer flexible career paths. Findings indicated that all participants, whether they identified with the need to balance family and work or not, were more attracted to organizations with flexible career paths. Such results support the notion that all employees, regardless of family situation, are attracted to organizations that offer flexible work options. Casper and Buffardi (2004) found that the effects of both schedule flexibility and dependent care assistance on job pursuit intentions was fully mediated by anticipated organizational support. Thus, anticipated organizational support may explain why individuals who do not plan to utilize benefits are still more likely to pursue employment at organizations that offer them.

However, Rothausen and colleagues (1998) offer alternative findings in a study that indicated family-friendly benefits may only appeal to those individuals who are interested in using them. Employees with current or future child care needs were more

likely to believe that child care centers would facilitate recruiting efforts, whereas employees without child care needs did not believe child care centers would assist in attracting potential employees (Rothausen et al., 1998). Also, it should be noted that results from one study (Bretz & Judge, 1994) did not support the relationship between attraction and family-friendly benefits, as individuals with higher levels of WFC (those more likely to desire family-friendly policies) did not view organizations with work family policies as more appealing. Since many studies have focused on the effect of family-friendly benefit availability on attraction, this study is interested in the effect of expected family-friendly benefit utilization on attraction. Following the notion that the majority of findings have indicated organizations offering family-friendly benefits appear more attractive than other organizations, employee benefit use should result in increased organizational attraction levels as compared to those employees who do not utilize family-friendly benefits.

Hypothesis 1a: Among employees with child dependents, individuals who utilize AWA (i.e., compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework) will show higher reported attraction to their agency as compared to individuals who do not utilize AWA.

Hypothesis 1b: Among employees with child dependents, individuals who utilize LTA (i.e., annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay) will show higher reported attraction to their agency as compared to individuals who do not utilize LTA.

Hypothesis 1c: Among employees with child dependents, individuals who utilize DCS (i.e., Federal child care centers, Child Care Subsidy Program, DCFSA) will

show higher reported attraction to their agency as compared to individuals who do not utilize DCS.

Research has found individual differences in organizational attraction when family-friendly benefits are available. Rau and Hyland (2002) examined the moderating effect of WFC on telecommuting and utilizing flextime and its relationship with employee attraction to an organization. Findings showed that individuals with higher levels of WFC were more attracted to organizations that offered flextime, whereas individuals with lower levels of WFC were more attracted to organizations that offered telecommuting. The findings also provide support for the notion that individual differences influence the attractiveness of family-friendly benefits. It is important to understand what individual differences and types of family supports influence the perceived attractiveness of an organization. For example, individuals with children are more likely to be attracted to an organization that offers family-friendly benefits even though many family-friendly benefits (e.g., compressed and flexible work schedules) are useful for all types of employees (Scandura & Lankau, 1997). Also, women tend to be more attracted to organizations offering family-friendly benefit utilization as compared to men (Scandura & Lankau, 1997). If some benefits appeal to specific types of individuals, organizations should be interested in determining the benefits that are most important for their current and potential employees (for their own organization's attraction purposes; Casper & Buffardi, 2004). That is, if benefits only attract certain types of job incumbents and these individuals are not those that the organization wants or needs, the organization should be interested in implementing those benefits that will attract the desired potential

employees. Organizations may be attracting employees to their company through available benefits, but may not be enhancing their recruitment pool if these are not the right "type" of employee. Individual differences that may be of interest to employers will be examined later in this study.

Relationships between family-friendly benefits and workplace withdrawal behaviors

The most basic determinant of performance is the presence of the employee (Schmitt, Cortina, Ingerick, & Wiechmann, 2003). Whether the employee comes to and remains at work, as well as arrives and leaves on time, has a great impact on the completion of tasks. Thus, performance is affected by absenteeism, turnover, and tardiness, which are also known as work withdrawal constructs (Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). Workplace withdrawal refers to the behaviors that dissatisfied employees use to minimize the time spent on specific work tasks while maintaining their current organizational and work-role memberships (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990). Work withdrawal behaviors vary and include absenteeism, taking long breaks, use of drugs or alcohol on the job, leaving work early, and arriving at work late (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985). For this study, we will focus on three main types of workplace withdrawal behaviors: absenteeism (including both hours of absence and leave behaviors), retention, and turnover intention.

Relationship between family-friendly benefits and absenteeism

Absenteeism is extremely costly to organizations (Goff et al., 1990). However, employee absenteeism is expected to be reduced as the amount of discretionary time increases for employees (Pierce et al., 1989). A recent study on workplace absenteeism

noted that 21% of employees who use sick leave are not sick, rather, they are taking time off to care for dependents (Keller, 2000). If employers provide flexible work arrangements for their employees, many workers may be better able to manage work and family, and use less sick or personal leave time (Baughman et al., 2003). Employees who use flextime schedules may be able to adjust their start or stop times to respond to family responsibilities. Moreover, compressed work schedules should enable employees to take care of family responsibilities on their "day off". Abuse of sick time should be reduced or negated when AWA are available, as employees can arrange doctor's appointments for off work hours or they can alter attendance times (Ronen, 1981).

Baltes and colleagues (1999) performed a meta-analysis which included over 30 studies involving flexible and compressed work schedules. The results indicated flexible work schedules were related to decreased absenteeism rates, but compressed work schedules did not significantly affect absenteeism. Another study (Narayanan & Nath, 1982) also demonstrated the positive effects of flexible work schedules on absenteeism. Studies also show a positive relationship between enrollment in day care and employee absenteeism (Milkovich & Gomez, 1976; Youngblood & Chambers-Cook, 1984). Milkovich and Gomez (1976) showed that individuals with children enrolled in an on-site child care center displayed significantly lower rates of absenteeism when compared to non-participants. Further, rates of absenteeism for non-participants exhibited greater variability, as individuals with children in child care showed absenteeism rates ranging between 4.0 to 5.8 days per month and employees who did not have children in child care displayed absenteeism rates ranging from 5.1 to 8.5 days per month. Results from the Milkovich and Gomez (1976) study suggests employees who use child care centers are

absent fewer days when compared to employees who do use child care centers. Further, employees who use child care centers show a smaller variance in days absent than individuals who do not use child care centers.

Results for benefit usage and absenteeism are inconsistent. Goff and colleagues (1990) did not find differences in absenteeism before and after implementation of an on-site child care program. Kossek and Nichol (1992) found that absenteeism for on-site child care center benefit users was higher than absenteeism in non-users. Also, Thomas and Ganster (1995) did not find differences in absenteeism between individuals using flexible schedules or dependent care services and employees who did not utilize these policies. Thomas and Ganster (1995) suggested the results may be due to the nature of nursing schedules, which was the sampled occupation. Findings may reflect that nurses have many opportunities to take time off without taking sick or personal days. Because the majority of the literature has suggested family-friendly benefits help reduce rates of absenteeism, and this study will collect information about a variety of occupations and benefits (as opposed to former study), it is expected that rates of absenteeism should be lower in those individuals with dependents who utilize family-friendly supports as compared to employees with child dependents who do not utilize benefits.

> *Hypothesis 2a*: Among employees with child dependents, those who use AWA (i.e., compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework) will display lower mean rates of absenteeism as compared to individuals who do not utilize these supports.

Hypothesis 2b: Among employees with child dependents, those who use LTA (i.e., annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay) will display lower mean rates of absenteeism as compared to individuals who do not utilize these supports.

Hypothesis 2c: Among employees with child dependents, those who use DCS (i.e., Federal child care centers, Child Care Subsidy Program, DCFSA) will display lower mean rates of absenteeism as compared to individuals who do not utilize these supports.

Relationships between family-friendly benefits and retention or turnover intention

Retention within the organization and intention to turnover are both important outcomes that should be considered when offering family supportive benefits. Retention relates to the period of time an employee works for an organization, whereas turnover or turnover intent involves the employee's intention to leave the organization. High levels of retention should lead to lower levels of turnover. Turnover has a direct link to an organization's bottom line, as turnover is expensive. It has been suggested that the cost of employee turnover is about 1.5 times the annual salary of the employee leaving (Phillips, 1990). The expense of turnover includes the cost of recruiting another employee to fill the position, as well as the lost productivity as the employee is leaving and when the position is vacant.

Offering family-friendly benefits should help reduce turnover intent. First, family-friendly benefits that include flexible work scheduling or leave arrangements such as part-time work and leave without pay could decrease turnover if employees are given an opportunity to take time away to care for a dependent (Baughman et al., 2003).

Employees who are allowed time off to care for dependents will not have to choose between continuing to work and leaving employment altogether. Also, if family-friendly benefits meet the employees' needs and contribute to employee satisfaction, job incumbents would be more likely to stay with the organization (Baughman et al., 2003). Additionally, family responsive policies may symbolize corporate concern for employees, which will likely influence individuals' commitment to the organization. Employees will perceive concern from the organization, which in turn may elicit a sense of loyalty to the organization (Thompson et al., 1999). Further, continuance commitment, when an individual stays in an organization due to sunk cost investments (Allen & Meyer, 1990), may encourage employers to stay longer if they anticipate using benefits in the future. That is, employees who have not yet utilized benefits, but plan to utilize benefits in the future, will stay with the organization just to have the option of taking advantage of family-friendly benefits at some point (Grover & Crooker, 1995).

Researchers have noted that one of the most frequently cited benefits of on-site child care centers is retention (Friedman, 1989; Miller, 1984). Kossek and Nichol (1992) also found that use of an on-site child care center had an impact on retention. Specifically, employees who utilized child care centers for child care arrangements had higher levels of tenure. Although little research has explored the effects of other family-friendly benefit use on retention, it can be expected that employees who utilize family supportive benefits for a longer period of time will not want to move to an organization that does not provide similar benefits. Following the findings for retention and use of child care centers, it is likely that retention of employees will increase as family-friendly benefits are used.

Hypothesis 3a: Among individuals with child dependents, those who utilize AWA (i.e., compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework) will display higher mean retention rates when compared to individuals who do not use AWA.

Hypothesis 3b: Among individuals with child dependents, those who utilize LTA (i.e., annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay) will display higher mean retention rates when compared to individuals who do not use LTA.

Hypothesis 3c: Among individuals with child dependents, those who utilize DCS (i.e., Federal child care centers, Child Care Subsidy Program, DCFSA) will display higher mean retention rates when compared to individuals who do not use DCS.

Alongside retention effects, several studies (Allen, 2001; Baughman et al., 2003; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999) have shown that turnover intention or actual turnover is reduced when family-friendly benefits are available in an organization. This study focuses on employees' intent to turnover rather than actual turnover. The theory of planned behaviors suggests that the likelihood of engaging in specific behaviors can be explained by the information processing that precedes the behavior, noting that intentions are valid predictors of actual behavior (Ajzen, 1987; 1991). Although turnover intention is not perfectly correlated ($r = 1.0$) with actual turnover, it is noted to be a much better predictor of actual turnover than affective variables (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment) and it has received strong support over the years (Greenwald, Carnot, Beach, & Young, 1987; Steel & Ovalle, 1984). However, the

strength of the relationship has varied across studies, ranging from 28% to 75% (Steel, Shane, & Griffeth, 1990). The focus of this study is on the turnover that results from the challenge of managing both work and home responsibilities. Since actual measures of turnover were not available, an employee's intention to turnover due to dependent care needs will be measured.

Grover and Crooker (1995) examined the relationship between four specific family-friendly benefits and organizational attachment. Similar to recruitment, findings suggest benefit availability demonstrated a sense of concern from the organization to employees and their family needs. Further, the study showed that parental leave, flextime, financial assistance with child care, and child care information and referral predicted turnover intention. These results were found for all employees, as opposed to only employees who utilize benefits, supporting a universal appeal for benefit availability. Milkovich and Gomez (1976) found similar results, reporting that employees' use of an on-site child care center was negatively related to turnover, as participants of the child care center displayed significantly lower rates of turnover when compared to non-participants.

Other benefits found to contribute to reducing turnover include flexible sick leave and child care referral services (Baughman et al., 2003). Research has also suggested that there is a negative relationship between turnover intention and the number of family-friendly benefits (including alternative work arrangements and dependent care services) offered when organization's culture is "family supportive" (Allen, 2001). Because the relationship between benefit availability and turnover intention has been well documented in the literature, this study will focus on the relationship between benefit

usage and turnover intention. Based on past research, it was hypothesized that employees utilizing family-friendly supports in order to manage their dependent care responsibilities should have lower levels of turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4a: Employees with child dependents utilizing AWA (i.e., compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework) will be less likely to display turnover intent when compared to individuals with child dependents who are not using AWA.

Hypothesis 4b: Employees with child dependents utilizing LTA (i.e., annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay) will be less likely to display turnover intent when compared to individuals with child dependents who are not using LTA.

Hypothesis 4c: Employees with child dependents utilizing DCS (i.e., Federal child care centers, Child Care Subsidy Program, and DCFSA) will be less likely to display turnover intent when compared to individuals with child dependents who are not using DCS.

Individual Differences in Utilization of Benefits

Determining what outcomes may result from utilizing family-friendly supports is important. But, it is also essential to ascertain the individual differences that may affect which benefits result in attraction and recruitment to the organization, retention within the organization, and reduced levels of absenteeism or turnover in the organization (Kossek, 1990; Sutton & Noe, 2005). Work family benefits that influence job applicants to accept a position with the organization may differ from those supports that encourage employees to stay with the organization (Kossek, 2005). Further, there are benefits that

are offered to employees that may not be instrumental in attracting and retaining employees. For example, flexible schedules may help employees avoid being late to work, but may not influence decisions about staying at a current position. Because flexible schedules are very popular (Wang & Walumbwa, 2007), many employees may expect that any organization they will work at will have this benefit. The information about individual differences in benefit utilization would be valuable for organizations that are implementing a new benefit program, may be looking to reduce the number of benefits offered due to budget cuts, or are interested in enhancing or expanding specific benefit options.

It is also important to distinguish what family-friendly benefits are attractive to certain groups of individuals (Kossek, 1990). Family-friendly benefits were introduced in organizations over 20 years ago. In the last two decades, women have been entering the workforce in greater numbers and family forms have changed (Smola & Sutton, 2002). Due to the demographic changes of individuals entering the workforce, as well as the changes in family structure over the last 20 years, there is no "typical employee". Presently, employees come from different types of family structures, including marriage or cohabitation with significant others and living with elder family members (e.g., mothers and fathers). Traditional families are known as families which consist of the working father and the caregiving mother (Yogev & Brett, 1985). Dual income families refer to those families in which both parental figures (including birth or adoptive parents, stepparents, and guardians) are employed and maintain family life (Hammer et al., 1997). Single parent households are defined as having "one adult living with children where the adult is the sole resource" (Moriarty & Wagner, 2004).

Family situations have become more diverse, indicating employees with different types of family situations may utilize different work family benefits. In 1998, 43% of married couples included two spouses employed full time (U.S Department of Labor, 1999). More recent statistics have suggested that dual income earners may now represent over 50% of the population and are now considered the typical American family (Barnett, 2001; Moen & Roehling, 2005). Additionally, about 24% of all households are married with children (Gardyn, 2001). Further, the number of families headed by single mothers has increased by 25% since 1990, as recent estimates suggest there are over 7.5 million single mothers and 2 million single fathers raising families (Kantrowitz et al., 2001).

The gap between the needs of the workforce and the family-friendly policies and programs may be widening (Barnett, 1999). There was little to no change in family-friendly benefits offered between 1992 and 1998 (Salzstein et al., 2001). It is likely that the family-friendly benefits that were important to implement twenty years ago are not as useful for the new household structures. Also, other benefits that are not often considered or implemented may be much more beneficial depending on the type of household structure of the employee. If the benefits offered are not the benefits needed or desired, they are less likely to result in the outcomes that organizations expect. Given that the nature of family structures has changed, it seems important to distinguish the benefits that work for different households now, especially as a result of the expense that organizations undertake to make family-friendly supports available.

Although there are many family types, three household structures will be examined in this study: traditional families, which include two parents, one who is the income earner and another who takes on caregiving responsibilities; dual income

families, in which both parents are living together and working outside the home; and single parent families, in which one parent is the sole income earner for the family and takes care of the dependents alone. Individuals in non-traditional households, such as single parent and dual income families, have greater difficulty balancing the roles from both work and family lives. Women struggle to continue the role of caretaker for homes, children, and elderly while maintaining a career (Higgins et al., 1992; Hochschild, 1989; Kelley & Voydanoff, 1985). Men in dual-earner households have begun to take on greater responsibilities at home, making their own work-life balance more difficult than in the past (Families and Work Institute, 1998a; Families and Work Institute, 2002; Ginsberg 1998).

Employees from each of the three types of household structure are likely to face different challenges when managing both work and family responsibilities. Consequently, the types of benefits that are useful to increase attraction and retention and decrease absenteeism and turnover are also likely to differ. The dual earner household with childcare responsibilities must manage the difficulty in coordinating two individuals' work and home lives, which include arranging for child care, dealing with childbirth absence from work, and caring for sick family members (Grover & Crooker, 1995). Two working parents may have less time to spend with family and may have to share childcare responsibilities or find an outside caregiver to manage childcare activities. However, in general, dual income families are likely to have a higher level of disposable income as compared to other households because they have access to two incomes (Barnett & Rivers, 1996). Due to two working parents and a higher total income, they are more likely to use a variety of family-friendly benefits to manage their dependent care

responsibilities. Although the literature has distinguished between the dual income couple (two incomes) and the dual career couple (two professional careers), this study will not differentiate between the two because the study focuses on balancing work and family, not career and family.

Single parents are faced with managing work and family demands alone. Without another parent or family member to help, the sole responsibility of both work and family demands lies within one individual. With only one income, single parent households are economically vulnerable and are five times more likely to be poor when compared to married couple families (Cancian & Reed, 2001; Kossek, 1990). Therefore, they are not likely to have the same financial resources as other employees. Further, it has been reported that the most common cause of absenteeism for single mothers is difficulties associated with child care (Holzer & Stoll, 2001). Single parents are more likely to experience problems with dependent care arrangements because they are less likely to be able to afford dependable child care and do not have a spouse or partner to assist with child care arrangements (Kossek, 1990; Kossek, DeMarr, Backman, & Kollar, 1993). Problems with child care may affect whether employees are present every day and the extent to which they remain on the job. In addition to utilizing financially resourceful benefits, single parents are also more likely to be interested in work arrangements that allow more flexibility to care for their children.

Traditional families tend to have more resources to deal with their work and family roles (Kossek, 1990). One individual is typically specified to be the income earner and is primarily concerned with the work role. The other individual is granted the position of caregiver, and is faced primarily with child care and domestic responsibilities.

Given that specific responsibilities are identified and accepted, there is likely to be less conflict between work and family demands for these couples and fewer problems associated with dependent care responsibilities (Barnett, 1999; Kossek et al., 1995). Although these families may have less overall income, many traditional families are able to afford this type of household structure. They may have fewer financial responsibilities as compared to single parent families. With less conflict between work and family and an income sufficient to cover expenses, employees from traditional families may be less likely to use family-friendly benefits when compared to non-traditional families (i.e., single parent and dual income families).

It seems likely that flexible work schedules would be one benefit that is utilized by all three groups. Flexible schedules are helpful for all employees, regardless of family situation, because flexible schedules allow the employee some flexibility to choose a time for work arrival and departure that allows an employee to better satisfy both family and work responsibilities. Utilizing a flexible work schedule will assist employees in rearranging work hours to accommodate child dependent responsibilities (Ralston, 1989; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990), such as dropping off and picking up children from day care or school, providing transportation and attendance to after school activities, and allowing the employee to be present for quality family time, all while maintaining attendance and performance at work. Golden (2001) found that married workers are significantly more likely to have flexible work schedules when compared to unmarried workers. With two parents working and the increased responsibilities of managing both work and family roles, it is expected that dual income earners will display the highest rates of using flexible work schedules.

Dual earner and single parent households may be faced with similar problems. They both need flexible work arrangements to cope with the combined job and family demands. Due to the high demands placed on these parents (Kossek, 1990), both groups are likely to use AWA, including telecommuting, and LTA, such as annual and sick leave to care for their children. Teleworking allows a parent to work while staying home with a sick child when other care is not available and may also allow flexibility to handle unexpected child care needs (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).

Dual income parents and traditional household employees may use similar strategies and benefits to balance family with work. In these household structures, there are two parents that can share the family responsibilities which may offer more resources to cope with these duties. Therefore, flexible work arrangements such as compressed work schedules are more likely to be used by these groups. Compressed work schedules require working more hours per day, which is not convenient for single parents who are expected to pick up their children by a specified time. This is especially true for parents with small children, as working longer days will rarely coincide with available day care options and already too-short workday evenings with family (Saltzstein et al., 2001). However, with two adults, one parent can work longer hours using compressed schedules while the other parent can ensure the child is picked up at the appropriate time.

Additionally, both dual income and traditional households should have a higher disposable income on average. Many traditional families may choose to have a single earner because one income is a stable and adequate resource for family living expenses. Dual earner families may be financially stable because they have dual incomes (Hanson & Ooms, 1991). Because both dual income and traditional families are likely to have

more disposable income, they are likely to use benefits such as the DCFSA. It is important to have extra money in order to use a tax savings account for child care needs. Single parent families are less likely to have a high disposable income, which may make single parents less likely to use the DCFSA.

Traditional families and single parent families also share similarities when dealing with issues that arise in managing work and family roles. With only one individual able to take advantage of the majority of family supportive benefits offered, several benefits are not likely to be utilized by these types of households, including part-time work schedules, leave without pay, and job sharing. With only one income, most traditional families cannot afford to have the sole income earner make less than a full salary. Part-time and job sharing schedules are for employees interested in working less than 35 hours a week. It is likely that the income for employees in traditional or single parent families needs to be from a full time position. Instead, it is plausible that dual income families are more likely to use these three AWA options, as researchers have suggested that mothers in dual income families are the employee most likely to use a part-time schedule (Saltzstein et al., 2001; Wharton & Blair-Loy, 2002).

Similarly, leave without pay is an option that is more likely to be used by households that can afford to take leave without being paid. One of the most commonly cited reasons for not taking leave without pay was being unable to afford it (Cantor et al., 2001). Thus, it seems that dual income families will be much more likely to use this benefit when compared to single parent and traditional households. In general, job sharing, part-time work, and leave without pay allow the employee to pursue a career and

utilize professional skills while spending sufficient time with family (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).

Finally, there are several family-friendly benefits that seem to be more useful for one household as compared to others. Despite the fact that both single parent and dual income families have a need for child care services, dual earner households should be more likely to use the Federal child care centers. Federal child care centers have been noted to be more expensive when compared to other child care centers. It is probable that most single parents will not be able to afford this type of child care. Also, traditional families are likely to have one parent staying home with the child as a caregiver, so outside child care is often not necessary. Single parent employees are most likely to participate in the Child Care Subsidy Program, as their lower income will meet the standards of qualifying for the subsidy. Many dual earner or traditional families are likely to earn more money than participation in the subsidy program allows.

