INSTITUTO
UNIVERSITÁRIO
DE LISBOA

The Role of Family-friendly Practices and Career Aspirations on Employees' Turnover Intentions: Organizational Commitment as a Mediator

Maria Isabel do Carmo Campos

Master in Human Resources Management and
Organizational Consultancy

Supervisor:
PhD Sílvia Costa Agostinho da Silva, Associate Professor,
Iscte-IUL

PhD Helena Maria Barroso Carvalho, Full Professor,
Iscte-IUL

October, 2021

BUSINESS
SCHOOL

Department of Human Resources and Organizational Behavior

The Role of Family-friendly Practices and Career Aspirations on Employees' Turnover Intentions: Organizational Commitment as a Mediator

Maria Isabel do Carmo Campos

Master in Human Resources Management and Organizational Consultancy

Supervisor:
PhD Sílvia Costa Agostinho da Silva, Associate Professor,
Iscte-IUL

PhD Helena Maria Barroso Carvalho, Full Professor,
Iscte-IUL

October, 2021

Acknowledgements

To Professor Sílvia, for giving me the liberty and support to research a topic unknown to us both.

To Professor Helena, for the support and direction to navigate the complex world of statistical processing in SPSS.

To Maria and Carolina, for the friendship and affection throughout these two years in the master's degree.

To Adriana for never doubting me, even (and mostly) when I doubted myself.

To my parents, who built remarkable careers in their fields while raising three kids. Thank you for the inspiration.

To everyone who stood by my side during this ride, thank you.

Resumo

A literatura existente sobre as práticas de apoio familiar ainda é escassa. Estas práticas foram desenhadas de forma a ajudarem os trabalhadores a gerir a sua vida pessoal e o trabalho, e a literatura prova que as práticas de apoio familiar têm consequências positivas para as empresas e para os países que as implementam. Esta dissertação de mestrado tenciona compreender como as práticas de apoio familiar influenciam as intenções de turnover, usando o compromisso organizacional como mediador e as aspirações de carreira como moderador. A amostra deste estudo (N = 237) consistiu em pessoas que trabalham em empresas privadas em Portugal e têm pelo menos um filho com 12 anos ou menos. Prevemos que as práticas de apoio familiar diminuam as intenções de turnover tanto diretamente como indiretamente através do compromisso organizacional afetivo, normativo e calculativo. Adicionalmente, prevemos que as aspirações de carreira tenham um efeito moderador na relação entre as práticas de apoio familiar e as três dimensões de compromisso organizacional, e na relação entre as práticas de apoio familiar e as intenções de turnover. Os nossos resultados revelam que, de facto, as práticas de apoio familiar diminuem as intenções de turnover através do efeito mediador do compromisso organizacional afetivo. O compromisso organizacional normativo e calculativo não apresentaram resultados significativos, tal como as aspirações de carreira. Por fim, esta dissertação de mestrado é completada por uma discussão dos resultados e por recomendações feitas para futuras investigações sobre o tópico.

Palavras-chave: Práticas de apoio familiar; Compromisso Organizacional; Intenção de Turnover; Aspirações de carreira

Classificação JEL: J220 (Time Allocation and Labour Supply), O150 (Economic Development: Human Resources; Human Development; Income Distribution; Migration)

Abstract

The literature on family-friendly practices is still scarce. These practices are designed to help employees manage their work-life balance and research has demonstrated that they have positive consequences for the organizations and countries that employ these practices. This dissertation aims at comprehending how family-friendly practices impact turnover intentions using organizational commitment as a mediator and career aspirations as a moderator. Our sample (N = 237) consisted on employees that work on the private sector in Portugal, and that have at least one child aged 12 years-old or younger. We predict that family-friendly practices will diminish turnover intentions both directly, and indirectly through affective commitment, normative commitment, or continuance commitment. Further, we hypothesize that career aspirations will have a moderation effect on the relationship between family-friendly practices and each of the dimensions of organizational commitment, and a moderation effect in the relationship between family-friendly practices and turnover intentions. Our results show that family-friendly practices do indeed diminish turnover intentions through the mediating effect of affective commitment. Normative commitment and continuance commitment didn't generate significant results. The same happened for career aspirations. This dissertation is, at last, completed with a discussion of our findings and recommendations for future research on the matter.