Hypothesis 5a: Dual income employees with child dependents will display greater use of compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework, annual and sick leave, leave without pay, Federal child care centers, and the DCFSA when compared to dual income employees' use of the Child Care Subsidy Program.

Hypothesis 5b: When compared to employees from traditional and single parent families with child dependents, dual income earners with child dependents will show greater frequencies of using flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, leave without pay, and Federal child care centers.

Hypothesis 6a: Single parent employees with child dependents will demonstrate greater use of flexible work schedules, telework, annual and sick leave, and the Child Care Subsidy Program when compared to the single parent employees' use of compressed schedules, part time, job sharing, leave without pay, the Federal Child Care Centers, and the DCFSA.

Hypothesis 6b: When compared to employees from traditional and dual income families with child dependents, single parent employees with child dependents will show greater frequencies of participating in the Child Care Subsidy Program.

Hypothesis 7: Traditional family employees with child dependents will demonstrate greater use of compressed and flexible work schedules, and the DCFSA when compared to traditional family employees' use of part-time work, job sharing, and leave without pay.

It is important for employers to decipher what types of benefits are used by diverse subgroups because family-friendly benefits can result in higher levels of organizational attraction and lower levels of workplace withdrawal behaviors. If employers knew what benefits were used by certain individuals and what type of individuals they employ, organizations could tailor their benefit options to the demographics of their job incumbents. The role of human resource departments is to identify and implement family-friendly programs that will best address the needs of employees and assist individuals in balancing work and family lives (Sutton & Noe, 2005). Knowing this information will allow these departments to understand the needs of

their employees and be more likely to experience the advantages of implementing family-friendly programs and policies.

Researchers (Ryan & Kossek, 2003) have argued that, to date, the literature does not recognize the influence that different policies or programs may have at various points in one's career. That is, they suggest that certain benefits may be useful for attracting individuals to the organization, whereas other benefits may be successful for increasing retention, while still others may be more effective in reducing absenteeism. Because employees are likely to become parents in their early to mid-careers and be parents of older children in their late careers, Ryan and Kossek's (2003) argument may also relate to different stages in family life. Parents of younger children, parents of older children, and single employees may differ on which family-friendly benefits function as attraction and retention mechanisms.

The individual differences in various attitudes and behaviors may also be reflected in the employee's type of household structure. For example, the most common cause of absenteeism for single mothers is quality of child care (Holzer, 2005). Utilizing benefits that provide resources for quality child care (such as Federal child care centers and using the Child Care Subsidy Program to pay for quality child care) are likely to decrease rates of absenteeism for single parent families. There is limited research on how family-friendly benefits affect behavioral responses, and whether these processes are similar at each stage of one's career and life. Because of the limited research on how household structure may affect what benefits are utilized, the present study examined the benefits that each type of household structure uses, as well as determined the outcomes that results from using each benefit. That is, single parents may have high rates of

utilizing the Child Care Subsidy Program. Utilization of the Child Care Subsidy Program may result in increases of retention and reductions of turnover intention because the single parent does not want to lose the economic benefit of the program. However, the Child Care Subsidy Program may not result in attraction to the organization because information about the Child Care Subsidy Program is not available or discussed during the selection process, and potential employees are not aware of that particular support before starting work. Therefore, the overall results of the seven hypotheses should provide information on what benefits are most useful for each type of family structure, as well as presenting information on the various behaviors that should result in each group when utilizing the different family-friendly benefits.

This study is imperative at this particular time for all organizations, but especially for the Federal government. In the next couple of years, agencies will experience a labor shortage, as the baby boomer generation is on the verge of retiring and the gap between the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) that employers require and the KSAs possessed by the employees entering the workforce is widening (Jamrog, 2004). It is vital to attract and retain employees that are productive members of the organization. It has been suggested that one of the ways to do so is to tailor family-friendly programs to the needs of the organization.

Therefore, this study focuses on determining what family-friendly benefits are most useful and effective to employees from different household structures (e.g., traditional families, dual income earner families, and single parent families) and how the utilization of family-friendly benefits will result in organizational attraction and workplace withdrawal behaviors. By examining the individual family-friendly benefit

utilization patterns of three types of household structure, the study offers insight regarding anticipated outcomes, including attracting employees to the Federal government, retaining employees within the Federal government, decreasing absenteeism, and reducing intentions to leave the government, when certain household structures utilize particular benefits. By examining both the effect of household structure on family-friendly benefit utilization and the effect of benefit utilization on organizational attraction and workplace withdrawal behaviors, this study sheds light on what outcomes are anticipated when single parents, traditional family parents, and dual income parents utilize specific types of family-friendly benefits. See Figure 1 for a model summarizing the aforementioned direct and indirect relationships between the independent and dependent variables.

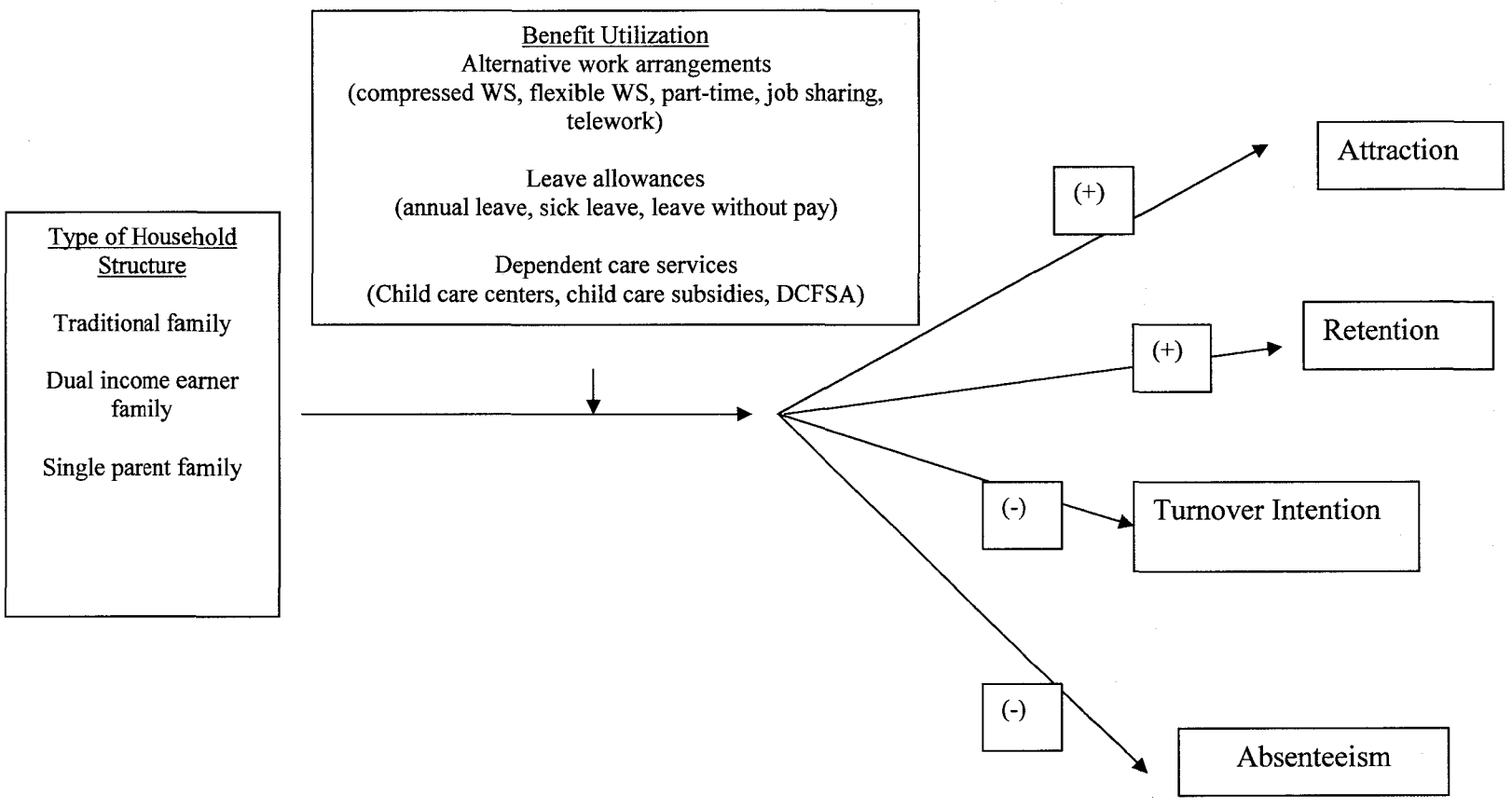

Figure 1. Hypothesized model of effect benefit utilization on outcomes based on household structure.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

This study draws upon data from a larger study on the dependent care needs of Federal government employees. The study on dependent care responsibilities of Federal workers was developed by the U.S. Office of Personnel Management to achieve several goals, including to understand the dependent care needs of current Federal employees and to examine how well available options are able to satisfy those needs.

Participants

Sample. The original sample was comprised of 17,521 permanent Federal government workers. About 64% of original respondents were female. Original participants represented all age groups as 2,127 were 30 years or younger, 3,904 were between the ages of 31 to 40, 5,691 were between the ages of 41 to 50, 4,818 were between 51 to 60 years old, and 961 were 60 years or older. Many of the original respondents were college graduates (n = 9,737) and were considered full time (n = 16,898).

Given that the current study only focused on employees with child dependents (children under the age of 18), participants without children (i.e., did not specify in the survey that they were mothers and fathers) were eliminated, resulting in 6,380 participants. Finally, for this study it was important to exclude any employees living with other adults besides a spouse. Excluding respondents with multiple adults in their household allows researchers to base conclusions specifically about the household

structures of interest and avoid overlapping conditions. The final deletion resulted in 3,813 respondents for the current study.

The majority of respondents in the final sample were female (54%) between the ages of 31 and 40 years old (41%). Two thousand, eight hundred and seventy-five participants were considered dual income employees, 199 individuals were identified as single parent employees, and 739 of the participants were from traditional households. For a more detailed background about the participants, including gender, age, and job category by benefit use and by household structure, please see Tables 1 and 2, respectively. Over 56% had worked in the Federal government for more than 10 years, while more than 64% were college educated. Average annual salary ranged from $59,001 to $65,000, while average total family income ranged from $99,001 to $110,000. To examine total family income by household structure, please see Table 3.

Table 1

Participant Demographics by Family-Friendly Benefit Use

		Non-Benefit Users	Benefit Users	Total
Gender	Male	292	1450	1742
	Female	225	1821	2046
Age	Under 31 years old	23	269	292
	31-40 years old	187	1354	1541
	41–50 years old	216	1304	1520
	51-60 years old	83	322	405
	Older than 60 years old	8	19	27
Job Category	Professional	181	1441	1622
	Administrative	108	680	788
	Technical	52	327	379
	Clerical	81	462	543
	Other White Collar	50	261	311
	Blue Collar	42	90	132

Table 2

Participant Demographics by Household Structure

		Single Parent Families	Traditional Families	Dual Income Families	Total
Gender	Male	38	565	1155	1758
	Female	161	174	1720	2055
Age	Under 31 years old	16	69	208	293
	31-40 years old	59	266	1224	1549
	41–50 years old	97	290	1144	1531
	51-60 years old	26	106	277	409
	Older than 60 years old	1	7	20	28
Job Category	Professional	43	357	1233	1633
	Administrative	57	125	610	792
	Technical	22	104	254	380
	Clerical	51	46	450	547
	Other White Collar	12	70	233	315
	Blue Collar	12	34	87	133

Table 3

Participant Family Income by Household Structure

	Single Parent Families	Traditional Families	Dual Income Families	Total
$40,000 or less	27	43	27	97
$41,000 to $69,000	102	242	301	645
$70,000 to $120,000	47	329	1386	1762
More than $120,000	18	105	1044	1167

Because the population of interest for the original data collection was the Federal civilian employees with child care needs, sampling included stratification of the available population. Stratification allows for estimation of parameters for subgroups of the population. Employment data for the Federal government is maintained by the U.S. Office of Personnel Management in a large population database known as the Central Personnel Data File (CPDF); it does not include information about dependents of Federal government employees. However, the available database which comprised the study sample frame contained variables relevant to this study. Initial stratification was made for employees who are 50 years of age or younger and employees who are 51 years or age or older, because it was expected that the former age range would be more likely to experience dependent care needs. Use of stratification is frequently done in order to provide researchers with more information about their target population. Stratification was done to ensure that the sample included both individuals with children under the age of 18 (those individuals with dependent care needs), as well as individuals labeled as part

of the "sandwich" generation. Sandwich generation employees are recognized as those individuals who face the responsibility of caring for both their parents and their children (Miller, 1981).

The sample was also stratified by income threshold to explore more details about Federal government employees' household income and the need for the Child Care Subsidy Program. There was no previous information on household income for Federal government employees. Also, it was important to establish more information about employees who are eligible to participate in the Child Care Subsidy Program and their determining salary. This amount ranges with agency, but the highest estimated reported income threshold for participation in the Child Care Subsidy Program was $69,000. Therefore, the sampling frame oversampled (a larger number of employees were drawn from) the population that would qualify for this program in order to garner more information about how the program meets the needs of Federal government employees.

After the stratification process was completed, the employees invited to participate were chosen through a random sample for each individual stratum selected. Because the sampling stratification process influenced the likelihood that individuals with specific qualities would be sampled, the final sample is no longer representative of the population. The resulting data were weighted to ensure closer agreement with the demographic characteristics of the actual Federal government workforce. A weight was developed for each response given in the survey, which ensured that future comparisons take into consideration the known population distribution for the Federal government. The known population distributions are based on the CPDF, which reports on the 1.8 million Federal civilian government employees. For a more detailed explanation on the

weighting of the data, please see U.S. Office of Personnel Management (2006) or Wells and Clever (2007).

After applying the weight to the database, slightly different demographics emerged. The majority of the weighted sample was male (58%) and between the ages of 41 to 50 years old (43%). The weighted sample was comprised of 4% single parents, 22% traditional family employees, and 74% dual income family employees. About 49% of the weighted sample had a total family income between $70,000 and 120,000. For weighted participant demographics by family-friendly benefit use and household structure, see Tables 4 and 5, respectively.

Procedure

The survey was administered online over a six week period in 2006. All Executive branch agencies of the Federal government participated in the study. Agency points of contact were emailed prior to administration and asked to support the survey. Also, Work/Life Coordinators were contacted and asked to inform employees about the possible opportunity to participate in the survey. Sampled employees were emailed an invitation to participate in the survey electronically and given information and instructions on how to access the survey. Reminders were sent weekly through email during the six week period.

Table 4

Weighted Participant Demographics by Family-Friendly Benefit Use

		Non-Benefit Users	Benefit Users	Total
Gender	Male	48,787	180,625	229,412
	Female	22,153	141,813	163,966
Age	Under 31 years old	4,767	26,517	31,284
	31-40 years old	24,250	117,026	141,276
	41–50 years old	28,108	141,386	169,494
	51-60 years old	13,123	34,766	47,889
	Older than 60 years old	692	1,524	2,216
Job Category	Professional	24,340	156,116	180,456
	Administrative	12,608	60,232	72,840
	Technical	11,016	37,487	48,503
	Clerical	3,678	26,164	29,842
	Other White Collar	5,853	21,615	27,468
	Blue Collar	13,409	18,001	31,410

Table 5

Weighted Participant Demographics by Household Structure

		Single Parent Families	Traditional Families	Dual Income Families	Total
Gender	Male	4,575	70,951	154,101	229,627
	Female	11,005	16,409	136,710	164,124
Age	Under 31 years old	1,368	8,683	21,239	31,290
	31-40 years old	4,351	32,702	104,265	141,318
	41–50 years old	7,414	32,248	130,043	169,705
	51-60 years old	2,348	12,538	33,114	48,000
	Older than 60 years old	98	1,109	1,010	2,217
Job Category	Professional	4,149	40,863	135,624	180,636
	Administrative	3,417	14,016	55,435	72,868
	Technical	2,348	15,973	30,191	48,512
	Clerical	2,009	2,330	25,533	29,872
	Other White Collar	1,505	7,763	18,224	27,492
	Blue Collar	2,144	6,219	23,148	31,511

Measures

The items used for this study are located in Appendix A. It should be noted that most items regarding outcome variables (e.g., use of benefit, turnover intention) were framed to reference the employees' dependent care responsibilities.

Utilization of benefits. Employees' utilization of benefits was assessed by asking participants to indicate whether or not they used a list of benefits to help with managing dependent care responsibilities. See Figure 2 for the categorization of the Federal government's family-friendly benefits. The benefit utilization item asked "Which of the following work schedules or benefits have you used in the past 12 months to manage your dependent care responsibilities?" Response choices were based on a 2-point scale of no (coded 0) and yes (coded 1). Thirteen flexible benefits were listed: Compressed Work Schedule, Flexible Work Schedule, part-time work, job sharing, telework, annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay, advanced leave, leave sharing, work off-hours, compensatory (comp) time, and credit hours. However, for purposes of this study, some benefits will not be examined. These include work off-hours, compensatory time, credit hours, advanced leave, and leave sharing. These benefits are not as common and some were not clearly defined to the survey participants. Five of the benefits examined in the study were categorized as AWA: compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time work, job sharing, and telework. The remaining three benefits were categorized as LTA: annual leave, sick leave, and leave without pay.

Alternative Work Arrangements	Compressed Work Schedules
	Flexible Work Schedules
	Part-time work
	Job Sharing
	Teleworking
Leave Time Allowances	Annual Leave
	Sick Leave
	Leave without Pay
Dependent Care Services	Federal Child Care Centers
	Child Care Subsidy Program
	Dependent Care Flexible Spending Account (DCFSA)

Figure 2. List of Federal government benefits offered.

The participants were also asked about specific dependent care benefits, including three additional items about Federal Child Care Centers, Federal Child Care Subsidiaries, and the DCFSA. These three items were categorized as DCS. An example is, "Do you currently use a Federal Child Care Center?". Responses to DCS items were yes (coded 1) or no (coded 0).

Attraction. Attraction to a Federal government job was assessed by two items. The first item was dichotomous and asked, "Was access to child care benefits/programs important to your decision to accept a job with the Federal Government?" Responses include yes (coded 2) or no (coded 1). Because this item refers to child care benefits or programs specifically, this item will be used only when analyzing DCS benefits. The second item, "How important was access to flexible work options in your decision to take your current job?" Because this item refers to flexible work options in general, it was used when analyses for AWA and LTA were performed. Responses were on a five point scale ranging from not at all important to extremely important (coded 1 = Not at all important, 2 = Slightly important, 3 = Moderately important, 4 = Very important, 5 = Extremely important).

Absenteeism. For this survey, absenteeism is referred to as any time taken away from the workplace during typical working hours for that employee, and can include both personal time and sick time. There are two measures of absenteeism. Four items were averaged to make up the first absenteeism measure of leave behaviors which includes items addressing arriving late, leaving early, and taking sick leave for dependent care. These items were averaged because the items were all related to different challenges in dependent care that may led the employee to take time off of work. An example of a leave behaviors item is, "Thinking of your work over the past 12 months, approximately how often have issues with your dependent care (for both children and adults) caused you to… arrive late to work?" Responses ranged from "never" (coded 1), "1-3 times" (coded 2), "4-6 times" (coded 3), "7-9 times" (coded 4), and 10 or more times" (coded 5). A coefficient's alpha of .86 was obtained for this scale.

Employees were also asked to describe the number of hours of leave taken for dependent care needs. The item states, "During the past 12 months approximately how many hours of your leave have you had to take to meet your dependent care needs (for both children and/or adults)?" Response options included a range from None, 1, 2, 3… More than 40.

Retention. In the study, Federal government retention is measured by two items assessing whether family-friendly supports were important to respondents in decisions to stay with the government. One item that measured retention as related to child care programs was assessed with a dichotomous scale, "Is access to child care benefits/programs important to your decision to remain in the Federal Government?" Because this item refers to child care benefits or programs specifically, this item was used only when analyzing DCS benefits. Responses include yes (coded 2) or no (coded 1). The second item measures retention as related to flexible work options, "How important is the availability of flexible work options to your plans to stay in your current job?" Because this item refers to flexible work options in general, it was used when analyses for AWA and LTA were performed. Responses ranged from not at all important to extremely important on a 5-point scale (coded 1 = Not at all important, 2 = Slightly important, 3 = Moderately important, 4 = Very important, 5 = Extremely important).

Turnover intention. Intention to turnover was measured by three items that examined turnover within the current government agency, turnover within the Federal government, and turnover outside the Federal government. Because each of the turnover items is representative of a slightly different construct, responses from the three items were not combined, and were treated separately. The item for turnover intention within

the agency asked, "In the past 12 months, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to...look for a new job within your current Federal agency?". Agency turnover intention was assessed by, "In the past 12 months, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to...look for a new job with another Federal agency?". The item for Federal government turnover intention is, "In the past 12 months, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to...look for a new job outside the Federal government?". Responses were measured on a dichotomous (coded 1 for no, coded 2 for yes) scale.

In the past literature turnover intention has shown inconsistencies in the relationship between turnover intention and age. That is, some studies have used age as a covariate of turnover intention (see for example, Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Other studies have suggested that tenure has a stronger relationship, and still others have not used age as a covariate of turnover intention (Hofferth & Collins, 2000; Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). In the family-friendly literature, the large majority of studies have not used age or tenure as a covariate in analyses involving workplace withdrawal behaviors (Baughman et al., 2003; Dalton & Mesch, 1990; Goff et al., 1990; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Milkovich & Gomez, 1976; Narayanan & Nath, 1982). Due to the discrepancies in past literature, analyses that included retention and turnover intention were conducted with age as a covariate and without age as a covariate. Retention is included because of its direct relationship to turnover intention.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Preliminary analyses included testing assumptions for each type of analyses. Assumptions for analyses of variance (ANOVA) include normality of sampling distributions, normality of dependent variables, homogeneity of variance, independence of errors, and the absence of outliers. Assumptions for multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) include multivariate normality, absence of outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, linearity, and homogeneity of regression. Logistic regressions include assumptions of absence of multicollinearity and outliers, and the independence of errors. Assumptions of multivariate normality and linearity may enhance the power of a logistic regression, but are not assumptions that must be met (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Further, to combine several items measuring absenteeism, internal consistency analysis for the absenteeism variable were performed. Several variables were found to be skewed and kurtotic, including use of part-time schedules, use of job sharing, use of leave without pay, use of Federal Child Care Centers, use of Child Care Subsidy Program, and the use of the DCFSA. These items were dichotomous in nature and cannot be transformed. However, transformation is not necessary because both logistic regressions and chi-square test of independence statistics do not require assumptions of normality and ANOVAs and MANOVAs only require normality of dependent variables. All assumptions were assessed before analyses were run, and these assumptions were deemed to be met sufficiently by the data. Means, standard deviations, and correlations for all variables are reported in Table 6.

Table 6

Means, SDs, and Correlations between Variables (weighted)

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Household Structure	2.70	.54	-									
2. Compressed WS Use	.18	.39	-.04*	-								
3. Flexible WS Use	.33	.47	.03*	.06*	-							
4. Part-time Use	.04	.20	.08*	-.01*	.09*	-						
5. Job Sharing Use	.00	.03	.00	-.02*	.02*	.07*	-					
6. Telework Use	.10	.30	.07*	.08*	.26*	.13*	.02*	-				
7. Annual Leave Use	.64	.48	.07*	.13*	.24*	.09*	.02	.15*	-			
8. Sick Leave Use	.62	.49	.06*	.07*	.19*	.11*	.02*	.16*	.66*	-		
9. Leave without Pay Use	.06	.25	.06*	-.03*	.04*	.17*	.04*	.03*	.15*	.19*	-	
10. Child Care Center Use	.03	.17	.04*	.05*	.00	.02*	.00	.05*	.04*	.09*	.06*	-
11. Child Care Subsidy Use	.01	.11	.05*	-.03*	.02*	.04*	.00	.09*	-.01*	-.01*	.02*	.11*
12. DCFSA Use	.11	.32	.15*	.08*	.05*	.12*	.02*	.18*	.12*	.12*	.06*	.14*
13. Flexible Work Attraction	3.38	1.89	.05*	.02*	.05*	.07*	.01*	.05*	.03*	-.05*	-.01*	.02*
14. DCS Attraction	1.44	.79	-.04*	-.01*	-.02*	-.02*	.01	-.05*	-.03*	-.09*	-.04*	.01*
15. Arrive Late	2.12	1.26	.11*	.03*	.12*	.11*	.02*	.12*	.29*	.26*	.13*	.14*
16. Leave Work Early	2.47	1.28	.11*	.02*	.19*	.09*	.02*	.11*	.33*	.28*	.18*	.08*
17. Take Leave for Sick Child	2.51	1.15	.12*	.03*	.13*	.11*	.01*	.09*	.32*	.32*	.24*	.05*
18. Leave Unplanned Change	1.69	.88	.13*	.06*	.05*	.04*	.03*	.08*	.26*	.21*	.16*	.03*
19. Leave for Planned Events	2.18	1.09	.08*	.14*	.19*	.13*	.02*	.12*	.34*	.29*	.16*	.03*
20. Absenteeism	9.21	3.96	.13*	.07*	.18*	.13*	.02*	.14*	.38*	.34*	.21*	.09*

*p <.001.

Table 6 continues

Table 6

Means, SDs, and Correlations between Variables (weighted)

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
21. Number of hours absent	23.86	15.0	.12*	.08*	.18*	.11*	.01*	.12*	.42*	.40*	.21*	.08*
22. Flexible Work Retention	3.61	1.67	.06*	.03*	.16*	.10*	.02*	.10*	.10*	.05*	.06*	.01*
23. DCS Retention	1.48	.74	-.05*	-.03*	.01*	-.04*	.00	-.04*	-.04*	-.06*	.01*	.08*
24. Turnover Intent within Agency	1.32	.67	-.02*	-.06*	-.07*	-.02*	.03*	-.08	.34*	.29*	.16*	.03*
25. Turnover Intent within Government	1.34	.67	-.03*	-.04*	-.09*	-.04*	.03*	-.07	.43*	.40*	.22*	.08*
26. Turnover Intention outside Government	1.32	.66	-.03*	-.06*	-.09*	-.01*	.03*	-.07	.10*	.05*	.06*	.01

*p <.001.

Table 6 continues

Table 6

Means, SDs, and Correlations between Variables (weighted)

Variables	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
12. DCFSA Use	.14*	-										
13. Flexible Work Attraction	.01*	-.01*	-									
14. DCS Attraction	-.04*	.05*	.27*	-								
15. Arrive Late	-.03*	.14*	.06*	.02*	-							
16. Leave Work Early	-.05*	.11*	.06*	-.03*	.73*	-						
17. Take Leave for Sick Child	-.02*	.16*	.06*	-.01*	.59*	.66*	-					
18. Leave Unplanned Change	-.02*	.13*	.09*	.04*	.44*	.47*	.51*	-				
19. Leave for Planned Events	-.03*	.11	.04*	-.07*	.44*	.53*	.49*	.48*	-			
20. Absenteeism	.09*	-.04*	.16*	.07*	-.02*	.84*	.81*	.83*	.73*	-		
21. Number of hours absent	.08*	.00	.20*	.03*	-.03*	.47*	.52*	.61*	.47*	.63*	-	
22. Flexible Work Retention	.02*	.06*	.64*	.22*	.14*	.14*	.14*	.13*	.14*	.13*	.17*	-
23. DCS Retention	..03*	.03*	.27*	.73*	.08*	.04*	.04*	.06*	-.02*	.05*	.03*	.21*
24. Turnover Intention within Agency	.07*	-.06*	.07*	.19*	-.09*	-.16*	-.15*	-.03	-.16*	.20*	.15*	.10*
25. Turnover Intention within Government	.04*	-.07*	-.08*	-.20*	-.11*	-.18*	-.17*	-.04*	-.18*	-.19*	-.25*	.09*
26. Turnover Intention outside Government	.07*	-.08*	.09*	.18*	-.13*	-.19*	-.19*	-.05*	-.18*	-.20*	-.26*	.09*

*p <.001.

Table 6 continues

Table 6

Means, SDs, and Correlations between Variables (weighted)

Variables	23	24	25	26
24. Turnover Intention within Agency	.17*	-		
25. Turnover Intention within Government	.19*	.92*	-	
26. Turnover Intention outside Government	.18*	.90*	.94*	-

*p <.001.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1a: Among employees with child dependents, individuals who utilize AWA (i.e., compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework) will show higher reported attraction to their agency as compared to individuals who do not utilize AWA.

To assess Hypothesis 1a, a 2 (compressed work schedule used versus did not use) × 2 (flexible work schedule used vs. did not use) × 2 (part-time used versus did not use) × 2 (job sharing used versus did not use) × 2 (telework used versus did not use) ANOVA was performed. There were significant differences between use of compressed work schedules, $F(1, 315737) = 99.91$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. Employees who used compressed work schedules ($M = 3.13$) showed slightly lower levels of attraction when compared to individuals who did not use compressed work schedules ($M = 3.69$). There were significant differences in attraction to the organization between individuals who used flexible work schedules and those who did not, $F(1, 315737) = 47.36$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who used flexible schedules ($M = 3.87$) showed higher levels of attraction when compared to individuals who did not use flexible schedules ($M = 3.09$). Significant differences were found in attraction levels between employees who used part-time work schedules, $F(1, 315737) = 11.33$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = .92, as employees who utilized part-time schedules ($M = 3.87$) displayed higher levels of attraction to the organization when compared to employees who did not utilize part-time benefits ($M = 3.16$). There were significant differences in attraction when examining utilization of job sharing schedules, $F(1, 315737) = 50.46$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who used job sharing ($M = 4.04$) reported

higher levels of attraction to the organization than employees who did not use job sharing schedules ($M = 3.27$). Attraction levels were also significant for utilization of telework, $F(1, 315737) = 103.68$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as attraction rates were higher for individuals who used telework ($M = 4.04$) when compared to individuals who did not use telework ($M = 3.08$). These results showed partial support for Hypothesis 1a, as employees who utilized flexible schedules, part-time, job sharing, and telework showed higher rates of attraction than employees who did not use utilize these benefits.

Ancillary findings. Although it was not the main focus of the study, several interactions of the independent variables were also significant. The interaction between use of compressed schedules × use of flexible schedules showed a significant effect on attraction, $F(1, 315737) = 130.46$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, implying that employees who used both compressed and flexible schedules ($M = 3.83$) had average rates of attraction. Significant effects were observed for the interaction between use of compressed schedules × part-time schedules, $F(1, 315737) = 531.19$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, indicating employees who used both compressed and part-time schedules ($M = 2.92$) had lower rates of attraction. Attraction levels were also significant for the interaction of utilization of flexible schedules × part-time schedules, $F(1, 315737) = 16.21$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = .98, indicating individuals who used both flexible and part-time schedules ($M = 4.19$) have higher rates of attraction. There were significant effects in attraction when examining the interaction between utilization of compressed × flexible × part-time schedules, $F(1, 315737) = 72.30$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who used compressed, flexible, and part-time schedules together show average levels of attraction ($M = 3.88$). The interaction between use of

flexible schedules × job sharing displayed significant effects on attraction, $F(1, 315737) = 30.34$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who used both flexible and job sharing schedules showed high attraction rates ($M = 4.05$). There were significant effects of attraction on the interaction of compressed schedules × telework, $F(1, 315737) = 237.41$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as users of compressed schedules and telework reported higher than average levels of attraction ($M = 3.91$). Attraction levels were also significant for the interaction of utilization of compressed schedules × flexible schedules × telework, $F(1, 315737) = 1276.58$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, indicating individuals using the combination of compressed schedules, flexible schedules, and telework ($M = 4.54$) had very high rates of attraction. There was a significant interaction between use of part-time × telework, $F(1, 315737) = 14.08$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = .963 indicating employees who used both part-time and telework ($M = 4.42$) had high rates of attraction. The interaction between use of compressed schedules × part-time × telework showed a significant effect on attraction, $F(1, 315737) = 726.31$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, implying that employees who used the combination of compressed schedules, part-time, and telework together ($M = 4.97$) had extremely high rates of attraction. There was a significant interaction between use of flexible schedules × part-time × telework, $F(1, 315737) = 10.71$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = .905 indicating employees using flexible schedules, part-time, and telework together ($M = 4.53$) have very high rates of attraction. The interaction between use of job sharing × telework showed a significant effect on attraction, $F(1, 315737) = 22.32$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, implying that employees who used both job sharing and telework ($M = 4.81$) had extremely high rates of attraction. Attraction levels were also significant

for the interaction of utilization of part-time schedules × job sharing schedules × telework, $F(1, 315737) = 18.37$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = .99, indicating individuals using part-time schedules, job sharing schedules, and telework ($M = 4.71$) have very high rates of attraction. No other interaction effects were significant (Fs < 1 or p values > .01).

Hypothesis 1b: Among employees with child dependents, individuals who utilize LTA (i.e., annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay) will show higher reported attraction to their agency as compared to individuals who do not utilize LTA.

To assess the differences in attraction between employees who utilized LTA and individuals who did not use these benefits, a 2 (annual leave used versus not used) × 2 (sick leave used versus not used) × 2 (leave without pay used versus not used) ANOVA was performed. When examining the main effects, significant differences were found in attraction level between individuals who used annual leave and those who did not, $F(1, 315751) = 333.47$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. Individuals who utilized annual leave ($M = 2.91$) showed higher rates of attraction to the organization when compared to employees who did not ($M = 2.35$). Significant differences were also found for attraction between individuals who used sick leave and those who did not use sick leave $F(1, 315751) = 84.61$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. However, results showed employees who did not use sick leave ($M = 2.77$) had higher rates of attraction when compared to individuals who used sick leave ($M = 2.48$). There were no significant differences between users and non-users of leave without pay, $F(1, 315751) = 1.12$, *n.s.* These results showed partial support for Hypothesis 1b; employees who used annual leave displayed higher levels of attraction towards their Federal agency.

Ancillary findings. There were also several interactions of the independent variables that were significant. The interaction between use of annual leave × use of sick leave showed a significant effect on attraction, $F(1, 315751) = 204.65$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, implying that employees who used both annual and sick leave ($M = 2.98$) had average rates of attraction. Significant effects were observed for the interaction between use of sick leave × leave without pay, $F(1, 315751) = 83.74$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, indicating that employees who used both sick leave and leave without pay ($M = 2.36$) showed lower rates of attraction. Attraction levels were also significant for the interaction of utilization of annual leave × sick leave × leave without pay, $F(1, 315751) = 110.43$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, indicating that combining use of annual leave, sick leave, and leave without pay together ($M = 3.04$) resulted in average rates of attraction. The interaction between annual leave and leave without pay was not significant, $F(1, 315751) = .90$, *n.s.*

Hypothesis 1c: Among employees with child dependents, individuals who utilize DCS (i.e., Federal child care centers, Child Care Subsidy Program, DCFSA) will show higher reported attraction to their agency as compared to individuals who do not utilize DCS.

To assess whether there were differences in attraction rates between employees who used DCS and employees who did not use DCS, a binary logistic regression (the outcome has two levels: attracted to Federal government versus not attracted to Federal government) was performed. For the logistic regression, attraction was the dependent variable and use of the Federal child care center, participation in the Child Care Subsidy Program, and use of the DCFSA were the independent variables. The analysis

demonstrated use of DCS significantly predicted employees' level of attraction to the organization, χ^2 (3) = 4294.25, p <.001, R^2 = .01. Use of Federal child care centers was a significant predictor of employees' level of attraction to the organization, χ^2 (1) = 2675.48, p <.001, odds ratio = 3.87 (3.68 to 4.07). Employees were 287% [(3.87-1)*100] more likely to be attracted to the organization with every one unit increase in use of Federal child care centers. Child Care Subsidy Program participation significantly predicted employees' attraction to the organization, χ^2 (1) = 219.84, p <.001, odds ratio = .37 (.33 to .42). Employees were 63% [(1.00-.37)*100] less likely to be attracted to the organization if they participated in the Child Care Subsidy Program. Use of DCFSA significantly predicted employees' level of attraction towards their organization, χ^2 (1) = 1710.80, p <.001, odds ratio = 2.14 (2.07 to 2.22). Employees were 114% [(2.14-1)*100] more likely to be attracted to the organization with every one unit increase in use of DCFSA. These results showed partial support for Hypothesis 1c, as employees who utilized Federal child care centers and the DCFSA were more attracted to their Federal agency. Please see Table 7 for the results of the logistic regression.

Table 7

Standard Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 1c

Variable	B	SE	Wald statistic	Odds Ratio[1]
Use of Federal Child Care Centers	1.35	.03	2675.48*	3.87 (3.68 to 4.07)
Use of Child Care Subsidy Program	-.99	.07	219.84*	.37 (.33 to .42)
Use of DCFSA	.76	.02	1710.80*	2.14 (2.07 to 2.22)

[1] Confidence Intervals in Parentheses

*$p < .001$.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2a: Among employees with child dependents, those who use AWA (i.e., compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework) will display lower mean rates of absenteeism as compared to individuals who do not utilize these supports.

To test the relationship between AWA used and mean absenteeism rates, 2 (compressed schedules used versus not used) × 2 (flexible schedules used versus not used) × 2 (part-time used versus not used) × 2 (job sharing used versus not used) × 2 (telework used versus not used) MANOVA was performed. In this MANOVA, the independent variables were the use of AWA and the dependent variables were number of hours absent and frequency of leave behaviors. The MANOVA displayed significant mean differences between employees who used compressed work schedules and those who did not on absenteeism rates, F (2, 391519) = 628.60, $p < .001$, $\lambda = .997$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. The follow-up ANOVA displayed the measure of leave behaviors was

significant for use of compressed work schedules, F (1, 391520) = 328.84, p < .001, partial η^2= .00, power = 1.00. Employees who used compressed work schedules (M = 2.45) displayed significantly less leave behaviors when compared to employees who did not use compressed work schedules (M = 2.89). The number of hours employees took leave was also significant for use of compressed work schedules, F (1, 391520) = 148.79, p < .001, partial η^2= .00, power = 1.00. Employees who used compressed work schedules (M = 30.78) took significantly more hours of leave when compared to employees who did not use compressed work schedules (M = 27.72).

Significant differences were also found between individuals who used flexible work schedules and those who did not for absenteeism, F (2, 391519) = 117.48, p < .001, λ = .999, partial η^2= .00, power = 1.00. Differences in leave behaviors was significant for flexible work schedule use, F (1, 391520) = 39.61, p < .001, partial η^2= .00, power = 1.00, as employees who utilized flexible work schedules (M = 2.72) showed less leave behaviors when compared to employees who did not utilize flexible work schedules (M = 2.78). Significant differences were also found for the number of hours of leave taken, F (1, 391520) = 54.28, p < .001, partial η^2= .00, power = 1.00, as employees who utilized flexible work schedules (M = 30.95) took more hours of leave when compared to employees who did not utilize flexible work schedules (M = 25.99).

The MANOVA also found significant differences in absenteeism between employees who utilized part-time schedules and those who did not use part-time schedules, F (2, 391519) = 35.52, p < .001, λ = 1.000, partial η^2= .00, power = 1.00. Differences between individuals who used part-time schedules in behaviors of leave were significant, F (1, 391520) = 33.37, p < .001, partial η^2= .00, power = 1.00, as employees

who used part-time schedules ($M = 3.04$) showed higher rates of leave behaviors when compared to employees who did not use part-time schedules ($M = 2.45$). Similar results occurred for the number of hours of leave taken, $F(1, 391520) = 70.20$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who utilized part-time schedules ($M = 31.77$) took more hours when compared to individuals who did not use part-time schedules ($M = 25.62$).

Significant differences were found between individuals who used job sharing schedules and individuals who did not in their levels of absenteeism, $F(2, 391519) = 30.00$, $p < .001$, $\lambda = 1.000$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. Significant differences were found for absenteeism behaviors between individuals who used job sharing schedules, $F(1, 391520) = 8.39$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = .83, as employees who used job sharing schedules ($M = 2.93$) showed higher rates of leave behaviors when compared to employees who did not use job sharing schedules ($M = 2.66$). Significant differences between use of job sharing schedules in the number of hours of leave taken were demonstrated, $F(1, 391520) = 15.93$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = .98, as employees who used job sharing schedules ($M = 26.07$) took less hours of leave when compared to employees who did not use job sharing schedules ($M = 29.92$).

The MANOVA showed significant differences in absenteeism between employees who teleworked and employees who did not telework, $F(2, 391519) = 91.13$, $p < .001$, $\lambda = 1.000$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. The follow-up ANOVA displayed significant differences in leave behaviors between users and non-users of telework, $F(1, 391520) = 112.23$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who teleworked ($M = 2.97$) reported higher levels of leave behaviors when compared to employees who

did not telework ($M = 2.56$). There were no significant differences found for number of hours of leave taken between use of telework, $F(1, 391520) = .09$, *n.s.* The results are mixed for absenteeism and use of the various AWA, giving partial support to Hypothesis 2a, as utilization of compressed and flexible work schedules were related to lower rates of leave behaviors and utilization of job sharing was related to lower number of hours of leave taken.

Hypothesis 2b: *Among employees with child dependents, those who use LTA (i.e., annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay) will display lower mean rates of absenteeism as compared to individuals who do not utilize these supports.*

To assess the relationship between types of LTA benefits used and absenteeism rates, 2 (annual leave used versus not used) × 2 (sick leave used versus not used) × 2 (leave without pay used versus not used) MANOVA was performed. The MANOVA displayed significant mean differences between employees who used annual leave and those who did not on absenteeism rates, $F(2, 391533) = 345.51$, $p < .001$, $\lambda = .998$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. The follow-up ANOVA found significant differences in absenteeism between employees who utilized annual leave and those who did not use annual leave, $F(1, 391534) = 684.92$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who used annual leave ($M = 2.54$) showed higher rates of leave behaviors when compared to employees who did not use annual leave ($M = 2.09$). Similar results occurred for the number of hours of leave taken, $F(1, 391533) = 143.26$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who utilized annual leave ($M = 26.93$) took more hours when compared to individuals who did not use annual leave ($M = 23.93$).

Significant differences were found for absenteeism behaviors between individuals who used sick leave and individuals who did not use sick leave, F (2, 391533) = 420.73, $p < .001$, $\lambda = .998$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. Significant differences were found for leave behaviors between use of sick leave, F (1, 391534) = 203.63, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who used sick leave ($M = 2.43$) showed higher rates of leave behaviors when compared to employees who did not use sick leave ($M = 2.19$). Significant differences between use of sick leave in the number of hours of leave taken were demonstrated, F (1, 391534) = 839.13, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who took sick leave ($M = 29.06$) took more hours of leave when compared to employees who did not use sick leave ($M = 21.80$).

The MANOVA showed significant differences in absenteeism between employees who use leave without pay and employees who do not use leave without pay, F (2, 391533) = 526.08, $p < .001$, $\lambda = .997$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. The follow-up ANOVA showed significant differences in leave behaviors between use of leave without pay, F (1, 391520) = 112.23, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who used leave without pay reported higher levels of leave behaviors ($M = 2.49$) when compared to employees who did not use leave without pay ($M = 2.13$). There were also significant differences found for number of hours of leave taken between users of leave without pay, F (1, 391520) = .09, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who utilized leave without pay ($M = 29.45$) displayed a higher number of hours of leave taken when compared to employees who did not utilize leave without pay ($M = 21.40$). The results of the MANOVA and follow-up ANOVAs did not support Hypothesis 2b.

Hypothesis 2c: Among employees with child dependents, those who use DCS (i.e., Federal child care centers, Child Care Subsidy Program, DCFSA) will display lower mean rates of absenteeism as compared to individuals who do not utilize these supports.

To test the relationship between types of DCS used and absenteeism rates, 2 (Federal child care center used versus not used) × 2 (Child Care Subsidy Program used versus not used) × 2 (DCFSA used versus not used) MANOVA was performed. The MANOVA displayed significant mean differences between employees who used Federal child care centers and those who did not for absenteeism rates, $F(2, 306531) = 35.30$, $p < .001$, $\lambda = 1.00$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. The follow-up ANOVA found significant differences in absenteeism between employees who utilized Federal child care centers and individuals who did not, $F(1, 306532) = 42.04$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who used Federal child care centers ($M = 2.74$) showed higher rates of leave behaviors when compared to employees who did not use Federal child care centers ($M = 2.33$). Similar results occurred for the number of hours of leave taken, $F(1, 306532) = 65.27$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who utilized Federal child care centers ($M = 33.09$) took more hours when compared to individuals who did not utilize Federal child care centers ($M = 25.79$).

Significant differences were found between individuals who participated in the Child Care Subsidy Program and individuals who did not participate in the Child Care Subsidy Program in their levels of absenteeism, $F(2, 306531) = 47.48$, $p < .001$, $\lambda = 1.00$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. Significant differences were found for leave behaviors between participation of Child Care Subsidy Program, $F(1, 306532) = 62.86$, p

< .001, partial η^2= .00, power = 1.00, as employees who participated in the Child Care Subsidy Program (M = 2.29) showed lower rates of leave behaviors when compared to employees who did not participate in this program (M = 2.78). There were no significant differences between participation in Child Care Subsidy Program in the number of hours of leave taken, F (1, 306532) = .01, *n.s.*

The MANOVA showed significant differences in absenteeism between employees who used the DCFSA and employees who did not use the DCFSA, F(2, 306531) = 157.00, p < .001, λ = .999, partial η^2= .00, power = 1.00. The follow-up ANOVAs show significant differences in leave behaviors between use of the DCFSA, F(1, 306532) = 15.11, p < .001, partial η^2= .00, power = 1.00, as employees who used the DCFSA reported lower levels of leave behaviors (M = 2.41) when compared to employees who did not use the DCFSA (M = 2.65). There were also significant differences found for number of hours of leave taken between users of the DCFSA, F(1, 306532) = 135.59, p < .001, partial η^2= .00, power = 1.00, as employees who utilized the DCFSA (M = 34.70) displayed a higher number of hours of leave taken when compared to employees who did not utilize the DCFSA (M = 24.18). The results of the MANOVA and follow-up ANOVAs partially supported Hypothesis 2c, as employees who participated in the Child Care Subsidy Program and the DCFSA displayed lower rates of leave behaviors.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3a: Among individuals with child dependents, those who utilize AWA (i.e., compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework) will display higher mean retention rates when compared to individuals who do not use AWA.