Keywords: Family-friendly Practices; Organizational Commitment; Turnover Intentions; Career Aspirations

JEL classification: J220 (Time Allocation and Labour Supply), O150 (Economic Development: Human Resources; Human Development; Income Distribution; Migration)

Index

1. Introduction 1

2. Literature review 5

(i) Family-friendly practices (FFPs) and their impact 5

(ii) The link between FFPs and turnover intentions 6

(iii) Organizational Commitment: The Mediator 7

(iv) Career Aspirations: The Moderator 10

3. Research Model 15

4. Method 17

(i) Participants 17

(ii) Procedure 17

(iii) Measures 18

Family-friendly practices 18

Career Aspiration 18

Organizational Commitment 18

Turnover Intention 19

Job Insecurity 19

(iv) Data Analysis 19

5. Results 21

6. Discussion 29

Recommendations and Conclusions 35

References 37

Annexes 41

1. Introduction

Parenting in organizations has been a topic of discussion for years now, with the work-life conflict gaining importance as the number of working women increases (Budd & Mumford, 2006; Collins, 2014; Guerreiro et al., 2006; Peper et al., 2005; Ronda et al., 2016). In fact, by 2000, 67% of the Portuguese couples with children had both parents working full-time jobs (Guerreiro et al., 2006). This percentage remained constant in the following years, making Portugal one of the countries in the European Union with the highest percentage of both parents working full-time (Peper et al., 2005). By 2014, this number had increased to 71% (Cunha et al., 2016). Despite in many countries the norm being for mothers to change into a part-time schedule or leave work entirely to be stay-at-home moms, in Portugal it is rare for mothers or fathers to leave their work or switch to a part-time schedule and not every employee is allowed to cut their schedule to a part-time job (Guerreiro et al., 2006; Instituto Nacional de Estatística, 2012; Peper et al., 2005).

To ensure organizations give employees the time and space to manage their life outside work, governments, and in particular the Portuguese Government, have created a set of rules legislating this interface through Labour Law, that instituted parental leave and a set of other mandatory policies (Assembleia da República, 2009). However, not only doesn't the parental leave solve all the problems, but it can also cause some struggles, such as reduced income and social distancing from friends and co-workers (Collins, 2014). Furthermore, Collins (2014) found that parental leave is still considered "career suicide" in some companies and 64% of the respondents on Collins' study found that their promotion opportunities were negatively impacted by their maternity leave. According to a 2018 Eurobarometer report, this number was found to be slightly lower in Portugal, with 45% of respondents agreeing that taking family leaves had a negative impact on one's career (Kantar Public Brussels, 2018). Additionally, the Eurobarometer report found that 40% of the Portuguese respondents agreed that "managers and supervisors usually discourage/discouraged employees from taking family leave" (Kantar Public Brussels, 2018, p. 79) which is high when compared to the European Union's average (27%). This European Commission's report found that only 57% of the Portuguese respondents took or were thinking of taking a parental leave, and 18% of the respondents chose not to take a parental leave because they couldn't afford to.

From a social point of view, one must take under consideration the fact that an individual doesn't stop being a parent once they leave the house in the morning. Being a parent is a full-time job with implications that cross work-family boundaries. One of those implications is parental burnout. A recent 42-country study on parental burnout has found that, in Portugal, 2% to 3% of parents suffer from parental burnout (Roskam et al., 2021). This means that around 206 000 to 308 000 parents in Portugal are suffering from this condition (considering a population of 10 295 909, according to Instituto

Nacional de Estatística (May 2021)). Why is this important? Parental burnout is a result of a chronic imbalance of risks over resources in the parenting domain and is defined as a state of intense exhaustion related to one's parental role, in which one becomes emotionally detached from one's children and doubtful of one's capacity to be a good parent (Mikolajczak et al., 2019). Organizations should start worrying about parental burnout at least as much as they worry about job burnout, as parental burnout is four times more associated to escape ideation (ideas of running away or committing suicide) than job burnout (Mikolajczak et al., 2019). The same 42-country study suggests that a social network of support and solidarity might help to decrease the prevalence of parental burnout.