To assess Hypothesis 3a, a 2 (compressed schedule used versus not used) × 2 (flexible schedule used versus does not used) × 2 (part-time used versus not used) x 2 (job sharing used versus not used) × 2 (telework used versus not used) ANOVA was performed. The ANOVA showed significant differences between use of compressed work schedules, $F(1, 341564) = 121.50$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. Employees who used compressed work schedules ($M = 3.70$) showed lower levels of retention when compared to individuals who did not use compressed work schedules ($M = 4.40$). There were significant differences in retention to the organization between individuals who used flexible work schedules and those who did not, $F(1, 341564) = 89.29$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who utilized flexible work schedules ($M = 4.52$) showed higher levels of retention when compared to employees who did not utilize flexible schedules ($M = 3.78$). There were no significant differences found in retention levels between employees who used part-time work schedules and employees who did not use part-time, $F(1, 341564) = 1.52$, *n.s.* Significant differences were also found in retention when examining utilization of job sharing schedules, $F(1, 341564) = 74.44$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who used job sharing ($M = 4.84$) reported higher levels of retention to the organization than did employees who did not use job sharing schedules ($M = 3.87$). Retention levels were also

significant for utilization of telework, $F(1, 341564) = 21.73$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as retention rates were higher for employees who used telework ($M = 4.47$) when compared to individuals who did not use telework ($M = 3.94$). These results showed partial support for Hypothesis 3a, as employees who used flexible schedules, job sharing, and telework reported higher levels of retention.

Ancillary findings. There were also several significant interactions between utilization of various alternative work arrangements on retention. There was a significant interaction between use of compressed schedules × flexible schedules, $F(1, 341578) = 363.50$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, implying that employees who used both compressed and flexible schedules ($M = 4.29$) had high rates of retention. There was a significant interaction between use of compressed schedules × part-time, $F(1, 341578) = 292.10$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, indicating employees who used both compressed schedules and part-time schedules ($M = 3.67$) had higher than average rates of retention. The interaction between use of compressed schedules × flexible schedules × part-time showed a significant effect on retention, $F(1, 341578) = 250.65$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, implying that employees who used the combination of compressed schedules, flexible schedules, and part-time together ($M = 4.53$) had very high rates of retention. There was a significant interaction between use of part-time × job sharing, $F(1, 341578) = 15.92$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = .979, indicating employees who used both part-time and job sharing ($M = 4.84$) had extremely high rates of retention. The interaction between use of compressed schedules × telework showed a significant effect on retention, $F(1, 341578) = 10.40$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = .897, implying that employees who used both compressed schedules and telework ($M = 4.21$) had high rates

of retention. Retention levels were also significant for the interaction of utilization of compressed schedules × flexible schedules × telework, $F(1, 341578) = 358.63$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, indicating individuals who used the combination of compressed schedules, flexible schedules, and telework together ($M = 4.61$) had very high rates of retention. The interaction between use of compressed schedules × flexible schedules × telework displayed significant effects on attraction, $F(1, 341578) = 137.93$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, as employees who used the combination of compressed schedules, flexible schedules, and telework showed extremely high retention rates ($M = 4.99$). Finally, there were significant effects of retention when employees who used flexible schedules × part-time × telework, $F(1, 341578) = 9.37$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = .865, as users of combining flexible schedules, part-time, and telework reported extremely high levels of retention ($M = 4.89$). No other interaction effects were significant (Fs < 1 or p values > .01).

Hypothesis 3a was also performed as a 2 (compressed schedule used versus not used) × 2 (flexible schedule used versus does not used) × 2 (part-time used versus not used) × 2 (job sharing used versus not used) × 2 (telework used versus not used) ANOVA with age as a covariate. However, since the effect size of the ANOVA did not increase, results were not reported.

Hypothesis 3b: *Among individuals with child dependents, those who utilize LTA (i.e., annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay) will display higher mean retention rates when compared to individuals who do not use LTA.*

To assess the differences in retention between those employees who utilized LTA and individuals who did not use these benefits, a 2 (annual leave used versus not used) ×

2 (sick leave used versus not used) × 2 (leave without pay used versus not used) ANOVA was performed. There were significant interactions in retention levels between employees who used LTA and individuals who did not use these benefits, $F(1, 391248) = 149.29, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. When examining the main effects, significant differences were found in retention level between individuals who used annual leave and those who did not, $F(1, 391248) = 182.24, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. Individuals who utilized annual leave ($M = 3.88$) showed higher rates of retention to the organization when compared to employees who did not ($M = 3.46$). Significant differences were also found for retention between individuals who used sick leave and those who did not use sick leave $F(1, 391248) = 443.65, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00. However, results showed that employees who did not use sick leave ($M = 4.00$) had higher rates of retention when compared to individuals who used sick leave ($M = 3.34$). There were also significant differences for retention found between users and non-users of leave without pay, as employees who used leave without pay ($M = 3.88$) showed higher levels of retention to the organization, when compared to those individuals who did not use leave without pay ($M = 3.46$). These results showed partial support for Hypothesis 3b, as use of two (annual leave and leave without pay) out of three LTA were related to higher rates of retention.

Ancillary findings. There were also several interactions of the independent variables that were significant. The interaction between use of annual leave × sick leave showed a significant effect on retention, $F(1, 341578) = 442.29, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, implying that employees who used both annual and sick leave ($M = 3.73$) had higher than average rates of retention. Retention was significant for the interaction

between annual leave and leave without pay, $F(1, 341578) = 13.45, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = .96, indicating that employees who used both annual leave and leave without pay ($M = 3.73$) showed higher than average rates of retention. Significant effects were observed for the interaction between use of sick leave × leave without pay, $F(1, 341578) = 556.01, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, indicating employees who used both sick leave and leave without pay ($M = 3.25$) reported average rates of retention. Retention levels were also significant for the interaction of utilization of annual leave × sick leave × leave without pay, $F(1, 341578) = 245.01, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$, power = 1.00, indicating that employees who used a combination of annual leave, sick leave, and leave without pay together ($M = 3.97$) reported higher rates of attraction.

Hypothesis 3b was also performed as a 2 (annual leave used versus not used) x 2 (sick leave used versus does not used) × 2 (leave without pay used versus not used) ANOVA with age as a covariate. However, since the effect size of the ANOVA did not increase, results were not reported.

Hypothesis 3c: *Among individuals with child dependents, those who utilize DCS (i.e., Federal Child Care Centers, Federal Child Care subsidiaries) will display higher mean retention when compared to individuals who do not use DCS.*

To assess whether there were differences in retention rates between employees using DCS and employees who do not use DCS, a binary logistic regression (the outcome has two levels: being retained versus not being retained in one's current Federal agency) was performed. For the logistic regression analysis, retention was the dependent variable and use of the Federal child care center, participation in the Child Care Subsidy Program, and use of the DCFSA were the independent variables. The analysis demonstrated DCS

significantly predicted the employee's level of retention with the organization, χ^2 (3) = 23647.90, p <.001, R^2 = .07. Use of Federal child care centers was a significant predictor of employees' level of retention to the organization, χ^2 (1) = 11917.96, p <.001, odds ratio = 14.29 (13.62 to 14.99). Employees were 1329% [(14.29-1)*100] more likely to be retained within the organization with every one unit increase in use of Federal child care centers. Federal subsidy program utilization was a significant predictor of employee's retention to the organization, χ^2 (1) = 749.69, p <.001, odds ratio = 2.53 (2.37 to 2.71). Employees who participated in the Child Care Subsidy Program are 153% [(2.53-1)*100] more likely to be retained to the organization. Use of DCFSA significantly predicted employees' level of retention towards their organization, χ^2 (1) = 3889.13, p <.001, odds ratio = 2.12 (2.07 to 2.17). Employees were 112% [(2.12-1)*100] more likely to be retained in the organization with every one unit increase in use of DCFSA. These results displayed complete support for Hypothesis 3c, as higher rates of retention were displayed for employees who used Federal child care centers, the Child Care Subsidy Program, and the DCFSA. Please see Table 8 for the results of the logistic regression.

Table 8

Standard Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 3c

Variable	B	SE	Wald statistic	Odds Ratio[1]
Use of Federal Child Care Centers	2.66	.03	11917.96*	14.29 (13.62 to 14.99)
Use of Child Care Subsidy Program	.93	.03	749.69*	2.53 (2.37 to 2.71)
Use of DCFSA	.75	.01	3889.13*	2.12 (2.07 to 2.17)

[1] Confidence Intervals in Parentheses

*$p < .001$.

Hypothesis 3c was also performed as a binary sequential logistic regression (the outcome has two levels: being retained to versus not being retained in one's current Federal agency) with age as a covariate. However, since the effect size of the ANOVA decreased, results are not reported.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4a: Employees with child dependents utilizing AWA (i.e., compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework) will be less likely to display turnover intent when compared to individuals with child dependents who are not using AWA.

Findings without age as a covariate. To assess whether there were differences in turnover intention between employees using AWA and employees who did not use AWA, three logistic regressions were performed. The first binary logistic regression analysis was performed with turnover intent within the Federal agency as the dependent variable and use of compressed schedules, flexible schedules, part-time, job sharing, and telework as the independent variables. The logistic regression demonstrated AWA significantly predicted the employee's turnover intention within the agency, $\chi^2(5) = 1790.12$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .01$. Use of compressed work schedules was a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention within agencies, $\chi^2(1) = 12.57$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.05 (1.02 to 1.08). Employees were 5% [(1.05-1)*100] more likely to turnover in the agency with every one unit increase in use of compressed work schedules. Flexible work schedule utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover within the agency, $\chi^2(1) = 214.31$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .84 (.82 to .86). Employees who used flexible work schedules were 16% [(1-.84)*100] less likely to have intent to turnover in the agency. Use of part-time schedules significantly predicted employees' turnover intent within agencies, $\chi^2(1) = 116.33$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 2.05 (1.96 to 2.14). Employees were 105% [(2.05-1)*100] more likely to have turnover intent within agencies with every one unit increase in use of part-time schedules. Use of job sharing schedules significantly

predicted employees' turnover intent towards their agency, $\chi^2(1) = 29.82$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 2.38 (1.75 to 3.26). Employees were 138% [(2.38-1)*100] more likely to show turnover intent within agencies with every one unit increase in use of job sharing schedules. Engaging in telework significantly predicted employees' turnover intent within agencies, $\chi^2(1) = 511.92$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .63 (.60 to .65). Employees were 37% [(1-.63)*100] less likely to have turnover intent in the agency with every one unit increase in telework.

The second binary logistic regression used turnover intention outside the Federal government as the dependent variable and use of compressed schedules, flexible schedules, part-time, job sharing, and telework as the independent variables. This analysis assessed whether there were differences in employee intentions to turnover outside a current Federal agency between employees using AWA and employees who do not use AWA. The analysis demonstrated AWA significantly predicted the employee's turnover intent outside the agency, $\chi^2(5) = 1181.17$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .00$. Use of compressed work schedules was a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 241.63$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.21 (1.18 to 1.24). Employees were 21% [(1.21-1)*100] more likely to turnover outside a current agency with every one unit increase in use of compressed work schedules. Flexible work schedule utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover intent outside a current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 424.02$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .80 (.78 to .82). One was 20% [(1-.80)*100] less likely to have intent to turnover outside the agency if the employee uses flexible work schedules. Use of part-time schedules significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards their agency, $\chi^2(1) = 2.41$, $p < .001$, odds

ratio = .96 (.92 to 1.01). Employees were 4% [(1-.96)*100] less likely to have turnover intent outside the current Federal agency with every one unit increase in use of part-time schedules. Use of job sharing schedules significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards their current Federal agency, χ^2 (1) = 41.66, p <.001, odds ratio = 2.78 (2.04 to 3.79). Employees were 178% [(2.78-1)*100] more likely to show intent to turnover outside the current Federal agency with every one unit increase in use of job sharing schedules. Engaging in telework significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards their current Federal agency, χ^2 (1) = 293.96, p <.001, odds ratio = .73 (.71 to .76). Employees were 27% [(1-.73)*100] less likely to show intention to turnover outside the agency with every one unit increase in telework.

The third binary logistic regression was analyzed with turnover intent outside the Federal government as the dependent variable and use of compressed schedules, flexible schedules, part-time, job sharing, and telework as the independent variables. The logistic regression assessed whether there were differences in turnover intent outside the Federal government between employees who used AWA and employees who did not use AWA. The analysis demonstrated use of AWA significantly predicted the employee's intention to turnover outside the Federal government, $\chi^2(5)$ = 2844.26, p <.001, R^2 = .01. Use of compressed work schedules was a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention towards the Federal government, $\chi^2(1)$ = 76.46, p <.001, odds ratio = .89 (.86 to .91). Employees were 11% [(1-.89)*100] less likely to turnover outside the Federal government with every one unit increase in use of compressed work schedules. Flexible work schedule utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover towards the Federal government, χ^2 (1) = 669.43, p <.001, odds ratio = .73 (.72 to .75). Employees

who used flexible work schedules were 27% [(1-.73)*100] less likely to have intent to turnover outside the Federal government. Use of part-time schedules significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards the Federal government, χ^2 (1) = 2025.81, p <.001, odds ratio = 2.48 (2.38 to 2.58). Employees were 148% [(2.48-1)*100] more likely to have turnover intent outside the Federal government with every one unit increase in use of part-time schedules. Use of job sharing schedules significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards the Federal government, χ^2 (1) = 113.26, p <.001, odds ratio = 3.87 (3.01 to 4.96). Employees were 287% [(3.87-1)*100] more likely to show intent to turnover towards the Federal government with every one unit increase in use of job sharing schedules. Engaging in telework significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards the Federal government, χ^2 (1) = 149.21, p <.001, odds ratio = .79 (.76 to .82). Employees were 21% [(1-.79)*100] less likely to have turnover intent in the Federal government with every one unit increase in telework. These results partially supported Hypothesis 4a, as flexible schedules and telework users displayed lower intentions to leave their position and stay within the agency; users of flexible schedules, part-time, and telework displayed lower intentions to leave the agency; and users of compressed schedules, flexible schedules, and telework displayed lower intentions to leave the Federal government altogether.

Findings with age as a covariate. To assess whether there were differences in turnover intention between employees using AWA and employees who do not use AWA, three sequential logistic regressions were performed. The first binary logistic regression analysis was performed with turnover intent within the Federal agency as the dependent variable, use of compressed schedules, flexible schedules, part-time, job sharing, and

telework as the independent variables, and age as the covariate. Age was entered in step 1 and use of compressed schedules, flexible schedules, part-time, job sharing, and telework were entered in step 2 in each logistic regression.

The logistic regression demonstrated AWA significantly predicted the employee's turnover intention within the agency, $\chi^2(6) = 6838.46$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .02$. Use of compressed work schedules was not a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention within agencies, $\chi^2(1) = .078$, *n.s.* Flexible work schedule utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover within the agency, $\chi^2(1) = 194.34$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). However, employees who used flexible work schedules do not show any relationship with intent to turnover in the agency [(1-1.00)*100]. Use of part-time schedules significantly predicted employees' turnover intent within agencies, $\chi^2(1) = 800.31$, $p < .001$, odds ratio =1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). Employees who used part-time schedules did not show a relationship with turnover intent within agencies. Use of job sharing schedules significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards their agency, $\chi^2(1) = 35.66$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .99 (.99 to .99). Employees were 1% [(1.00-.99)*100] less likely to show turnover intent within agencies with every one unit increase in use of job sharing schedules. Engaging in telework significantly predicted employees' turnover intent within agencies, $\chi^2(1) = 447.82$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). Employees who used telework do not show any relationship with turnover intent in the agency.

The second binary sequential logistic regression used turnover intention outside the Federal government as the dependent variable, use of compressed schedules, flexible schedules, part-time, job sharing, and telework as the independent variables, and age as

the covariate. This analysis assessed whether there were differences in employee intentions to turnover outside a current Federal agency between employees using AWA and employees who did not use AWA. The analysis demonstrated AWA significantly predicted the employee's turnover intent outside the agency, $\chi^2(6) = 6585.34$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .02$. Use of compressed work schedules was a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = .15$, *n.s.* Flexible work schedule utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover intent outside a current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 261.28$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). Employees who used flexible work schedules do not show any relationship with intent to turnover outside the agency [(1-1.00)*100]. Use of part-time schedules significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards their agency, $\chi^2(1) = 31.78$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). Employees who used part-time schedules do not show a relationship with turnover intent outside agencies. Use of job sharing schedules significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards their current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 46.25$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .99 (.99 to .99). Employees were 1% [(1.00-.99)*100] less likely to show intent to turnover outside the current Federal agency with every one unit increase in use of job sharing schedules. Engaging in telework significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards their current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 193.19$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). Employees who used telework do not show any relationship with turnover intent outside the agency.

The third binary sequential logistic regression was analyzed with turnover intent outside the Federal government as the dependent variable, use of compressed schedules, flexible schedules, part-time, job sharing, and telework as the independent variables, and

age as the covariate. The sequential logistic regression assessed whether there were differences in turnover intent outside the Federal government between employees who used AWA and employees who did not use AWA. The analysis demonstrated that use of AWA significantly predicted the employee's intention to turnover outside the Federal government, $\chi^2(6) = 11130.43$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .03$. Use of compressed work schedules was a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention towards the Federal government, $\chi^2(1) = 190.57$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). There was no relationship between employees who used compressed work schedules and turnover outside the Federal government [(1-1.00)*100]. Flexible work schedule utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover towards the Federal government, χ^2 (1) = 578.62, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). Employees who used flexible work schedules did not show any relationship with intent to turnover outside the Federal government. Use of part-time schedules significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards the Federal government, χ^2 (1) = 1465.31, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .99 (.99 to .99). Employees were 1% [(1.00-.99)*100] less likely to have turnover intent outside the Federal government with every one unit increase in use of part-time schedules. Use of job sharing schedules significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards the Federal government, χ^2 (1) = 95.09, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .99 (.98 to .99). Employees were 1% [(1.00-.99)*100] less likely to show intent to turnover towards the Federal government with every one unit increase in use of job sharing schedules. Engaging in telework significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards the Federal government, χ^2 (1) = 99.52, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). Employees who used telework do not show any relationship with turnover intent outside the Federal government. These results

partially supported Hypothesis 4a, as job sharing users displayed lower intentions to leave their position and stay within the agency; users of job sharing schedules display lower intentions to leave the agency; and users of part-time schedules and job sharing displayed lower intentions to leave the Federal government altogether.

Hypothesis 4b: *Employees with child dependents utilizing LTA (i.e., annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay) will be less likely to display turnover intent when compared to individuals with child dependents who are not using LTA.*

Findings without age as a covariate. To assess whether there were differences in turnover intention between employees using LTA and employees who do not use LTA, three binary logistic regressions were performed. Use of annual leave, sick leave, and leave without pay were the independent variables in each regression and turnover intention within the Federal agency, outside the Federal agency, and outside the Federal government were listed as the dependent variables in the first, second, and third analyses, respectively.

The first logistic regression analysis demonstrated LTA significantly predicted the employee's turnover intention within the agency, $\chi^2(3) = 6994.71$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .02$. Use of annual leave was a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention with the Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 592.03$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.46 (1.41 to 1.50). Employees were 46% [(1.46-1)*100] more likely to turnover within the agency with every one unit increase in use of annual leave. Sick leave utilization was not a significant predictor of employee's turnover within the agency, $\chi^2(1) = 3.63$, *n.s.* Use of leave without pay significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards their organization, $\chi^2(1) = 5963.57$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 3.34 (3.24 to 3.44). Employees were 234% [(3.34-1)*100]

more likely to have intent to turnover within the agency with every one unit increase in use of leave without pay.

The second binary logistic regression analysis demonstrated LTA significantly predicted the employee's turnover intention outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(3) = 7492.12$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .02$. Use of annual leave was a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 590.45$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.40 (1.36 to 1.44). Employees were 40% [(1.40-1)*100] more likely to turnover outside the agency with every one unit increase in use of annual leave. Sick leave utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover towards the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 380.61$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .77 (.75 to .79). Employers were 23% [(1-.77)*100] less likely to plan to turnover outside the current Federal agency with every one unit increase in sick leave. Use of leave without pay significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards their current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 7376.33$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 3.60 (3.50 to 3.71). Employees were 260% [(3.60-1)*100] more likely to have intent to turnover outside the current Federal agency with every one unit increase in use of leave without pay.

The third binary logistic regression analysis demonstrated LTA significantly predicted the employee's turnover intention outside the Federal government, $\chi^2(3) = 10559.94$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .03$. Use of annual leave was a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention towards the government, $\chi^2(1) = 357.48$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .76 (.74 to .78). Employees were 24% [(1-.76)*100] less likely to turnover outside the government with every one unit increase in use of annual leave. Sick leave utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover towards the government, $\chi^2(1) =$

1172.70, p <.001, odds ratio = 1.70 (1.65 to 1.75). Employees were 70% [(1.70-1)*100] more likely to have intent to turnover outside the Federal government with every one unit increase in sick leave. Use of leave without pay significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards the government, $\chi^2(1) = 9031.32$, p <.001, odds ratio = 4.15 (4.03 to 4.28). Employees were 315% [(4.15-1)*100] more likely to have intent to turnover outside the government with every one unit increase in use of leave without pay. These results showed partial support for Hypothesis 4b, as users of sick leave displayed lower turnover intentions toward leaving their agency but staying in the Federal government, and users of annual leave displayed lower turnover intentions towards leaving the Federal government entirely.

Findings with age as a covariate. To assess whether there were differences in turnover intention between employees using LTA and employees who do not use LTA, three binary sequential logistic regressions were performed. Use of annual leave, sick leave, and leave without pay were the independent variables in each regression, age was the covariate, and turnover intention within the Federal agency, outside the Federal agency, and outside the Federal government were listed as the dependent variables in the first, second, and third analyses, respectively. Age was entered in step 1 and use of annual leave, sick leave, and leave without pay were entered in step 2 in each logistic regression.