Additionally, studies show that new parents suffer from various mixed emotions when returning to work after their parental leave. They go from the guilt of leaving their child with someone else to the anxiety of returning to the office, and excitement of reinstating their social life (Clement & Cucchiara, 2018; Collins, 2014). This is where the family-friendly practices topic gains relevance. Companies can help reduce parental burnout and other negative emotions related to returning to work through the creation of supporting policies, often referred to as family-friendly practices (FFPs). Remarkably, family-friendly practices like flexibility and workplace support were linked to increased engagement and warmth of fathers towards their children, even helping fathers that don't esteem the ideal of fatherhood, to be more connected with their young children (Holmes et al., 2020). Moreover, FFPs boost employee engagement, make companies more competitive by attracting talent, and allow for working parents to keep progressing in their careers (Bourhis & Mekkaoui, 2010; UNICEF, 2019a, 2019b). When talking about careers, it is important to consider that planning on becoming a parent has different impacts on career aspirations for men and women. Men link becoming a parent with an upgrade on career aspirations, while women tend to lower their career aspirations by prioritizing work-family balance and their male partner's career over their own (Bass, 2015).

From an economical point of view, FFPs are important as they can reduce absenteeism, increase employee retention and, in turn, lower recruitment costs (UNICEF, 2019a). UNICEF's data shows that the countries that have implemented FFPs increased female employment, which in turn boosted the GDP's (gross domestic product) growth by 10 to 20 per cent. The same report notices that the global economy would grow by 12 trillion dollars by 2025 if women had an equal participation in the workforce. Interestingly, FFPs were found to be more common on organizations with more skilled workers and more female managers (Bloom et al., 2011). Further, the impact of FFPs in organizations with a large proportion of women can be enhanced, as women are more likely to be responsible for the caring task of rising a child, hence being more dependent on FFPs (Poelmans, 2005).

In short, FFPs can help reduce parenting stress and promote wellbeing, which leads to "better business, happier families, and healthier children" (UNICEF, 2019a, p.2). Considering the depth of the impact FFPs can cause on individual's lives, organizational performance and the global economy, the author was astonished to have found little research on the matter, especially in Portugal. Therefore, it is hoped that this dissertation can somewhat mitigate this lack of information on FFPs' impacts and help organizations understand a little bit better the scope of FFPs. More specifically, the purpose of this dissertation is to understand if applying family-friendly practices can benefit organizations by increasing organizational commitment and, in turn, diminishing turnover intentions. Additionally, the effect of career aspirations will also be considered as we are predicting that it may buffer the impact of family-friendly practices on organizational commitment or on turnover intentions.

To conclude, this dissertation intends to add value to the existing literature by narrowing the existing gap on FFPs and career aspirations. Also, to the best of the author's knowledge, the role of career aspirations as a moderator in the direct and indirect effect (via organizational commitment) of FFPs on turnover intentions has not been studied. No studies of this kind were found in Portugal or in other countries, making the study of this moderation an important contribute of this dissertation to the exiting literature.

2. Literature review

(i) Family-friendly practices (FFPs) and their impact

Family-friendly programs have been described as programs with measures that go beyond those required by law and may include assistance with dependent care, schedule flexibility, paid leaves of absence, assistance with day care, among others (Swody & Powell, 2007). Family-friendly practices (FFPs) have also been defined as policies that help balance the work and the family life, and typically provide essential resources needed by parents: time, resources and services (UNICEF, 2019a). These two definitions complement each other. Therefore, we define family-friendly practices as programs or polices that go beyond those required by law in order to improve work-life balance.

Budd and Mumford (2006) have found that the availability of FFPs is impacted by social and economic variables such as the average job tenure of the workforce, the proportion of female employees, the proportion of employees with children, workplaces with over 500 employees, workplaces with human resources employees, among others.

Family-friendly practices impact organizational performance as they are linked to better workforce productivity , increased job satisfaction, increased commitment and the ability to attract, motivate and retain employees, as well as increase attachment (Bourhis & Mekkaoui, 2010; Swody & Powell, 2007; Thompson et al., 1999; UNICEF, 2019b). FFPs were also linked to financial performance above average, labour productivity above average, improvements in quality performance and reduced labour turnover (Dex et al., 2001).

Further, from a social and economic point of view, gender-neutral parental policies may help soothe the “mommy tax” as they enable fathers to share the responsibilities. This will increase the likelihood of women returning to work after maternity leave which will, in turn, facilitate the employment of women and increase gender equality (Ronda et al., 2016; UNICEF, 2019b). Thus, gender-neutral FFPs are linked to reduced gender pay gap, improved gender parity and economic parity (UNICEF, 2019b).