The first sequential logistic regression analysis demonstrated LTA significantly predicted the employee's turnover intention within the agency, $\chi^2(4) = 11195.04$, p <.001, $R^2 = .03$. Use of annual leave was a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention in the department, $\chi^2(1) = 729.47$, p <.001, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). There was no

relationship between use of annual leave and turnover within the agency [(1-1.00)*100]. Sick leave utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover within the agency, $\chi^2(1) = 88.26$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). There was no relationship between use of sick leave and turnover intent within an agency. Use of leave without pay significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards their organization, $\chi^2(1) = 4800.56$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .99 (.99 to .99). Employees were 1% [(1.00-.99)*100] less likely to intend to turnover within the agency with every one unit increase in use of leave without pay.

The second binary sequential logistic regression analysis demonstrated LTA significantly predicted the employee's turnover intention outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(4) = 12014.66$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .03$. Use of annual leave was a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 279.81$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). There was no relationship between use of annual leave and turnover within the agency [(1-1.00)*100]. Sick leave utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover towards the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 203.57$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). There was no relationship between use of sick leave and turnover intent outside an agency. Use of leave without pay significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards their current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 6170.91$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .99 (.99 to .99). Employees were 1% [(1-.99)*100] less likely to have intent to turnover outside the current Federal agency with every one unit increase in use of leave without pay.

The third binary sequential logistic regression analysis demonstrated LTA significantly predicted the employee's turnover intention outside the Federal government,

$\chi^2(4) = 17163.31$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .05$. Use of annual leave was a significant predictor of employees' turnover intention towards the government, $\chi^2(1) = 346.02$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). There was no relationship between use of annual leave and turnover outside the Federal government [(1-1.00)*100]. Sick leave utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover towards the government, $\chi^2(1) = 814.57$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.00 (1.00 to 1.00). There was no relationship between use of sick leave and turnover intent outside the Federal government. Use of leave without pay significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards the government, $\chi^2(1) = 7412.99$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .99 (.99 to .99). Employees were 1% [(1-.99)*100] less likely to have intent to turnover outside the government with every one unit increase in use of leave without pay. These results showed partial support for Hypothesis 4b, as users of leave without pay displayed lower turnover intentions toward leaving within their agency, outside the agency, and leaving the Federal government entirely.

Hypothesis 4c: *Employees with child dependents utilizing DCS (i.e., Federal child care centers, Child Care Subsidy Program, DCFSA) will be less likely to display turnover intent when compared to individuals with child dependents who are not using DCS.*

Findings without age as a covariate. To assess whether there were differences in intention to turnover between employees who used DCS and employees who did not use DCS, binary logistic regressions were performed. Use of Federal child care centers, the Child Care Subsidy Program, and the DCFSA were the independent variables in each regression and turnover intention within the Federal agency, outside the Federal agency, and outside the Federal government were listed as the dependent variables in the first,

second, and third regression analyses, respectively. To assess whether there were differences in departmental turnover intent between employees using DCS and employees who do not use DCS, binary logistic regression was performed. This analysis demonstrated DCS significantly predicted the employee's intent to turnover within the Federal agency, $\chi^2(3) = 2612.01$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .01$. Use of Federal child care centers was a significant predictor of employees' intention to turnover within the agency, $\chi^2(1) = 1005.47$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .10 (.09 to .12). Employees were 90% [(1-.10)*100] less likely to intend to turnover within the agency with every one unit increase in use of Federal child care centers. Child Care Subsidy Program utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover intent within the agency, $\chi^2(1) = 858.16$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 3.53 (3.25 to 3.84). One was 253% [(3.53-1)*100] more likely to show intent of turnover in the agency if the employee participated in the Child Care Subsidy Program. Use of DCFSA significantly predicted employees' turnover intent within an agency, $\chi^2(1) = 47.18$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.12 (1.08 to 1.15). Employees were 12% [(1.12-1)*100] more likely to intend to turnover in the agency with every one unit increase in use of the DCFSA.

To test whether there were differences in Federal agency turnover intent between employees who used DCS and employees who did not use DCS, the second binary logistic regression was performed. This analysis demonstrated DCS significantly predicted the employee's intent to turnover outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(3) = 2316.33$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .01$. Use of Federal child care centers was a significant predictor of employees' intention to turnover outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 990.77$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .19 (.17 to .21). Employees were 81% [(1-.19)*100] less likely to

intend to turnover outside the current Federal agency with every one unit increase in use of Federal child care centers. Child Care Subsidy Program utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover intent outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 166.87$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .33 (.28 to .39). One was 67% [(1-.33)*100] less likely to show intent of turnover outside the current Federal agency if the employee participates in the Child Care Subsidy Program. Use of the DCFSA significantly predicted employees' turnover intent outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 94.81$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .86 (.83 to .89). Employees were 14% [(1-.86)*100] less likely to intend to turnover outside the agency with every one unit increase in use of the DCFSA.

To determine whether there were differences in Federal government turnover intent between employees who used DCS and employees who did not use DCS, the third logistic regression was performed. This analysis demonstrated DCS significantly predicted the employee's intent to turnover outside the Federal government, $\chi^2(3) = 2165.62$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .01$. Use of Federal child care centers was a significant predictor of employees' intention to turnover outside the Federal government, $\chi^2(1) = 926.20$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .18 (.16 to .20). Employees were 82% [(1-.18)*100] less likely to intend to turnover outside the Federal government with every one unit increase in use of Federal child care centers. Child Care Subsidy Program utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover intent towards the Federal government, $\chi^2(1) = 518.09$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 2.77 (2.54 to 3.02). One was 177% [(2.77-1)*100] more likely to show intent of turnover outside the Federal government if the employee participates in the Child Care Subsidy Program. Use of the DCFSA significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards the Federal government, $\chi^2(1) = 250.14$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .76

(.74 to .79). Employees were 24% [(1-.76)*100] less likely to intend to turnover outside the government with every one unit increase in use of the DCFSA. These results showed partial support for Hypothesis 4c, as Federal child care center users displayed lower intentions to leave their department, agency, and Federal government altogether, Federal Child Care Subsidy participants displayed lower rates of turnover intention towards the Federal government, and DCFSA users displayed lower intentions to leave their agency and the Federal government industry.

Findings with age as a covariate. To assess whether there were differences in intention to turnover between employees who used DCS and employees who did not use DCS, binary sequential logistic regressions were performed. Use of Federal child care centers, Child Care Subsidy Program, and DCFSA were the independent variables in each regression, age was the covariate, and turnover intention within the Federal agency, outside the Federal agency, and outside the Federal government were listed as the dependent variables in the first, second, and third regression analyses, respectively. Age was entered in step 1 and use of Federal child care centers, Child Care Subsidy Program, and DCFSA were entered in step 2 in each logistic regression.

To assess whether there were differences in turnover intent with the government agency between employees who used DCS and employees who did not use DCS, binary logistic regression was performed. Results demonstrated DCS significantly predicted the employee's intent to turnover within the Federal agency, $\chi^2(4) = 5488.92, p < .001$, $R^2 = .02$. Use of Federal child care centers was a significant predictor of employees' intention to turnover within the agency, $\chi^2(1) = 1141.32, p < .001$, odds ratio = .09 (.08 to .10). Employees were 91% [(1-.09)*100] less likely to intend to turnover within the agency

with every one unit increase in use of Federal child care centers. Child Care Subsidy Program utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover intent within the agency, $\chi^2(1) = 609.66$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 2.93 (2.69 to 3.19). One was 193% [(2.93-1)*100] more likely to show intent of turnover in the agency if the employee participates in the Child Care Subsidy Program. Use of the DCFSA significantly predicted employees' turnover intent within an agency, $\chi^2(1) = 153.26$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 1.22 (1.18 to 1.26). Employees were 22% [(1.22-1)*100] more likely to intend to turnover in the agency with every one unit increase in use of the DCFSA.

To test whether there were differences in Federal agency turnover intent between employees who used DCS and employees who did not use DCS, the second binary sequential logistic regression was performed. Use of DCS significantly predicted the employee's intent to turnover outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(4) = 8505.80$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .02$. Use of Federal child care centers was a significant predictor of employees' intention to turnover outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 1033.03$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .18 (.16 to .20). Employees were 82% [(1-.18)*100] less likely to intend to turnover outside the current Federal agency with every one unit increase in use of Federal child care centers. Child Care Subsidy Program utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover intent outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 185.74$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .31 (.26 to .36). One was 69% [(1-.31)*100] less likely to show intent of turnover outside the current Federal agency if the employee participates in the Child Care Subsidy Program. Use of the DCFSA significantly predicted employees' turnover intent outside the current Federal agency, $\chi^2(1) = 222.13$, $p < .001$, odds ratio =

.78 (.75 to .80). Employees were 22% [(1-.78)*100] less likely to intend to turnover outside the agency with every one unit increase in use of the DCFSA.

To determine whether there were differences in Federal government turnover intent between employees who used DCS and employees who did not use DCS, the third sequential logistic regression was performed. This analysis demonstrated DCS significantly predicted the employee's intent to turnover outside the Federal government, $\chi^2(4) = 10866.84$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .03$. Use of Federal child care centers was a significant predictor of employees' intention to turnover outside the Federal government, $\chi^2(1) = 1088.71$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .16 (.14 to .18). Employees were 84% [(1-.16)*100] less likely to intend to turnover outside the Federal government with every one unit increase in use of Federal child care centers. Child Care Subsidy Program utilization was a significant predictor of employee's turnover intent towards the Federal government, $\chi^2(1) = 320.36$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = 2.26 (2.07 to 2.47). One was 126% [(2.26-1)*100] more likely to show intent of turnover outside the Federal government if the employee participates in the Child Care Subsidy Program. Use of the DCFSA significantly predicted employees' turnover intent towards the Federal government, $\chi^2(1) = 320.36$, $p < .001$, odds ratio = .91 (.88 to .94). Employees were 9% [(1-.91)*100] less likely to intend to turnover outside the government with every one unit increase in use of the DCFSA. These results showed partial support for Hypothesis 4c, as Federal child care center users displayed lower intentions to leave their department, agency, and Federal government altogether, Federal Child Care Subsidy participants displayed lower rates of turnover intention towards their agency, and DCFSA users displayed lower intentions to leave their agency and the Federal government industry. Please see Tables 9 and 10,

respectively for the results of the logistic regression for Hypothesis 4 as measured without and with age as a CV.

Table 9

Standard Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 4 (without age as a covariate)

Variable	B	SE	Wald statistic	Odds Ratio[1]
Use of Compressed WS	.05	.01	12.57	1.05 (1.02 to 1.08)
Use of Flexible WS	-.17	.01	214.31	.84 (.82 to .86)
Use of Part-time	.72	.02	1116.33	2.05 (1.96 to 2.14)
Use of Job Sharing	.87	.16	29.82	2.38 (1.75 to 3.26)
Use of Telework	-.47	.02	511.92	.63 (.60 to .65)
Use of Annual Leave	.38	.02	592.03	1.46 (1.41 to 1.50)
Use of Sick Leave	-.03	.02	3.63	.97 (.94 to 1.00)
Use of Leave without Pay	1.21	.02	5963.57	3.34 (3.24 to 3.44)
Use of Federal Child Care Centers	-1.38	.03	2824.32*	.25 (.24 to .26)
Use of Child Care Subsidy Program	.57	.06	97.78*	1.76 (1.58 to 1.97)
Use of DCFSA	-.64	.02	1093.65*	.53 (.51 to .55)

[1] Confidence Intervals in Parentheses

*$p < .001$

Table 10

Standard Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 4 (with age as a covariate)

Variable	B	SE	Wald statistic	Odds Ratio[1]
Use of Compressed WS	.00	.00	.08*	1.00 (1.00 to 1.00)
Use of Flexible WS	.00	.00	194.34*	1.00 (1.00 to 1.00)
Use of Part-time	-.01	.00	800.31*	.99 (.99 to .99)
Use of Job Sharing	-.01	.00	35.66*	.99 (.99 to .99)
Use of Telework	.00	.00	447.82*	1.00 (1.00 to 1.01)
Use of Annual Leave	.00	.00	729.47*	1.46 (1.41 to 1.50)
Use of Sick Leave	.00	.00	88.26*	.97 (.94 to 1.00)
Use of Leave without Pay	-.01	.00	4800.56*	3.34 (3.24 to 3.44)
Use of Federal Child Care Centers	-2.43	.07	1141.32*	.25 (.24 to .26)
Use of Child Care Subsidy Program	1.07	.04	609.66*	1.76 (1.58 to 1.97)
Use of DCFSA	.20	.02	153.26*	.53 (.51 to .55)

[1] Confidence Intervals in Parentheses

*$p < .001$

For a full table of the Hypotheses 1-4 and the support for each part of the four hypotheses, please see Table 11. To examine models of the hypothesized relationships that were supported between use of AWA, LTA, and DCS and attraction and workplace withdrawal behaviors, please see Figures 3, 4, 5, respectively.

Table 11

Hypotheses outcomes

Hypothesis	Benefit used	Expected outcome	Findings
H 1a	Compressed WS	Higher rates of attraction	Not supported
	Flexible WS		Supported
	Part-time schedules		Supported
	Job sharing schedules		Supported
	Telework		Supported
H 1b	Annual leave		Supported
	Sick leave		Not supported
	Leave without pay		Not supported
H 1c	Federal child care centers		Supported
	Child Care Subsidy Program		Not supported
	DCFSA		Supported
H 2a	Compressed WS	Less absenteeism behaviors	Supported
		Lower hours of leave	Not supported
	Flexible WS	Less absenteeism behaviors	Supported
		Lower hours of leave	Not supported
	Part-time schedules	Less absenteeism behaviors	Not supported
		Lower hours of leave	Not supported
	Job sharing schedules	Less absenteeism behaviors	Not supported
		Lower hours of leave	Supported
	Telework	Less absenteeism behaviors	Not supported
		Lower hours of leave	Not supported
H 2b	Annual leave	Less absenteeism behaviors	Not supported
		Lower hours of leave	Not supported
	Sick leave	Less absenteeism behaviors	Not supported
		Lower hours of leave	Not supported
	Leave without pay	Less absenteeism behaviors	Not supported
		Lower hours of leave	Not supported
H 2c	Federal child care centers	Less absenteeism behaviors	Not supported
		Lower hours of leave	Not supported
	Child Care Subsidy Program	Less absenteeism behaviors	Supported
		Lower hours of leave	Not supported
	DCFSA	Less absenteeism behaviors	Supported
		Lower hours of leave	Not supported
H 3a	Compressed WS	Higher rates of retention	Not supported
	Flexible WS		Supported

Table 11 continues

Table 11

Hypotheses outcomes

Hypothesis	Benefit Used	Expected outcome	Findings
H 3a	Part-time schedules	Higher rates of retention	Not supported
	Job sharing		Supported
	Telework		Supported
H 3b	Annual leave		Supported
	Sick leave		Not supported
	Leave without pay		Supported
H 3c	Federal child care centers		Supported
	Child Care Subsidy Program		Supported
	DCFSA		Supported
H 4a	Compressed WS	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Not supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Supported
	Flexible WS	Departmental turnover intent	Supported
		Agency turnover intent	Supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Supported
	Part-time schedules	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
	Part-time schedules	Agency turnover intent	Supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Not supported
	Job sharing	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Not supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Not supported
	Telework	Departmental turnover intent	Supported
		Agency turnover intent	Supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Supported
H 4b	Annual leave	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Not supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Supported
	Sick leave	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Not supported

Table 11 continues

Table 11

Hypotheses outcomes

Hypothesis	Benefit Used	Expected outcome	Findings
H 4b	Leave without pay	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Not supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Not supported
H 4c	Federal child care centers	Departmental turnover intent	Supported
		Agency turnover intent	Supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Supported
	Federal child care subsidies	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Not supported
	DCFSA	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Supported
H 4a (with CV)	Compressed WS	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Not supported
	Compressed	Federal government turnover intent	Not supported
	Flexible WS	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Not supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Not supported
	Part-time schedules	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Not supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Supported
	Job sharing	Departmental turnover intent	Supported
		Agency turnover intent	Supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Supported
	Telework	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Not supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Not supported

Table 11 continues

Table 11

Hypotheses outcomes

Hypothesis	Benefit Used	Expected outcome	Findings
H 4b (with CV)	Annual leave	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Not supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Not supported
	Sick leave	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Not supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Not supported
	Leave without pay	Departmental turnover intent	Supported
		Agency turnover intent	Supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Supported
H 4c (with CV)	Federal child care centers	Departmental turnover intent	Supported
		Agency turnover intent	Supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Supported
	Federal child care subsidies	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Not supported
	DCFSA	Departmental turnover intent	Not supported
		Agency turnover intent	Supported
		Federal government turnover intent	Supported

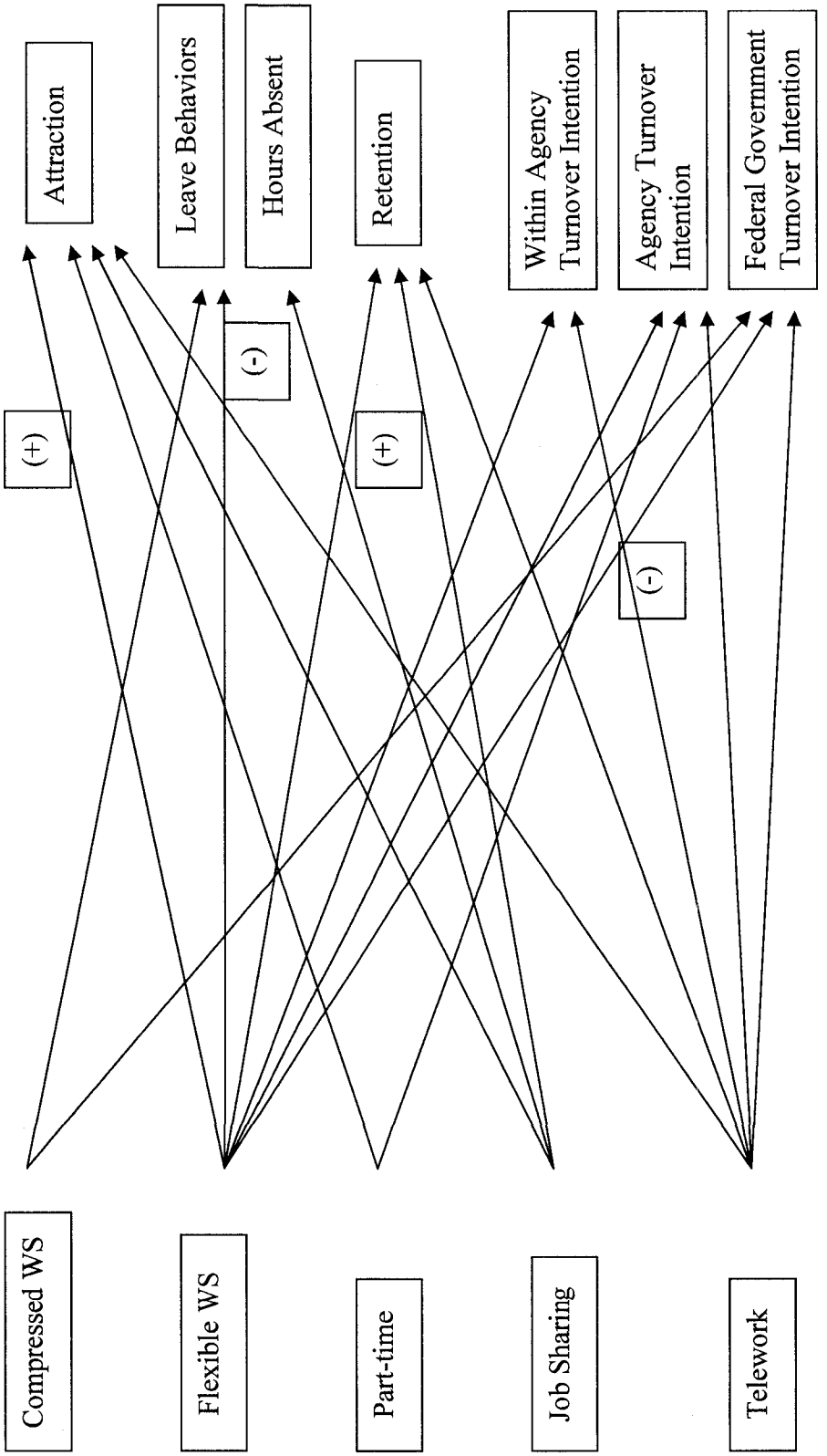

Figure 3. Model of supported relationships between AWA benefit utilization and attraction and workplace withdrawal behaviors.

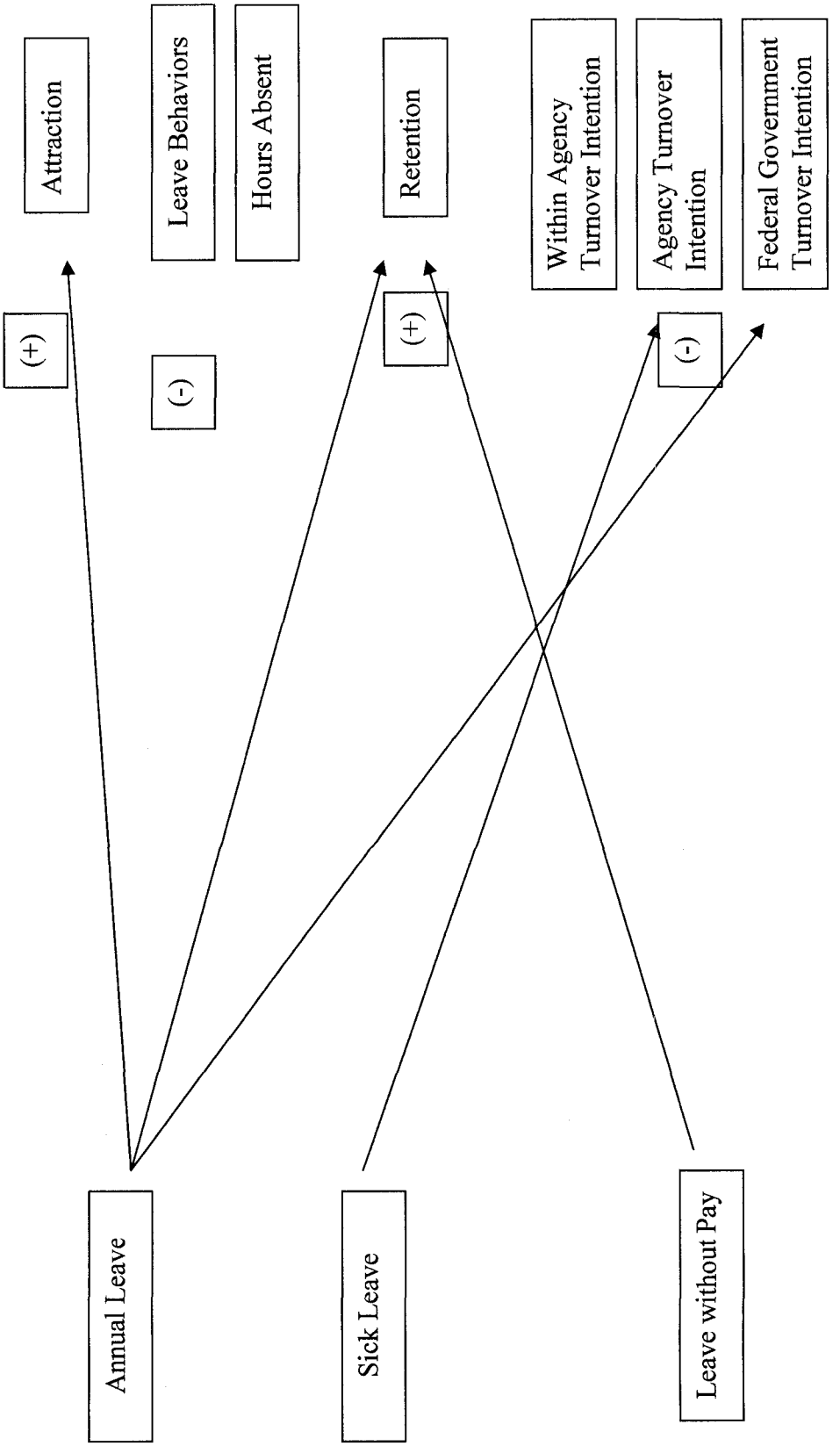

Figure 4. Model of supported relationships between LTA benefit utilization and attraction and workplace withdrawal behaviors.