Bourhis and Mekkaoui (2010) have found that FFPs have an impact on a company’s attractiveness and consequently influence candidates’ decision process. Interestingly, this impact is not just related to employees who are parents, but also to childless employees. No differences were found between male and female employees’ results; therefore, we do not expect to find them either. On an individual level, FFPs affect the employee’s life satisfactions by reducing work-life conflict and enabling a healthy work-family balance (Ronda et al., 2016).

(ii) The link between FFPs and turnover intentions

FFPs were demonstrated to have positive consequences for the organization as a business, such as decreased turnover (Bourhis & Mekkaoui, 2010; Swody & Powell, 2007; Thompson et al., 1999). To better understand this relationship, it is important to start by distinguish turnover intention from turnover.

Turnover intention is the conscious and deliberate will to leave the company and is seen as the immediate precursor of voluntary turnover. Turnover is the action of termination of an individual's employment and it can be voluntary or involuntary (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Voluntary turnover is the employee's decision to leave an organization and is commonly known as a quit (Shaw et al., 1998). Some reasons behind voluntary turnover are the pursue of career goals, pursue of higher financial compensations, escape negative work environments,… (Riley, 2006). Involuntary turnover is the employer's decision to terminate the employment contract. Some reasons behind involuntary turnover are cultural incompatibility or missing requirements. But involuntary turnover also includes some reasons that are usually left aside in studies as they are not controllable. Examples are death, mandatory retirement, pregnancy and health problems (Riley, 2006; Shaw et al., 1998).

Turnover creates negative consequences for the company. Whether it is voluntary or involuntary, it generates direct costs of recruiting, selecting and training a substitute (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Riley, 2006). Furthermore, it lowers the morale, adds pressure to the remaining staff while the substitute is not ready, causes loss of social and knowledge capital, and creates the risk of a ripple effect (Riley, 2006). Because not all these costs are tangible, the real cost of turnover is hard to measure and avoidable at all cost. Riley (2006) found that, in the literature, turnover intention is considered to be "the immediate precursor for turnover behaviour" (p.2), and therefore turnover rates can be reduced through "the identification of variables associated with turnover intentions" (p.2).

For the present study, we will only consider turnover intentions. Turnover intention is considered to be a valid proxy of labour turnover, and the last step before actual turnover, as actual behaviour was found to be set on behavioural intention (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Turnover intentions might be created when the employee "sees a threat to his or her valued resources and thus anticipates potential loss", when the employee "has already lost the resource (e.g., trust from coworker, confidence in the job, or valued window office due to reorganization)", or even when the employee is "unable to gain significant amount of resources following investment of resources (e.g., no promotion despite updated educational credentials)" (Jin et al., 2018, p.6).

Turnover intention is negatively correlated to work engagement and organizational citizenship behaviour, but positively correlated to work alienation and burnout (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). Turnover intention is also impacted by the workplace culture, via job satisfaction; organizational commitment; and knowledge sharing. Employees who feel that their psychological contract with the company has been violated due to unfulfilled job expectations are more prone to wanting to leave the organization (Geurts et al., 1999). Additionally, when employees experience conflicts between satisfaction and obligations they tend to express their dissatisfaction by leaving the organization (Geurts et al., 1999). A study from Geurts et al. (1998), cited in Schaufeli & Bakker (2004), demonstrated that turnover intentions originate from an inequitable social exchange relationship with the organization. However, there are external variables that can prevent turnover intentions from turning into actions, such as employability, labour market conditions, health status, and family issues (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Cohen et al., 2016).

As stated before, FFPs were linked to reduced turnover (Bourhis & Mekkaoui, 2010; Swody & Powell, 2007; Thompson et al., 1999). In fact, Dex et al. (2001), and Bae and Goodman (2014) suggest that practices such as job share, flexitime, help with child care, on-site child care, and working from home are able to reduce labour turnover. Considering turnover intentions to be a proxy to turnover (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Tett & Meyer, 1993), we expect FFPs to impact turnover intentions in the same way they affect turnover, meaning, we expect FFPs to decrease turnover intentions. Towards studying this relationship in Portugal, we formulate our first hypothesis:

H1: Family-friendly practices are negatively related to turnover intentions.