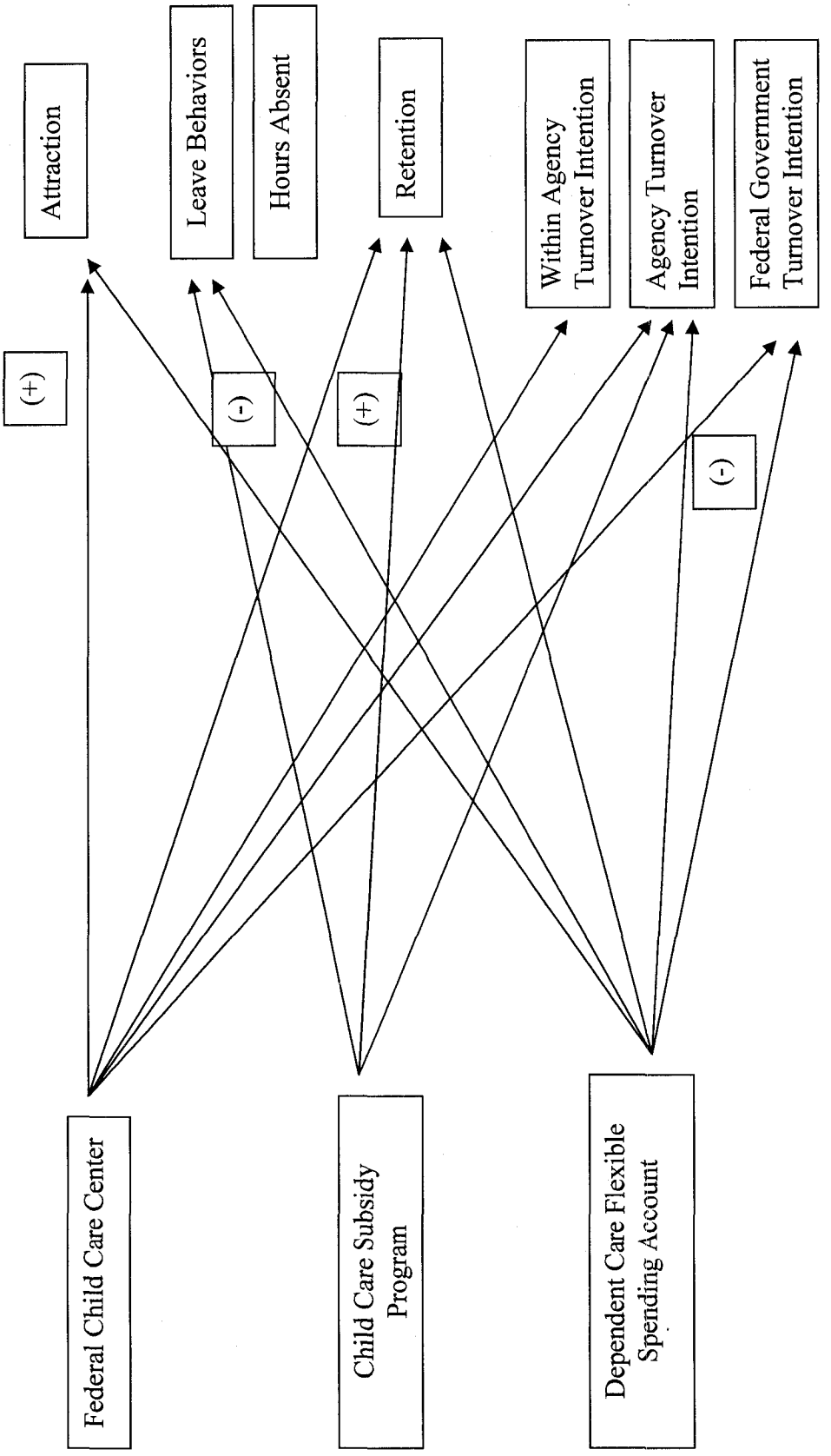

Figure 5. Model of supported relationships between DCS benefit utilization and attraction and workplace withdrawal behaviors.

Hypothesis 5 through 7

Hypothesis 5a: Dual income employees with child dependents will show greater use of compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework, annual and sick leave, leave without pay, Federal child care centers, and the DCFSA when compared to dual income family use of the Child Care Subsidy Program.

Hypothesis 5b: When compared to employees from traditional and single parent families with child dependents, dual income earners with child dependents will show greater frequencies of using flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, leave without pay, and Federal child care centers.

Hypothesis 6a: Single parent employees with child dependents will demonstrate greater use of flexible work schedules, telework, annual and sick leave, and the Child Care Subsidy Program when compared to the single parent employees' use of compressed schedules, part time, job sharing, leave without pay, the Federal Child Care Centers, and the DCFSA.

Hypothesis 6b: When compared to employees from traditional and dual income families with child dependents, single parent employees with child dependents will show greater frequencies of participating in the Child Care Subsidy Program.

Hypothesis 7: Traditional family employees with child dependents will demonstrate greater use of compressed and flexible work schedules, and the DCFSA when compared to traditional family employees' use of part-time work, job sharing, and leave without pay.

To test the differences between household structures in the use of family-friendly benefits, separate chi-square tests of independence for each family-friendly benefit were performed. In order to accurately examine differences between individuals choosing to use each family-friendly benefit and employees who choose not to use that benefit, it was important to only include participants who had access to each family-friendly benefit. Before running the chi-square analysis for each individual benefit, participants who did not have access to the examined benefit were eliminated from the database. See Table 12 for the breakdown of benefit availability and use by household structure.

Table 12

Benefit Availability and Utilization by Household Structure

Variable		Single Parent	Traditional	Dual Income	Total
Compressed WS	Availability	4878	33243	115449	153570
	Use	3322	16079	47013	66414
Flexible WS	Availability	5045	37468	134451	176964
	Use	4168	24880	92090	121138
Part-time	Availability	923	5496	28599	35018
	Use	676	153	12979	13808
Job Sharing	Availability	102	2148	3533	5783
	Use	5	100	197	302
Telework	Availability	968	14861	53633	69462
	Use	647	5324	28953	34924

Table 12 continues

Table 11

Benefit Availability and Utilization by Household Structure

Variable		Single Parent	Traditional	Dual Income	Total
Annual Leave	Availability	15580	87360	290811	393751
	Use	9579	49170	191590	250339
Sick Leave	Availability	15580	87360	290811	393751
	Use	9759	48016	185551	243326
Leave without Pay	Availability	15580	87360	290811	393751
	Use	1192	2063	22175	25430
Federal Child Care Centers	Availability	4556	15797	62420	82773
	Use	942	19	7308	8269
Child Care Subsidy Program	Availability	1716	6906	31809	40431
	Use	11	270	2820	3101
DCFSA	Availability	4166	25770	119048	148984
	Use	231	2698	39851	42780

A chi-square test showed a significant relationship between household structure and compressed work schedules, χ^2 (2) = 1882.89, $p < .001$. Employees who utilized compressed work schedules included 68.1% (n = 3322) of single parents, 48.4% (n = 16079) of traditional families, and 40.7% (n = 47013) of dual income employees. The Phi

coefficient measure of association while significant (p <.001) is small (φ =.111), indicating a rather weak effect in the population.

A chi-square test between household structure and flexible work schedules displayed a significant relationship, χ^2 (2) = 541.65, p < .001. A large majority of employees used flexible work schedules, as 82.6% (n = 4168) of single parent employees, 66.4% (n = 24880) of traditional family employees, and 68.5% (n = 92090) of dual income employees used flexible work schedules. The Phi coefficient was small (φ =.055, p <.001), indicating a negligible effect size.

A chi-square test demonstrated a significant relationship between household structure and part-time work schedules, χ^2 (2) = 3956.48, p < .001. Part-time schedules were extremely popular with single parents; 73.2% (n = 676) of single parent employees took advantage of this type of schedule. Many dual income employees also used part-time schedules; 45.4% (n = 12979) of dual income employees used part-time work schedules. Only 2.8% (n = 153) traditional family employees used part-time schedules. The measure of association (φ = .336, p <.001) indicates moderate effect size.

A chi-square test examining the use of job sharing schedules displayed no significant differences between household structures, χ^2 (2) = 2.31, *n.s.* Very few employees of any household structure with job sharing schedules available to them used them. Specifically, 4.9% (n = 5) of single parents, 4.7% (n = 100) of traditional family employees, and 5.6% (n = 197) of dual income employees utilized job sharing schedules. The measure of association is negligible (φ =.020, p <.001), indicating little to no effect in the population.

Significant differences between family structures were observed for utilization of

telework, χ^2 (2) = 1642.49, $p < .001$. The majority of single parent and dual income employees telework, as 66.8% ($n = 647$) of single parent employees and 54% ($n = 5324$) of dual income employees used telework. Only 35.8% ($n = 28953$) of traditional family employees used telework. The measure of association was small ($\varphi = .154$, $p < .001$) and indicated a rather weak effect in the population.

When examining annual leave, a chi-square test displayed a significant relationship between household structure and use of annual leave, χ^2 (2) = 2702.72, $p < .001$. All Federal government employees are offered the availability of annual leave. A majority of all types of employees used this type of benefit, as 61.5% ($n = 9579$) of single parent employees, 56.3% ($n = 49170$) of traditional family employees, and 65.9% ($n = 191590$) of dual income employees used annual leave. The measure of association was negligible ($\varphi = .083$, $p < .001$), which indicated no effect.

A chi-square showed significant differences between household structure and sick leave, χ^2 (2) = 2229.32, $p < .001$. All Federal government employees have sick leave available for use. Most employees used sick leave. Specifically, 62.6% ($n = 9759$) of single parent employees, 55% ($n = 48016$) of traditional family employees, and 63.8% ($n = 185551$) of dual income employees used sick leave. The Phi coefficient indicated a negligible effect ($\varphi = .075$, $p < .001$).

There were significant differences found between family structure and leave without pay, χ^2 (2) = 3119.20, $p < .001$. Although all Federal government employees are offered these benefits, few took advantage of them. Only 7.7% ($n = 1192$) of single parent employees, 2.4% ($n = 2063$) of traditional family employees, and 7.6% ($n =$

22175) of dual income employees used leave without pay. The measure of association was negligible (φ =.089, $p < .001$) and indicated no effect.

Significant differences were also found between family structure and use of Federal child care centers, χ^2 (2) = 2494.73, $p < .001$. Of the participants who had Federal child care centers available to them, few employees used this family-friendly benefit. Single parent employees were the most likely to use Federal child care centers, as 20.7% (n = 942) of single parent employees used them. Dual income employees were the next most likely to use Federal child care centers, as 11.7% (n = 7308) used this benefit. Only 0.1% (n = 19) of traditional family employees used Federal child care centers. The measure of association was small (φ =.154, $p < .001$) and indicated a weak effect.

A chi-square test displayed significant differences between household structure and participation in the Child Care Subsidy Program, χ^2 (2) = 321.81, $p < .001$. Dual income employees displayed the highest participation rate in use of the Child Care Subsidy Program, as 8.9% (n = 2820) of dual income employees used child care subsidies. Traditional families displayed the next highest rates, as 3.9% (n = 270) of traditional family employees participated in them. Only 0.6% (n = 11) of single parent employees who had access to Federal child care subsidies participated in this benefit. The measure of association was negligible (φ =.089, $p < .001$) and indicated no effect.

A chi-square test demonstrated a significant relationship between household structure and the DCFSA, χ^2 (2) = 6601.27, $p < .001$. Utilization of the DCFSA were used at a much higher rate with dual income employees, as 33.5% (n = 39851) of dual income employees who had access to this type of benefit used it. Some traditional family employees used the DCFSA, as 10.5% (n = 2698) of traditional employees participated in

the DCFSA. About 5.5% ($n = 231$) of single parent employees used the DCFSA. The measure of association ($\varphi = .210$, $p < .001$) indicates moderate effect size.

The results from the chi-square tests show full support for Hypothesis 7. Partial support was shown for Hypothesis 5a, 5b, 6a, and 6b.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

This study examined the role that family-friendly benefits play in organizational attraction and workplace withdrawal behaviors, as well as the impact that family structure can have on benefit utilization. Effects of family-friendly benefit utilization on workplace behaviors were found to vary across benefits and behaviors. This study contributed to the existing literature on the effect of family-friendly benefits on workplace behaviors. Further, this study provides direction for future research on the individual differences in household structure that take place between family-friendly benefits that are utilized.

Family-Friendly Benefits and Attraction

This study found that some specific family-friendly benefits were more likely to result in higher rates of attraction than others. Employees who used flexible schedules, part-time schedules, job sharing schedules, telework, annual leave, the Federal child care centers, and the DCFSA displayed higher levels of attraction to their organization when compared to employees who did not use these programs. Employees who used compressed work schedules, sick leave, and the Child Care Subsidy Program showed the opposite, as employees who used these benefits experienced lower rates of attraction towards the organizations when compared to individuals who did not use these services. Also, there was no significant difference in attraction between users and non-users of leave without pay. These findings were consistent with past research that showed organizations with flexible schedules and child care centers had more successful

recruitment efforts (Chambers, 1992; Rothausen et al., 1998; Schmidt & Duenas, 2002).

These results may indicate that employees are more attracted to organizations that offer a variety of benefits, including benefits that are not common. Many organizations acknowledge the importance of family-friendly programs and have tried to implement a few family-friendly policies or programs. Four out of the seven family-friendly benefits that resulted in higher attraction levels may be considered benefits that are not often offered in agencies (i.e., part-time, job sharing, telework, and child care centers; Bond et al., 2005; Galinsky & Bond, 1998). Further, use of the benefits that were associated with higher levels of attraction offered employees a variety of benefits that could be used to help with dependent care needs. There were benefits represented from all three types of family-friendly programs or policies (i.e., alternative work arrangements, leave time allowances, and dependent care services).

In addition, combinations of using several benefits were also noted to be related to higher levels of attraction. High attraction rates were noted for employees who used compressed schedules, flexible schedules, and telework together; employees who utilized compressed schedules, part-time, and telework together; employees who used flexible schedules, part-time, and telework altogether; employees who used both job sharing and telework; and employees who utilized part-time, job sharing, and telework together. Combinations of LTA were also significant, but did not show the high rates of attraction that was shown in combinations of AWA. These findings imply that offering several family-friendly benefits is helpful for gaining higher attraction rates. Giving employees the option to choose from many family-friendly benefits allows the individual to create the working condition which best suits their family and work needs.

When attracting potential new employees is essential to organizational performance, such as near impending retirement waves, an expanding organization, or high levels of turnover, organizations should be interested in implementing certain family-friendly programs, as well as making job applicants aware of the family-friendly benefits that are offered. This study suggests that some of the family-friendly supports that should be highlighted to job candidates are the benefits that are not typical in all Federal agencies, including part-time schedules, job sharing schedules, telework, annual leave, and child care centers or tax savings accounts. In addition, organizations should emphasize the variety of benefits that are offered at the workplace.

Family-Friendly Benefits and Absenteeism

Use of family-friendly benefits hypothetically should function to decrease levels of absenteeism in the organization. However, the results differ based on the way absenteeism was measured. Employees who used compressed schedules, flexible schedules, the Child Care Subsidy Program, and the DCFSA reported fewer behaviors of leave (e.g., arriving late, leaving early, taking leave for a sick dependent) as a result of their dependents when compared to individuals who did not use compressed or flexible schedules, the Child Care Subsidy Program, or the DCFSA.

These findings suggest that certain family-friendly benefits are more likely to assist employers in reducing employee leave behaviors (Ronen, 1981). Utilizing compressed work schedules allow employees to tend to planned family responsibilities, such as errands or a parent-teacher conference, on the employees' day off. This finding supported a previous finding suggesting compressed schedules were related to reductions in absenteeism and tardiness (Olmstead, 1994), but was inconsistent with other studies

that found use of compressed schedules did not help to decrease absenteeism (Baltes et al., 1999).

The finding that flexible schedules are related to lower leave behaviors supports previous studies' findings that flexible work schedules have a negative relationship with employee absenteeism (Baltes et al., 1999; Narayanan & Nath, 1982) and tardiness (Schmidt & Duenas, 2002). Flexible work schedules allow employees to alter their arrival or departure times to respond to family responsibilities (Ronen, 1981). Employees who have children with after-school activities may choose to arrive at work earlier so they are able to leave earlier and participate in the activities without taking time off in the afternoon.

The findings also show participation in the child care centers, subsidy program, and flexible spending accounts were related to lower levels of leave behaviors. Participation in the Child Care Subsidy Program and the DCFSA assist employees in gaining higher quality child care by allowing the employee to spend more money on child care. More expensive child care may often result in higher quality of child care. The Federal child care centers are noted to be of higher quality. High quality child care should result in fewer problems with child care services, leading to fewer reasons to leave early or arrive late to the workplace.

However, findings also indicate who Federal employees who utilized part-time schedules, job sharing, telework, annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay, and Federal child care centers display higher frequencies of leave behaviors when compared to individuals who do not use these policies or programs. Federal employees who utilized Federal child care centers display higher levels of absenteeism which supported previous

research (Kossek & Nichol, 1992). However, this finding does not support other previous research that enrollment in child care centers or telework was related to lower levels of employee absenteeism (Schmidt & Duenas, 2002; Milkovich & Gomez, 1976). Also, the positive relationships between Federal employees use of part-time schedules and leave behaviors was not consistent with past research which displayed utilization of part-time schedules were related to lower levels of tardiness (Bond et al., 2002).

Results imply that schedules allowing employees to work less than full time do not assist employees in reducing leave behaviors. That is, employees who used part-time and job sharing schedules were found to have higher rates of leave behaviors when compared to employees who did not use these types of schedules. Perhaps employees using part-time or job sharing schedules are not able to schedule many dependent care activities (e.g., parent teacher conferences, sports) on the days they have off. Further, this seems contradictory to what the results of this study had suggested about users of compressed schedules, as employees who used compressed schedules displayed lower frequencies of leave behaviors. One would expect that employees with extra time off during the week would schedule dependent care responsibilities (e.g., doctor's appointments) and activities (e.g., piano lessons) at this time to avoid taking additional time off.

This finding may imply that employees working full time with a day off may have a stronger commitment to the organization and may be less likely to take time off when unscheduled events occur during working hours. Employees working less than 40 hours a week may feel less commitment to the organization, and would be more likely to take time off when unscheduled events occur. Further, this would support a previous finding

that full time employees are more involved with their jobs than part-time employees (Thorsteinson, 2003).

Another explanation for why users of part-time and job sharing schedules report higher rates of leave behaviors could be associated with the child(ren)'s age. There are more part-time workers in the prime childrearing years (27% of women part-timers) than other age categories (Comfort, Johnson, & Wallace, 2003). Child care is expensive and it may cost more to use child care than the extra income earned from part-time work. When parents can adjust their schedule or work less hours a week, they may be able to have spouses, relatives, or neighbors watch younger children during the actual hours that are worked. Younger career-oriented part-timers are likely to choose this work schedule as a short term way to balance maintaining a career and remaining with the Federal government and taking care of dependent responsibilities.

Teleworking employees also did not show reduced leave behaviors, as users of telework displayed higher frequencies of leave behaviors when compared to employees that did not use telework. Many employees who used telework do not use this benefit on a consistent basis and instead telecommute when scheduled events arise. Also, some supervisors may not allow employees to telework when unplanned events occur, such as working from home when a child is sick in bed.

In analyses examining the number of hours employees take leave to meet dependent care needs, only Federal workers who used job sharing schedules reported taking fewer hours off when compared to individuals who do not use job sharing schedules or sick leave. Employees who used compressed schedules, flexible schedules, part-time schedules, annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay, Federal child care

centers, and the DCFSA reported higher hours of leave taken when compared to those individuals who did not utilize these family-friendly benefits. There were no significant differences in the number of hours of leave taken between users and non-users of telework and the Child Care Subsidy Program.

Results support past research indicating compressed schedules do not influence absenteeism. However, they do not support the literature that indicates flexible work schedules or part-time work help to reduce employee absenteeism (Baltes et al., 1999; Bond et al., 2002; Narayanan & Nath, 1982). Also, these results do not support past literature which has found users of child care centers have lower absenteeism rates when compared to non-participants (Milkovich & Gomez, 1979) or studies that have shown no significant differences in absenteeism between users of child care centers and non-users of child care (Chambers, 1992; Goff et al., 1990; Kossek & Nichol, 1992).

Individuals who use job sharing schedules have a few days off during the week where they can schedule dependent care responsibilities. This type of schedule also expects that someone is needed on the job during the full duration of the week and thus, may be less likely to be absent completely on work days. Also, because taking leave in general would contribute to the number of hours an employee is absent from work, it makes sense that users of annual leave, sick leave, and leave without pay would show a higher number of hours absent when compared to employees who did not utilize these benefits.

It is interesting to note that several family-friendly benefits (i.e., compressed schedules, flexible schedules, the Child Care Subsidy Program, and the DCFSA) were related to lower levels of leave behaviors, but only job sharing was related to lower

number of hours absent. The results show that each measure of absenteeism assesses different behaviors. The measure of leave behaviors is a measure of absenteeism that tends to evaluate parental behaviors of taking an hour or two off in the morning or in the afternoon, whereas the absenteeism measure of number of hours absent is likely to also include whole days taken off as a result of sick days and vacations. That is, leave behaviors may be more specific and number of hours taken may be more general.

It seems that the effect that family-friendly benefit use has on absenteeism depends how absenteeism is measured. Further, the organization should take into account what type of absenteeism behavior they are interested in reducing. If the organization deems it more beneficial to reduce or eliminate inconsistent leave behaviors, such as arriving late, the organization should implement and support family-friendly programs that help employees manage this behavior. This study suggests compressed and flexible work schedules, child care subsidies, and tax-free dependent care savings accounts will assist the employee in this process. However, if the organization is more interested in reducing the number of total hours that employees are absent, the organization should implement and support job sharing schedules.

Family-Friendly Benefits and Retention and Turnover Intention

Hypothetically, use of all types of family-friendly benefits should result in higher levels of retention for the organization. This study showed that use of flexible schedules, job sharing, telework, annual leave, leave without pay, Federal child care centers, the Child Care Subsidy Program, and the DCFSA were positively related to employees' plans to stay with their current job. This supports previous research which shows offering child care benefits has a favorable impact on employee tenure and retention (Friedman,

1989; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Miller, 1984) and research indicating users of child care programs had higher levels of loyalty towards their employer (Roehling, Roehling, & Moen, 2001).

Several benefits that revealed associations with higher levels of retention are not common in many organizations, including part-time schedules, job sharing, telework, leave without pay, employer-sponsored child care centers, and child care subsidy programs (Baughman et al., 2003; Hofferth, 1996). Offering *atypical* family-friendly benefits may encourage employees to stay in their current positions, as they may not want to lose the assistance they receive from participating in that benefit. Knowing certain benefits are not common in other organizations may persuade employees to stay at their current organization.

Further, remaining in one's current position and utilizing an organization's child care center may result in a reduction of problems associated with child care (Kossek & Nichol, 1992) and provides continuity for parents and children enrolled in Federal child care centers or participating in the Child Care Subsidy Program. Past research has shown mothers return to work more quickly after childbirth when they have access to part-time work, liberal leave policies, and a flexible spending account (Hofferth, 1996). Offering these benefits helps retain employees sooner then they would without these benefits. These policies would also be particularly attractive to employees who plan to have more children, making employees more likely to stay in organizations that offer part-time, liberal leave, and the DCFSA.

Employees who used compressed schedules and sick leave were less likely to stay in their current position when compared to workers who did not use compressed

schedules and sick leave. Since sick leave is a popular benefit (both in number and employee favorability; Bond et al., 2005; Glass & Finley, 2002), it makes sense that employees would not feel the need to stay at their current job in order to experience the advantages of that benefit. Further, this finding does not support previous research which found no evidence that flexible work schedules effect subsequent rates of employee turnover (Dalton & Mesch, 1990), but does support findings implying flexible schedules reduce turnover (Schmidt & Duenas, 2002).

The findings for retention suggest that family-friendly benefits are important for retaining employees. First, the majority of employees using family-friendly benefits reported a higher likelihood of remaining in their current job. Further, the use of one benefit (sick leave) that did not show higher rates of retention could be explained by the popularity of these benefits. That is, agencies offering family-friendly benefits in general are more likely to experience higher rates of retention. Agencies that do not offer popular family-friendly benefits (such as sick leave) may lose valuable employees simply because they do not offer these supports. Because these benefits are so widespread, many employees may have an expectation that an organization will offer these benefits. They may not consider accepting a position or remaining with an employer that does not offer them.

Likewise, it was expected that users of family-friendly benefits would be less likely to have intentions to turnover, either within an employing agency, within the Federal government, or outside the Federal government. The effect of family-friendly benefit utilization on turnover intention varied depending on the benefit used and the subject (e.g., own agency versus Federal government) of turnover intention.

Employees utilizing compressed work schedules showed lower levels of turnover intent outside the Federal government, but showed higher levels of turnover intent within their agency and outside their agency. This implies that if individuals using compressed work schedules have intent to turnover, they are most likely to leave the Federal government altogether. Compressed work schedules seem to be more common in some organizations than others (Brewer, 2000), and may be more common in the Federal government as opposed the private sector. This result is surprising, as it may be a reason to continue working for the Federal government.

Individuals who used flexible schedules showed lower levels of turnover intent within their agency, outside the agency, and outside the Federal government, when compared to individuals who did not use flexible schedules. These results shows flexible schedule users have lower intentions to turnover when compared to employees who do not use flexible schedules. This finding was consistent with previous research (Grover & Crooker, 1995) and also supports previous research showing that flexible schedules are associated with higher levels of organizational commitment (Scandura & Lankau, 1997). Further, this result is also consistent with this study's finding that individuals using flexible schedules are more likely to stay in their current position than individuals not using flexible schedules.

Employees who had part-time schedules displayed higher intentions to leave within the agency or outside the Federal government, but lower intentions to leave one's Federal agency. This finding implies that users of part-time schedules demonstrate higher intentions to leave their current workgroup and the Federal government altogether. This finding may also imply that the individual is not considering looking for jobs in other

agencies in the Federal government. This result was unexpected, as part-time schedules have shown negative relationships with turnover (Bond et al., 2002) and are not offered in many other organizations (Hofferth, 1996), which would make it difficult to find outside the public sector. Perhaps employees who use part-time schedules do not plan to use part-time schedules for long periods and do not need the special scheduling offered in Federal government agencies for a long time. They may also be considering leaving the workforce altogether.

Individuals who used job sharing schedules displayed higher intentions to turnover within the agency, outside one's agency, and outside the Federal government. This finding is surprising, as it was expected individuals with job sharing schedules would not be likely to leave their organization, as they are in a position that is not typical and would have difficulty finding elsewhere. Also, this finding is inconsistent with this study's finding that users of job sharing schedules were more likely to stay in their current position. The findings of higher turnover intentions in general with users of part-time and job sharing schedules imply that employees who do not work full time seem to have lower levels of commitment toward the organization and the Federal government. However, there is little research on less than full time schedules and the benefit they may provide to employers, making it difficult to speculate on why these findings occurred.

Employees who utilized telework demonstrated lower intentions of leaving within agency, outside the agency, and outside the Federal government. These results support past research which indicated use of telecommuting has reduced turnover (International Telework Association & Council, 2001) and individuals using telework have shown increased interest in continuing employment with their agencies (Joice & Verive, 2006).

This finding also supports the results from the present study that employees who used telework show higher levels of staying in their position when compared to individuals not using telework.

Individuals who used annual leave displayed higher intentions of turnover within and outside the agency, but demonstrated lower turnover intentions towards outside the government. This finding implies that individuals using annual leave are not likely to leave the Federal government altogether if they have intentions to leave their current position. Annual leave is offered to all Federal government employees and accumulated leave can carry over into the new year. Therefore, it seems reasonable that employees who want to take advantage of paid leave would consider leaving their workgroup and agency, but would still want to remain in the Federal government.

Users of sick leave showed lower turnover intentions directed outside their agency, but higher turnover intentions directed towards leaving the Federal government altogether. There were no significant differences in turnover intent within the agency between users and non-users of sick leave. These findings were partially consistent with past research that shows providing flexible sick leave is associated with decreases in turnover (Baughman et al., 2003). Further, these findings may imply that the individual is intending to leave the Federal government altogether. As noted earlier, sick leave is a family-friendly benefit often offered by many organizations (Baughman et al., 2001). Employees may not feel that they need to stay in the Federal government in order to take advantage of the assistance that sick leave provides.

Users of leave without pay showed higher intentions to leave within and outside the agency and Federal government. Employees who used leave without pay may be

likely to lack a commitment or connection to the organization. Use of leave without pay typically occurs when mothers have children, employees return to school, and military orders are given. In many of these situations the leave may be for an extended period of time and employees may not be convinced that returning to the organization is in their best interest. For example, expectant mothers who go on leave without pay to give birth and stay at home with their child for the first couple of months may decide remaining at home is more important than a career. Additionally, this new mother may decide that returning to work is important, but only on a reduced hour schedule or with a position that demands less workload.

Employees who utilized Federal child care centers showed lower intentions to leave within and outside the agency and the Federal government. These findings are consistent with past research indicating child care center participants displayed lower rates of turnover (Chambers, 1992; Milkovich & Gomez, 1976; Youngblood & Chambers-Cook, 1984). In addition, these findings supported the former result that users of Federal child care centers displayed higher rates of retention in one's current position. Employees who utilized Federal child care centers are likely to enjoy the quality of care that is provided, as well as the convenience of having the location of the center near the workplace. These two benefits make it difficult for employees to leave their current organization and the Federal government altogether.

Employees who utilized the Child Care Subsidy Program demonstrated higher levels of turnover intention within the agency and outside the government and displayed lower levels of intention to turnover outside the agency. These results support past research, which has found that assistance with child care costs did not significantly

impact employees' intent to leave (Grover & Crooker, 1995). It is surprising that assistance with child care expenses was not related to lower levels of turnover intention within the agency, especially since child care subsidies are not common in organizations.

The positive relationship between use of the Child Care Subsidy Program and turnover intent outside the agency and outside the Federal government may show that employees believe this benefit will still be available if they move to another part of the Federal agency. Also, the subsidy given may not cover enough of the cost to make a substantial difference. Another reason participation in the Child Care Subsidy Program may not be related to reductions in turnover may be a result of the eligibility requirements and the effort taken to determine eligibility could be taxing on participating individuals.

Employees that used the DCFSA showed higher intentions to turnover within the agency, but showed lower intentions of leaving the agency or the Federal government. This is consistent with past research (Baughman et al., 2003; Hofferth, 1996) which has found negative effects on turnover among employees using or being offered dependent care flexible savings accounts. Tax free savings accounts for child care seem to be a good way for organizations to lower turnover intention in a less expensive manner.

When controlling for age, most of the family-friendly benefits did not have an effect on turnover intention. Only users of part-time, job sharing, leave without pay, Federal child care centers, Child Care Subsidy Program, and DCFSA displayed lower levels of turnover intent. These findings did not support past research indicating that flexible schedules, telework, and sick leave have negative relationships with turnover intent (Baughman et al., 2003; Bond et al., 2002; Grover & Crooker, 1995; International

Telework Association & Council, 2001; Joice & Verive, 2006). These results did support the literature suggesting child care benefits have a positive impact on an employees' intent to stay with the organization (Baughman et al., 2003; Chambers, 1992; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Hofferth, 1996; Milkovich & Gomez, 1976; Youngblood & Chambers-Cook, 1984). Further, the analyses displayed a higher effect size when controlling for age, indicating a higher level of variance is accounted for. This effect shows that age does seem to impact an employee's thoughts about leaving their organization due to their dependent care needs. It seems that organizations that have employees of all ages should focus efforts on dependent care services when they are interested in reducing turnover intentions.

There are many inconsistencies with this study's findings and past research, as well as inconsistencies in past research (Baltes et al., 1999; Bond et al., 2002; Chambers, 1992; Goff et al., 1990; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Milkovich & Gomez, 1976; Narayanan & Nath, 1982; Rothausen et al., 1998; Schmidt & Duenas, 2002). It could be proposed that the discrepancies in the effect of benefit utilization on organizational attraction and workplace withdrawal behavior outcomes may be due to moderating variables. That is, other variables may be affecting the impact that using benefits has on various behavioral outcomes. Recently, Wang and Walumbwa (2007) suggested that transformational leadership may moderate the relationship between availability of family-friendly benefits and organizational commitment, and the relationship between availability of family-friendly benefits and work withdrawal. Some of the results from this study suggest that child age may also moderate these results. That is, employees who have younger children may show higher rates of organizational attraction and retention or lower rates of

turnover intention when they use various benefits such as child care centers and subsidies and part-time or job sharing schedules. Certain family-friendly benefits are more likely to be useful to employees with younger children. Future research should examine the effect of various moderating variables on the relationship between benefit utilization and behaviors of employees.

Household Structure and Family-Friendly Benefits

Due to the different demands placed on various household structures, it was expected that dual income, single parent, and traditional family employees would display differences in the benefits they utilized. Dual income families were most likely to use flexible work schedules (69%), annual (66%) and sick (64%) leave, and telework (54%). Many dual income employees also used part-time schedules (45%), compressed work schedules (41%), and the DCFSA (34%). Fewer dual income employees used the Federal child care centers (12%), the Child Care Subsidy Program (9%), leave without pay (8%), and job sharing schedules (6%). These results show that AWA seem to be one of the better ways for dual income employees to cope with the management of work and family responsibilities. The high levels of compressed schedule utilization was expected, as dual income families have the availability of another parental figure to handle dependents' needs, while the parent utilizing the compressed schedule can stay at work later without concern (Saltzstein et al., 2001).

Single parent employees showed the highest utilization rates of family-friendly benefits altogether. A large majority of single parents utilized flexible work schedules (83%), part-time schedules (73%), compressed work schedules (68%), telework (67%), sick (63%) and annual (62%) leave. Fewer single parent employees used the Federal

child care centers (21%), leave without pay (8%), the DCFSA (6%), job sharing schedules (5%), and the Child Care Subsidy Program (1%).

Single parents are highly likely to use both AWA and LTA to manage their responsibilities with both family and work lives. The large number of single parent employees who utilized Federal child care centers supported the notion that on-site child care is most important for employees without a familiar care or backup (Kossek & Nichol, 1992).

The high compressed work schedule usage rate is surprising, as research has suggested that these schedules are difficult for families with only one parent. Most available day care does not usually coincide with these schedules and school age children would not be at home and benefit from the day off (Saltzstein et al., 2001). Perhaps single parents have found day care options that have adjusted to compressed schedule hours or have utilized family or friends to assist with the drop-off and pick-up times. Single parents may have also determined that the one or two days off is more essential to managing multiple responsibilities alone and may have figured out some way for this schedule to work. If the employee's children are older, it would be much easier to maintain this type of schedule, as schools often offer after-school care programs that go into later hours and many older children have become "latch key" kids.

It was also surprising that such a small percentage of single parents participate in the Child Care Subsidy Program, as it was believed that single parents tend to have less financial resources to pay for child care (Kossek, 1990). Further, over 60% of single parents participating in the study may have met the financial income eligibility requirements (see Table 3). Perhaps many of the lower income single parents were living

in areas where the subsidy program eligibility requirements specified a lower salary. Single parents are managing both work and family responsibilities alone and may lack the time needed to become aware of and determine eligibility for the Child Care Subsidy Program. Further, previous research has noted the lack of advertising about these types of programs in the Federal government (Wells & Clever, 2007).

Two additional results that were unexpected, but understandable, were the higher than anticipated frequencies for child care centers and part-time work. It was expected that single parents would not be as likely to utilize the Federal child care centers because they are expensive when compared to other child care centers in the area. However, single parents have the greatest need for child care, as they do not have a spouse to assist with the caregiving process. While these centers are costly, the convenience (being near the workplace) and quality of child care at the Federal child care centers may be worth the extra cost. Perhaps the extra cost may be subsidized by another parent who is paying child support. Further, it is probable that many single parents are more comfortable with having a child care center location near the workplace, as the close location gives the parent a feeling of security in case an emergency arises.

Utilizing part-time work was also not expected for single parents because of the reduction in pay they would receive. However, using part-time or job sharing schedules would allow single parents to earn an income and care for children. Further, the child(ren)'s age may affect the utilization of working less than full time schedules. As children get older, they enroll in schools allowing for full day and free care (if public-schooled). Younger children will require single parents to either care for their children, get help from family, or pay for private care. In addition, some single parents may be

receiving income from other sources in order to supplement their reduced salary, including from child support payments, financial support from parents or relatives, and having second jobs outside the government. Another explanation is that users of part time schedules may be working in a second career position. This may include former military employees or individuals that have retired from another job.

Traditional family employees were the least likely to use family-friendly benefits overall. Many traditional family individuals used flexible work schedules (66%), annual (56%) and sick (55%) leave, compressed work schedules (48%), and telework (36%). They were less likely to use the DCFSA (11%), the Child Care Subsidy Program (4%), part-time schedules (3%), job sharing schedules (5%), leave without pay (2%), and Federal child care centers (less than 1%). This result shows that traditional family employees are not utilizing family-friendly programs in the same capacity as dual income and single parent employees. Since traditional family employees have one parent to manage the work responsibilities and another parent to handle the family responsibilities, it makes sense that employees from traditional families would utilize family-friendly benefits less often when compared to other household structures. In general, these results supported past research where participants noted the most popular and valued family-friendly benefit options as flexible sick leave, flexible schedules, and working from home (Allen, 2001; Glass & Finley, 2002; Thompson et al., 1999).

When examining the utilization of benefits across benefit categorization, several points were noted. Of the three groups of benefits, AWA are the most popular, LTA are the second most utilized, and DCS are the least used. Please see Figures 6, 7, and 8 for the usage rates by household structure for AWA, LTA, and DCS, respectively. These

results took into account what employees had these benefits available to them and for dependent care services, only employees with children under the age of 13 were examined. The results imply that in general, AWA seem to be the best family-friendly benefits to implement if only a few supports can be employed.

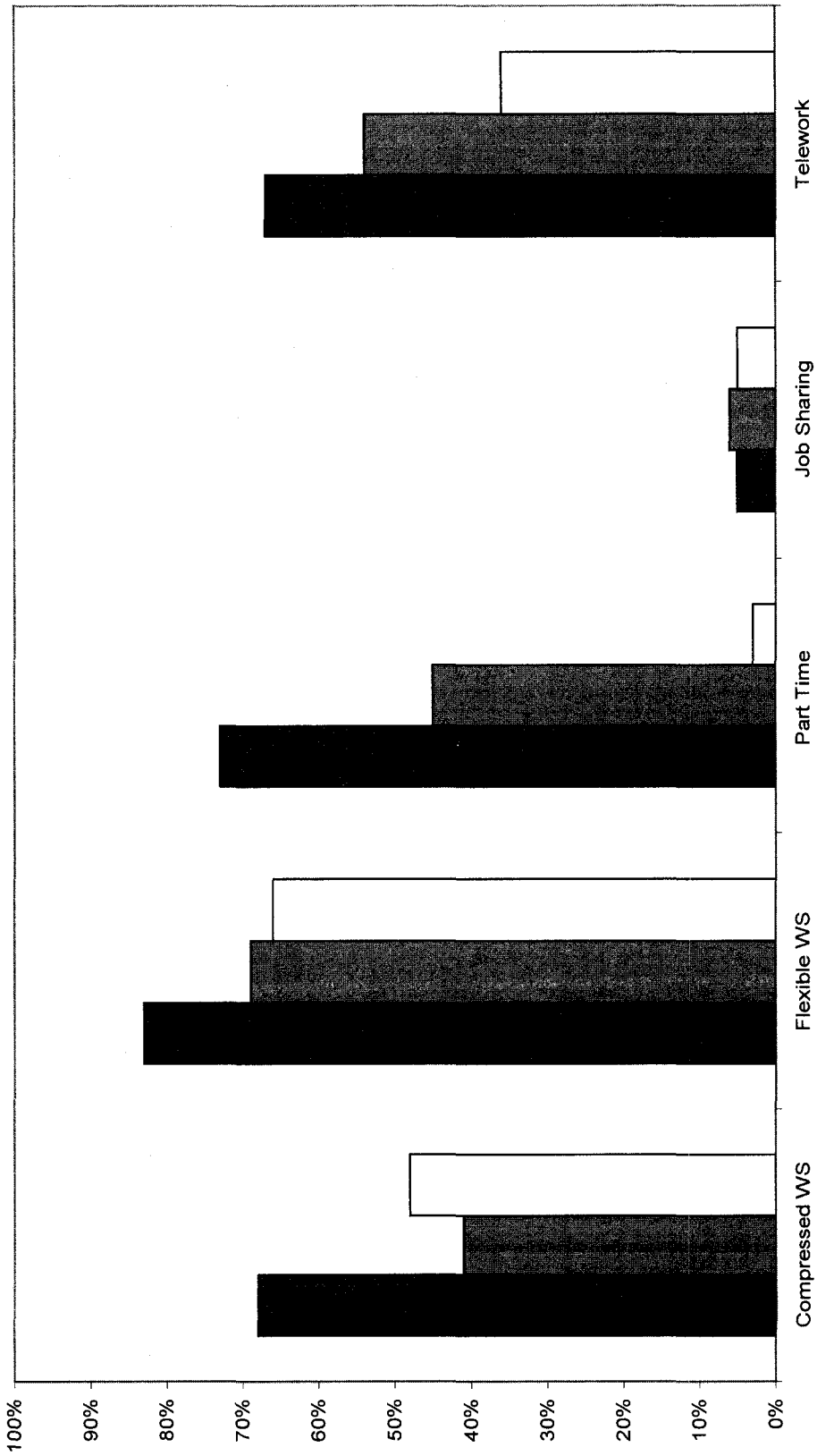

Figure 6. Percentage of employees by household structure who use Alternative Work Arrangements.

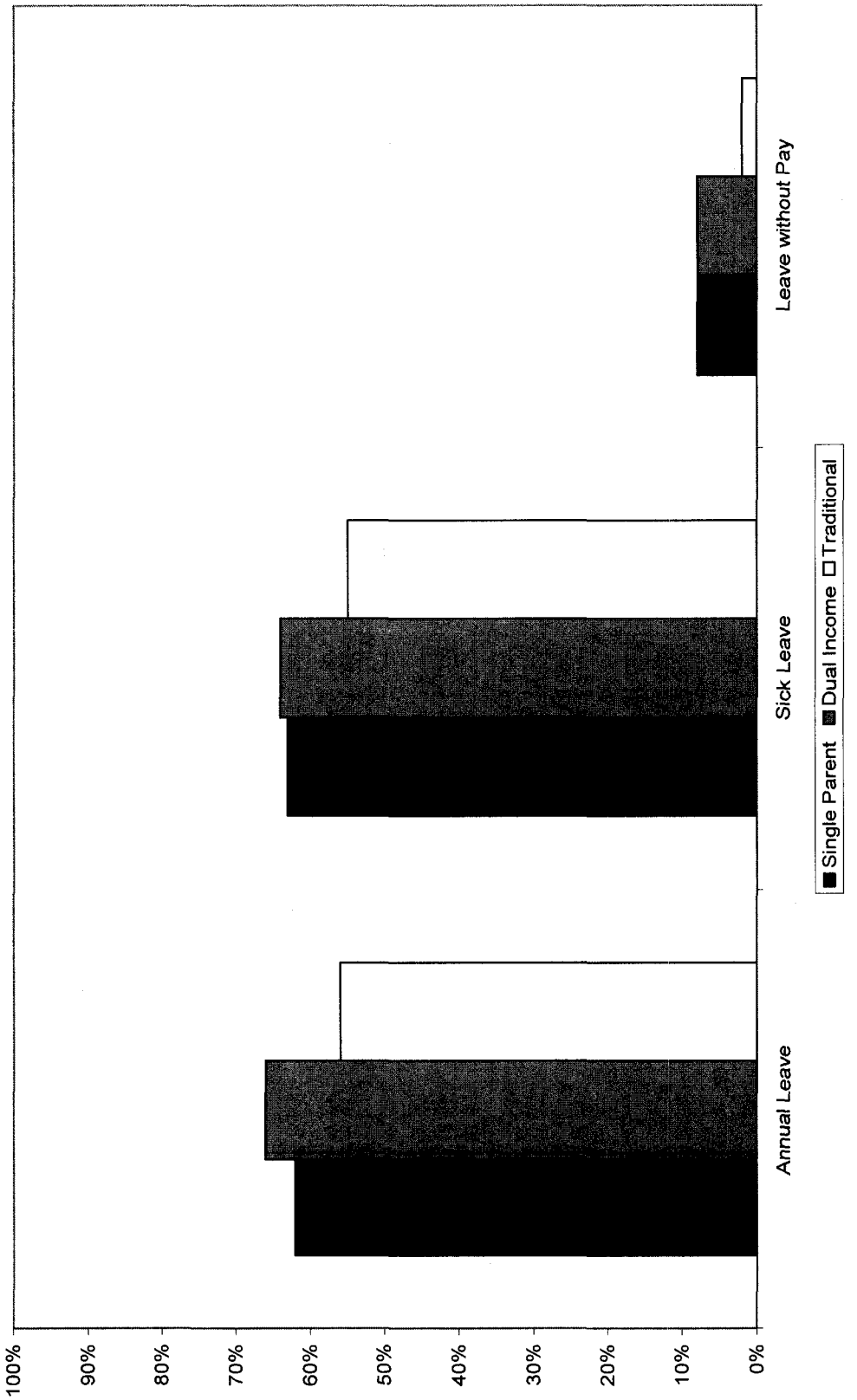

Figure 7. Percentage of employees by household structure who use Leave Time Allowances.