(iii) Organizational Commitment: The Mediator

The literature states that employees with high organizational commitment engage in positive behaviours for the organization, such as citizenship and high job performance (Jaros, 1997), making it an important construct to include in models that intend to study employee behaviour in organizations (Mowday et al., 1975). In turn, poor organizational commitment has been found to be a direct response to perceived inequity in the employment relationship, and the employee’s attempt to restore an equitable relationship (Geurts et al., 1999). For the purpose of this article, organizational commitment will be interpreted as an exogenous variable that directly leads to the intention of turnover, making it a proximal variable of turnover (Dougherty et al., 1985; Geurts et al., 1999; Jaros, 1997; Riley, 2006) and a mediator in our model.

Commitment is defined as a psychological state that creates the obligation to stay in a course of action regardless of internal and external influences (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Brown, 1996). Building on this, organizational commitment can be defined as the extra support an employee lends to the company, regardless of rewards or job expectations (Brown, 1996). Meyer et al. (1991) describe organizational commitment as a “psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee’s relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization" (p.67). For this dissertation, the definition provided by Meyer and Allan (1991) will be used.

According to Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three-Component Model of Commitment, within organizational commitment we can find three dimensions: affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment.

Affective commitment is an emotional bond and exists when the employee feels positively obligated towards the company, wanting to help it fulfil its goals, and feeling individual identification and involvement with the company (Brown, 1996; Jaros, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Riley, 2006; Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008). Affective commitment's antecedents are divided into three categories: personal characteristics, structural characteristics, and work experiences (Meyer & Allen, 1991). On personal characteristics, the link between demographic aspects (such as age, tenure, sex, and education) and affective commitment is frail and inconsistent; and the link with personal dispositions (such as need for achievement, affiliation and autonomy; personal work ethic and locus of control) is modest (Meyer & Allen, 1991). On organizational structure, affective commitment is linked to decentralization of decision making and formalization of policy and procedures (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Last but not least, work experiences related to the need of feeling comfortable in the organization (pre-entry expectations, equity in reward distribution, organizational dependability, organizational support, role clarity and freedom from conflict, and supervisor consideration) were found to correlate with affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees whose work experiences are consistent with their expectations, tend to develop a stronger affective attachment with the organization (Meyer et al., 1993).

The second dimension is normative commitment (or moral commitment), where employees feel obliged to stay in the company through a sense of guilt (Brown, 1996; Jaros, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Riley, 2006; Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008). Meyer and Allen (1991) defend that normative commitment can occur when organizations give employees rewards in advance or incur in significant costs of providing employment, for example, through job training. Similarly to affective commitment, personal characteristics and especially age and tenure, are antecedents of normative commitment, although weakly (Meyer et al., 2002). Perceived organizational support was also found to be an antecedent of normative commitment, as well as socialization experiences, organizational investments, empowerment, goal clarity and transformational leadership (Meyer et al., 2002; Park & Rainey, 2007).

The third dimension of organizational commitment is continuance commitment, in which a person stays in the company because the personal costs of leaving are too high (Brown, 1996; Jaros, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Riley, 2006). This could be because of the lack of job alternatives, for example. Thus, anything that can increase the perceived costs of leaving the organization can be considered an antecedent (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Continuance commitment has also been called “calculative” commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Following the previous two dimensions, personal characteristics are an antecedent of continuance commitment, despite not being the best one (Meyer et al., 2002). Two important antecedents of continuance commitment are availability of alternatives, and investments (Meyer et al., 2002).

The three dimensions of commitment are different from each other and have an impact in the employee’s relationship with the organization, therefore affecting our entire model. The main difference between normative and continuance commitment lies on the harmed party. Whereas in continuance commitment the individual stays as to not harm their own self-interests, in the normative commitment the individual stays as to not harm the company in any way. Additionally, the three dimensions of organizational commitment are not mutually exclusive, instead it is expectable for an individual to experience them all to different degrees (Meyer et al., 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Organizational commitment’s dimensions have an impact that goes beyond work-related attitudes. For instance, affective commitment is positively correlated to satisfaction with nonwork aspects of life; and continuance commitment is negatively correlated to satisfaction with nonwork aspects of life (Meyer & Allen, 1996). This explains how the state of mind of an employee impacts their relationship with the company.

Organizational commitment was found to be a better predictor of turnover than job satisfaction (Mowday et al., 1975). Jaros (1997) stated that turnover intentions are the mediator in the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover. Organizational commitment and turnover have a negative correlation meaning that an increase in commitment will lead to a decrease in turnover and, consequently, a decrease in turnover intentions (Griffeth, 2000; Meyer et al., 2002; Mowday et al., 1975; Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008). Furthermore, the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions is stronger over time (Mowday et al., 1975). To be specific, affective commitment has continuously shown to be the most independently significant dimension in predicting turnover intentions out of the three, followed by normative commitment (Aranki et al., 2019; Jaros, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer & Allen, 1996). Continuance commitment has less consistent results throughout the literature. While some authors found no correlation between continuance commitment and turnover intentions, others found that, although weak, there is a contribution from continuance commitment to predicting turnover intentions (Jaros, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1996). Jaros (1997) found that, although continuance commitment is significantly correlated to turnover intentions, it is not capable of independently predicting turnover intentions. Overall, organizational commitment has consistently showed the ability to decrease turnover intentions (Hollingworth & Valentine, 2014; Meyer et al., 2002; Santoso et al., 2018; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

The FFPs-organizational commitment mediation model predicts that organizational commitment develops from the usage of FFPs, such that organizational commitment mediates the relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions. In this way, we argue that including each of the three dimensions of organizational commitment as mediators in the model will increase our understanding of the indirect relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions and broad the existing literature on the matter. Hence, the following hypotheses:

H2a: Affective Commitment mediates the relationship between family-friendly practices and turnover intentions.

H2b: Normative Commitment mediates the relationship between family-friendly practices and turnover intentions.

H2c: Continuance Commitment mediates the relationship between family-friendly practices and turnover intentions.

We expect continuance commitment to have a different behaviour than affective commitment or normative commitment. With higher FFPs we expect an increase in affective commitment and a decrease on turnover intentions. The same for normative commitment. However, given the nature of continuance commitment, we expect higher FFPs to drive a decrease on continuance commitment and a consequent decrease on turnover intentions. This is expected to happen as FFPs have been linked to increased job satisfaction, increased commitment and increased attachment to the organization (Bourhis & Mekkaoui, 2010; Swody & Powell, 2007; Thompson et al., 1999; UNICEF, 2019b), all lacking in continuance commitment.

(iv) Career Aspirations: The Moderator

There is one topic that consistently appears in the literature when talking about the usage of family-friendly practices, and that is the consequences for the career of those who use FFPs. 45% of the Portuguese respondents to an Eurobarometer report stated that taking family-leaves had a negative impact to their career (Kantar Public Brussels, 2018). Therefore, we considered important to introduce career aspirations in our research model, especially because we didn't find another study that had previously done the same.

Career can be defined as a planned pattern of work from the moment an individual enters the workforce until the moment they retire, or an individual's involvement in a particular job, organization, occupation or profession (Meyer et al., 1993). Career aspiration is defined as the degree to which a person aspires to leadership positions and continued education within their careers (Gray & O'Brien, 2007, p.318). A later study added to this definition the idea of achievement aspiration (Gregor & O'Brien, 2016).

Hence, career aspiration is composed of three variables: achievement aspiration, educational aspiration, and leadership aspiration. Educational aspiration assesses plans to continue one's education in their field; leadership aspiration concerns the desire to achieve a leadership position within their business by, for example, managing others; and achievement aspiration is the desire to be one of the very best in one's field or recognized for one's accomplishments (Gray & O'Brien, 2007; Gregor & O'Brien, 2016). Career Aspiration is, consequently, the degree to which a person aspires to leadership positions, continued education, and recognition within their careers.

Career aspirations were found to be gendered (Bass, 2015). Bass found that, when planning to have a child, women tend to "ramp down their present-day career aspirations" (Bass, 2015, p.363), while men tend to ramp them up. Furthermore, women tend to let work-family balance influence their career aspirations, and they put men's careers over their own (Bass, 2015).

Considering that career aspiration is a self-motivated, goal-oriented mechanism with the potential to impact individual's workplace behaviours in the long-term (Li & Huang, 2017), low career aspirations will be reflected in these behaviours. Furthermore, the effects of the perception of a supportive climate inside the company is probably mediated by the individual's career aspiration levels (Li & Huang, 2017). It has been suggested that a supportive network can help decrease parental burnout (Mikolajczak et al., 2019), an issue that should also be targeted by family-friendly practices, so it is important to acknowledge that career aspirations have an impact on the perception of this support.