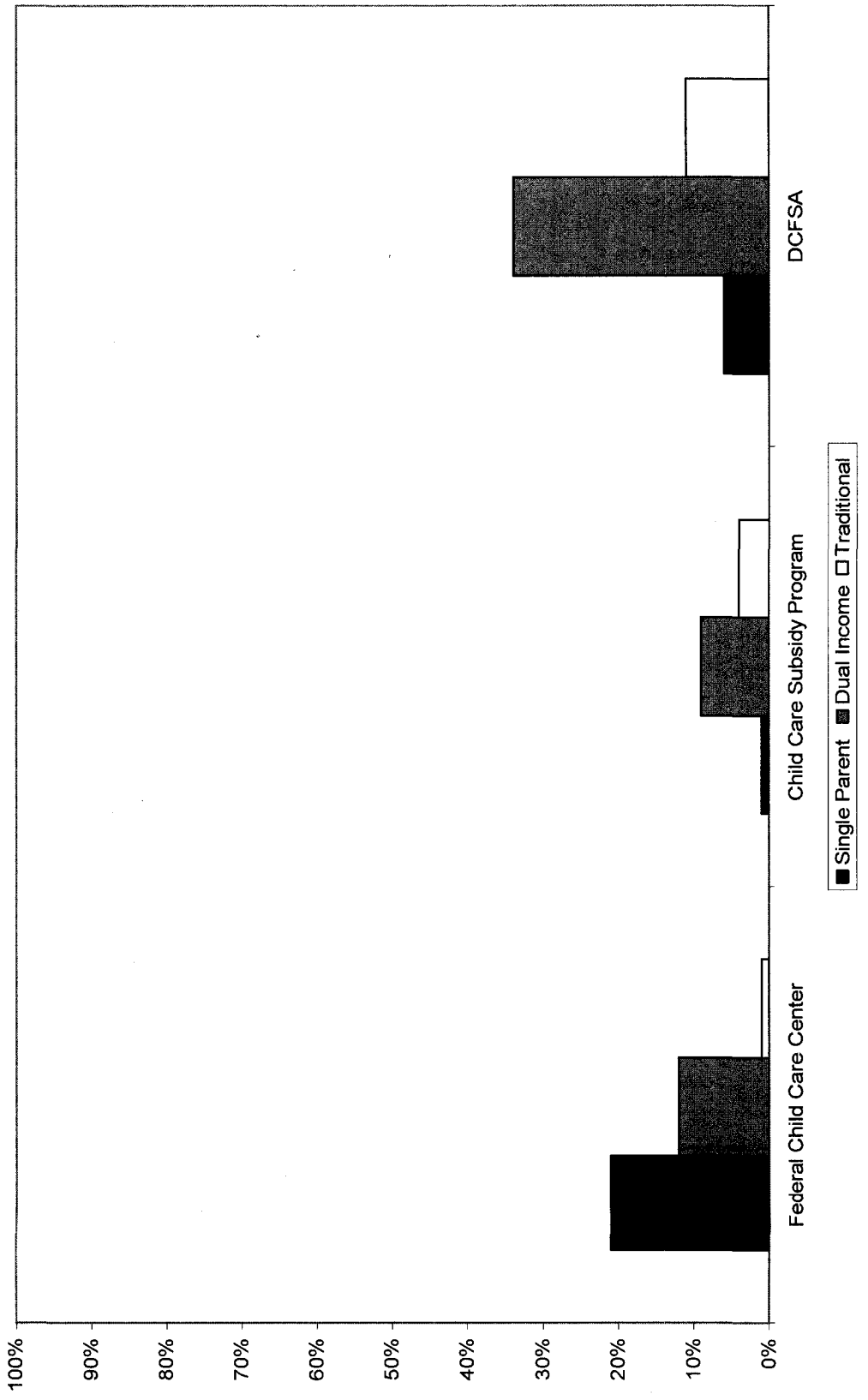

Figure 8. Percentage of employees by household structure who use Dependent Care Services.

Strengths and Limitations

The major limitation of this study is that it was part of a larger study and the items used and their wording was constrained by interests and policies outside the control of researchers. Multiple-item measures of some of the outcomes (i.e., attraction, retention) would have been more reliable than the single-item measures that were used. It would have also been interesting to measure the frequency with which family-friendly benefits were used, rather than dichotomizing responses for utilization of supports.

The use of a sample comprised only of Federal government employees is both a strength and limitation of this study. The literature on family-friendly benefits has largely been conducted with private-sector samples, with few studies using public sector samples (Saltzstein et al., 2001). This makes it difficult to generalize results of studies with private-sector participants to public-sector employees and organizations. However, because the Federal government is the largest employer in the U.S., the findings of this study may be generalized to large organizations that have the financial resources and capacity to implement many family-friendly programs. Further, it is important to examine this population with respect to family-friendly benefits because the Federal government was the first to implement family-friendly programs and policies (Bruce & Reed, 1994). Future research should examine the private sector on family-friendly benefit availability and utilization to determine which sector offers more family-friendly programs and policies and if there are differences in the utilization of family-friendly benefits between public and private sector organizations.

All survey items were obtained through self response, which introduces common method bias (Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002). Since the employees reported their

own rates of absenteeism and turnover intentions, they may not be as accurate as utilizing more objective measures of employee absence rates and actual turnover rates (e.g., agency employment records). It has been suggested employees who self-report absence rates over a year may not be accurate due to memory losses (Kossek, 1990). Although self report data has limitations, there are also strengths in the self reported responses of this survey. Each outcome variable was referenced towards the participants' dependent care responsibilities. That is, the reported rates of family-friendly benefit utilization, attraction, retention, absenteeism, and turnover intent were directly associated with an employee's dependent care responsibilities. For example, there are many reasons an employee may intend to turnover in their organization, but this study asks about intent to turnover because of dependent care responsibilities. By utilizing self report data and referencing dependent care responsibilities, the findings should more accurately reflect the impact family-friendly benefits have on helping employees manage their work and home responsibilities (Kossek, 1990).

Further, the study was conducted as a cross sectional design, in which survey data was collected at one period of time. Because the study was not longitudinal in nature, the findings cannot be inferred as causal, which leads to an issue of internal validity. This does not allow any causal inferences to be made on the benefits being used and the outcomes that result.

Conclusions

This study provides evidence that various family-friendly benefits result in differences in organizational attraction and workplace withdrawal behaviors. Human Resource departments should be clear on what outcomes are expected when

implementing family-friendly programs, as certain family-friendly supports will be more likely to result in increased levels of attraction, whereas others will be more likely to result in reductions of different workplace withdrawal behaviors. Depending on the results that are expected and preferred, organizations should implement and support particular family-friendly policies and programs.

Specifically, organizations that are interested in increasing their recruitment of employees should implement and encourage employees to utilize atypical family-friendly benefits, such as flexible schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework, annual leave, child care centers, and tax-free savings accounts for dependents. When concerned with absenteeism levels, leaders of organizations should first determine what type of absenteeism tends to have a detrimental effect on that particular organization. If reducing leave behaviors are the primary concern, flexible work arrangements such as compressed and flexible schedules, and assistance with financial resources with child care should be emphasized. If reducing the total number of hours that employees are absent is the focus, job sharing schedules should be stressed. Many family-friendly programs will increase the likelihood that employees will remain in their current positions, including flexible schedules, job sharing, telework, annual leave, leave without pay, child care centers and subsidies, and tax free savings accounts. Different family-friendly benefits results impact turnover intentions in various part of an organization. Intentions to turnover varied depending on what type of benefit was utilized and what type of turnover was being measured, as well as if age is considered a factor in the intent to turnover. In general, almost every family-friendly benefit affected turnover intention in a positive manner in some capacity. Implementing numerous family-friendly benefits seems to reduce

turnover intentions for employees.

In addition, organizations should be more interested in determining what is needed for employees in the organization to manage their family responsibilities. As the results in this study displayed, individual differences of employees must be taken into consideration when implementing family-friendly programs and policies. The differences in employees, including gender, household structure, and dependent care responsibilities, among others, will affect the use of family-friendly supports and how these benefits can help decrease workplace withdrawal behaviors and increase overall performance. It is essential for organizations to tailor family-friendly programs to employee characteristics and needs. The advantages of benefit programs will not be realized unless employees use them. Employees will not utilize these programs unless they fit their needs. Future research should explore other individual differences that may be important in the usage of family-friendly benefits (e.g., child age). Additionally, it is important to reexamine the impact that family-friendly benefits can have on employee attitudes and behaviors when the programs are tailored to employee needs. The inconsistencies in the literature in the effect of family-friendly benefit utilization may be due to organizations implementing programs and policies that are not needed for specific organizations.

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Appendix A

LIST OF ITEMS FOR SURVEY

Scale	Items
Benefit Availability	
Flexible work arrangements	WD3. Some agencies offer flexible work options to employees. Which options are available to you? **Mark all that apply**. o 1. Compressed Work Schedule (CWS)/Alternative Work Schedule (AWS) (A fixed work schedule that enables you to complete an 80 hour pay period in less than 10 days) o 2. Flexible Work Schedule (FWS)/Alternative Work Schedule (AWS) (A work schedule that allows you to choose arrival and departure times within flexible time bands while maintaining certain agency-determined core hours) o 3. Part-time work o 4. Job sharing (where two people share a single job) o 5. Telework (telecommuting or work-from-home)
Dependent Care Services	FP. Are the following child care programs/benefits offered by your agency **now**? Federal Child Care Center o No o Yes o Don't Know FS. Are the following child care programs/benefits offered by your agency **now**? Child Care Subsidy Program o No o Yes o Don't Know WD7. Does your agency offer a Dependent Care Flexible Spending Account (DCFSA) now? If you are not sure what a DCSFA is, please see the definitions. o No o Yes o Don't know

Benefit Utilization	WD6. Which of the following work schedules or benefits have you used in the **past 12 months** to manage your dependent care responsibilities? **Mark all that apply**.
Alternative Work Arrangements	o 1. Compressed Work Schedule (CWS)/Alternative Work Schedule (AWS) (A fixed work schedule that enables you to complete an 80 hour pay period in less than 10 days) o 2. Flexible Work Schedule (FWS)/ Alternative Work Schedule (AWS)/ (A work schedule that allows you to choose arrival and departure times within flexible time bands while maintaining certain agency-determined core hours) o 3. Part-time work o 4. Job sharing (where two people share a single job) o 5. Telework (telecommuting or work-from-home)
Leave Time Allowances	o 6. Annual leave o 7. Sick Leave o 8. Leave without pay
Dependent Care Services	FP1. Do you currently use a Federal Child Care Center? If you are not sure what a Federal Child Care Center is, please see the survey definitions. o No (**skip to item FP5**) o Yes FS1. Do you currently participate in the Child Care Subsidy Program? If you are not sure what the Child Care Subsidy Program is, please see the survey definitions. o No (**Skip to FS4**) o Yes WD8. Are you or any other adult in your household currently enrolled in a DCFSA? o No (**Skip to item WD10**) o Yes
Attraction	AC1. Was access to child care benefits/programs important to your

	decision to accept a job with the Federal Government? o No o Yes o Not applicable WD4. How important was access to flexible work options in your decision to take your current job? o Not at all important o Slightly important o Moderately important o Very important o Extremely important o Not applicable
Retention	AC2. Is access to child care benefits/programs important to your decision to remain in the Federal Government? o No o Yes o Not applicable WD5. How important is the availability of flexible work options to your plans to stay in your current job? o Not at all important o Slightly important o Moderately important o Very important o Extremely important o Not applicable
Absenteeism	Thinking of your work over the **past 12 months**, approximately how often have issues with your dependent care (for both children and adults) caused you to… WD11. arrive late to work? o Never o 1-3 times o 4-6 times o 7-9 times o 10 or more WD12. leave work early? o Never o 1-3 times o 4-6 times o 7-9 times o 10 or more

	WD13. take leave because of a sick dependent? o Never o 1-3 times o 4-6 times o 7-9 times o 10 or more WD14. take leave because of an **unplanned** change in your dependent care (for example, provider is unavailable; closed dependent care facility)? o Never o 1-3 times o 4-6 times o 7-9 times o 10 or more WD15. take leave because of **planned** events (for example, school vacation/teacher in-service days)? o Never o 1-3 times o 4-6 times o 7-9 times o 10 or more WD16. During the **past 12 months** approximately how many hours of your **leave** have you had to take to meet your dependent care needs (for both children and/or adults)? Estimate to the nearest hour. o None o 1 o 2 o 3 o . o . o . o 38 o 39 o 40 o More than 40
Turnover Intention	WD17. In the past **12 months**, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to look for a new job within your current Federal agency?

- o No
- o Yes
- o Not applicable

WD18. In the past **12 months**, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to look for a new job with another Federal agency?

- o No
- o Yes
- o Not applicable

WD19. In the past **12 months**, have your needs to meet your dependent care responsibilities caused you to look for a new job outside the Federal government?

- o No
- o Yes
- o Not applicable

Appendix B

PROPOSED ANALYSES

Hypothesis 1a: Among employees with child dependents, individuals that utilize AWA (i.e., compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework) will show higher rates of attraction to their agency as compared to individuals that do not utilize AWA.

IV 1: Use of Compressed Work Schedule (WS)
IV 2: Use of Flexible WS
IV 3: Use of Part-time WS
IV 4: Use of Job Sharing WS
IV 5: Use of Telework
DV: Attraction

ANALYSIS: 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 Factorial ANOVA

Hypothesis 1b: Among employees with child dependents, individuals that utilize LTA (i.e., annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay) will show higher rates of attraction to their agency as compared to individuals that do not utilize LTA.

IV 1: Use of Annual Leave
IV 2: Use of Sick Leave
IV 3: Use of Leave without Pay
DV: Attraction

ANALYSIS: 2 x 2 x 2 Factorial ANOVA

Hypothesis 1c: Among employees with child dependents, individuals that utilize DCS (i.e., Federal Child Care Centers, Federal Child Care subsidiaries, DCFSA) will show higher rates of attraction to their agency as compared to individuals that do not utilize DCS.

IV 1: Use of Federal Child Care Center
IV 2: Use of Child Care Subsidy Program
IV 3: Use of DCFSA
DV: Attraction

ANALYSIS: Logistic Regression

Hypothesis 2a: Among employees with child dependents, those who use AWA (i.e., compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework) will display lower frequencies of absenteeism as compared to individuals who do not utilize these supports.

IV 1: Use of Compressed WS
IV 2: Use of Flexible WS
IV 3: Use of Part-time WS
IV 4: Use of Job Sharing WS
IV 5: Use of Telework
DV 1: Absenteeism (One overall construct- Average items)
DV 2: # of days Absent

ANALYSIS: 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 Factorial MANOVA

Hypothesis 2b: Among employees with child dependents, those who use LTA (i.e., annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay) will display lower frequencies of absenteeism as compared to individuals who do not utilize these supports.

IV 1: Use of Annual Leave
IV 2: Use of Sick Leave
IV 3: Use of Leave without Pay
DV 1: Absenteeism (One overall construct- Average items listed below)
DV2: # of days Absent

ANALYSIS: 2 x 2 x 2 Factorial MANOVA

Hypothesis 2c: Among employees with child dependents, those who use DCS (i.e., Federal Child Care Centers, Federal Child Care subsidiaries, DCFSA) will display lower frequencies of absenteeism as compared to individuals who do not utilize these supports.

IV 1: Use of Federal Child Care Center
IV 2: Use of Child Care Subsidy Program
IV 3: Use of DCFSA
DV 1: Absenteeism (One overall construct- Average items listed below)
DV2: # of days Absent

ANALYSIS: 2 x 2 x 2 Factorial MANOVA

Hypothesis 3a: Among individuals with dependents, those who utilize AWA (i.e., compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework) will display higher levels of retention when compared to individuals who do not use AWA.

IV 1: Use of Compressed WS
IV 2: Use of Flexible WS
IV 3: Use of Part-time WS
IV 4: Use of Job Sharing WS
IV 5: Use of Telework
DV: Retention

ANALYSIS: 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 2Factorial ANOVA

Hypothesis 3b: Among individuals with dependents, those who utilize LTA (i.e., annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay) will display higher levels of retention when compared to individuals who do not use LTA.

IV 1: Use of Annual Leave
IV 2: Use of Sick Leave
IV 3: Use of Leave without Pay
DV: Retention

ANALYSIS: 2 x 2 x 2 Factorial ANOVA

Hypothesis 3c: Among individuals with dependents, those who utilize DCS (i.e., Federal Child Care Centers, Federal Child Care subsidiaries) will display higher levels of retention when compared to individuals who do not use DCS.

IV 1: Use of Federal Child Care Center
IV 2: Use of Child Care Subsidy Program
IV 3: Use of DCFSA
DV: Retention

ANALYSIS: Logistic Regression

Hypothesis 4a: Employees with child dependents utilizing AWA (i.e., compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework) will be less likely to display turnover intent when compared to individuals with child dependents that are not using AWA.

IV 1: Use of Compressed WS
IV 2: Use of Flexible WS
IV 3: Use of Part-time WS
IV 4: Use of Job Sharing WS
IV 5: Use of Telework
DV 1: Turnover Intention within Agency
DV 2: Turnover Intention within Government
DV 3: Turnover Intention outside Government

ANALYSES: 3 separate Logistic Regressions (one with each DV)

Hypothesis 4b: Employees with child dependents utilizing LTA (i.e., annual leave, sick leave, leave without pay) will be less likely to display turnover intent when compared to individuals with child dependents that are not using LTA.

IV 1: Use of Annual Leave
IV 2: Use of Sick Leave
IV 3: Use of Leave without Pay
DV 1: Turnover Intention within Agency
DV 2: Turnover Intention within Government
DV 3: Turnover Intention outside Government

ANALYSIS: 3 Logistic Regressions

Hypothesis 4c: Employees with child dependents utilizing DCS (i.e., Federal Child Care Centers, Federal Child Care subsidiaries) will be less likely to display turnover intent when compared to individuals with child dependents that are not using DCS.

IV 1: Use of Federal Child Care Center
IV 2: Use of Child Care Subsidy Program
IV 3: Use of DCFSA
DV 1: Turnover Intention within Agency
DV 2: Turnover Intention within Government
DV 3: Turnover Intention outside Government

ANALYSIS: 3 Logistic Regressions

Hypothesis 5a: Dual income employees with child dependents will greater use of compressed work schedules, flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, telework, annual and sick leave, leave without pay, Federal child care centers, and Dependent Care Flexible Spending Account when compared to dual income family use of the Child Care Subsidy Program.

Hypothesis 5b: When compared to employees from traditional and single parent families with child dependents, dual income earners with child dependents will show greater frequencies of using flexible work schedules, part-time, job sharing, leave without pay, and Federal child care centers.

Hypothesis 6a: Single parent employees with child dependents will demonstrate greater use of flexible work schedules, telework, annual and sick leave, and the Child Care Subsidy Program when compared to the single parent employees' use of compressed schedules, part time, job sharing, leave without pay, the Federal Child Care Centers, and the DCFSA.

Hypothesis 6b: When compared to employees from traditional and dual income families with child dependents, single parent employees with child dependents should show greater frequencies of participating in the Child Care Subsidy Program.

Hypothesis 7: Traditional family employees with child dependents will demonstrate greater use of compressed and flexible work schedules, and DCFSA when compared to traditional family employees' use of part-time work, job sharing, and leave without pay.

IV: Household Structure (Single Parent, Dual Income, Traditional)
DV 1: Use of Compressed WS
DV 2: Use of Flexible WS
DV 3: Use of Part-time WS
DV 4: Use of Job Sharing WS
DV 5: Use of Telework
DV 6: Use of Annual Leave
DV 7: Use of Sick Leave
DV 8: Use of Leave without Pay
DV 9: Use of Federal Child Care Center
DV 10: Use of Child Care Subsidy Program
DV 11: Use of DCFSA

ANALYSIS: 11 Separate Chi-Squares (for each benefit)

VITA

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EDUCATION

Old Dominion University, Norfolk, VA
Doctorate of Philosophy in Industrial and Organizational Psychology (May 2008)

Miami University, Oxford, OH
Masters of Science in Sport Studies (August 2005)

George Washington University, Washington, DC
Masters of Arts in Organizational Science (August 2004)

University of Florida, Gainesville, FL
Bachelor of Science in Psychology (May 2001)

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Miami Dade College, School of Justice Assessment Center - Miami, FL
Promotional Testing Program Manager *January 2008 to present*

- Project Manager of Assessment Center projects, including the development, administration, evaluation, and feedback processes.

U.S. Office of Personnel Management, Assessment Services Branch- Washington, DC
Personnel Research Psychologist *October 2003 to January 2008*

- Evaluated programs implemented by federal government agencies: Created customized surveys, evaluated sources of data, interviewed stakeholders, analyzed data, and wrote summative reports and recommendations for future success.

Old Dominion University Psychology Department.
Teaching Assistant *August 2004 to December 2006*

- Assisted in curriculum development, creating quizzes, evaluating assignments and exams, teaching and reviewing Univariate statistics and SPSS exercises.

Miami University Physical Education, Health and Sport Studies Department.
Graduate Assistant *August 2001 to May 2003*

- Instructed physical activity classes to undergraduate students, created syllabus, course plan of study, lectures, and exams, and evaluated class activities and exams.