Employees whose job fits their career aspirations are likely to display higher career commitment and, in consequence, higher organizational commitment as these two kinds of commitment are positively related (Goulet & Singh, 2002). However, the higher the career aspirations the hardest it is for organizations to build a job description that fits and fulfils these aspirations over time. For example, it may be easier for the organization to create a job for someone whose career aspiration is to be excellent at what they do, than to create a job for someone whose career aspirations are to manage a team, be promoted several times and have a say in the future direction of the organization. Yet, opposite to what happens when the job fits the career aspirations, having a job that don't fit career aspirations may create a negative influence on organizational commitment (Goulet & Singh, 2002). Thus, we hypothesize that although the presence of FFPs increases organizational commitment (Swody & Powell, 2007; UNICEF, 2019b), this effect may be buffered by career aspirations. To the best of our knowledge, this moderation has not been studied before, so we propose the following:

H3a: Career Aspirations moderate the relationship between FFPs and Affective Commitment, such that the relationship between FFPs and Affective Commitment is weaker with higher Career Aspirations.

H3b: Career Aspirations moderate the relationship between FFPs and Normative Commitment, such that the relationship between FFPs and Normative Commitment is weaker with higher Career Aspirations.

H3c: Career Aspirations moderate the relationship between FFPs and Continuance Commitment, such that the relationship between FFPs and Continuance Commitment is weaker with higher Career Aspirations.

It has also been suggested that career aspiration is critical for employee turnover intentions, meaning that when employees' career aspirations are met inside the company the level of employee turnover intention is lower (Bigliardi et al., 2005; Li & Huang, 2017). However, and along the lines of the previous paragraph, we expect higher career aspirations to be harder to meet, possibly creating pressure on turnover intentions. Considering that our first hypotheses expect FFPs to drive turnover intentions down, it would be interesting to see how the FFPs-turnover intentions relationship behaves under the pressure imposed by career aspirations. While researching the literature on the topic, we did not find any study on this moderation approach. We hypothesize that in the presence of high career aspirations, organizations will have more difficulty meeting the individual's career aspirations, creating a favourable environment for turnover intentions to increase. Consequently, although FFPs should have enough influence per se to decrease turnover intentions (Swody & Powell, 2007; Thompson et al., 1999; UNICEF, 2019b), we expect this effect to be buffered in the presence of high career aspirations. For this reason, we expect the following to happen:

H4: Career Aspirations moderate the relationship between FFPs and Turnover Intentions, such that the relationship between FFPs and Turnover Intentions is weaker with higher Career Aspirations.

Our literature review has given us grounds to expect an indirect effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via organizational commitment, which we exposed on hypotheses 2a, 2b and 2c, such that higher FFPs will lead to a decrease on turnover intentions. It has also led us to suppose that career aspirations will act as a moderator in the relationship between FFPs and affective commitment (hypothesis 3a), FFPs and normative commitment (hypothesis 3b), and FFPs and continuance commitment (hypothesis 3c), such that the effect of FFPs on the three variables of organizational commitment will be weaker when in the presence of high career aspirations. This is due to the fact that the higher the career aspirations the harder it is to meet these aspirations on a job description, but having a job that does not meet one’s career aspirations leads to an unfavourable environment for organizational commitment (Goulet & Singh, 2002). By weakening the effect of FFPs on organizational commitment, then we conjecture that the effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via organizational commitment will also be weakened. This led us to the existence of a moderated mediation, as suggested in our model, which, to the best of our knowledge, has not been studied in prior studies in the literature. We hypothesize that career aspirations will moderate the mediating role of organizational commitment in the relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions, such that the indirect association between FFPs and turnover intentions via the three different dimensions of organizational commitment will be weaker in individuals with higher career aspirations than for those with low career aspirations. This rational is materialized into the following hypotheses:

H5a: The indirect relationship between FFPs and Turnover Intentions via Affective Commitment is moderated by Career Aspirations, such that the indirect association is weaker for those with higher Career Aspirations than for those with lower Career Aspirations.

H5b: The indirect relationship between FFPs and Turnover Intentions via Normative Commitment is moderated by Career Aspirations, such that the indirect association is weaker for those with higher Career Aspirations than for those with lower Career Aspirations.

H5c: The indirect relationship between FFPs and Turnover Intentions via Continuance Commitment is moderated by Career Aspirations, such that the indirect association is weaker for those with higher Career Aspirations than for those with lower Career Aspirations.

3. Research Model

Figure 3.1 represents the theoretical model used in the present research. The model is made of one predictor variable, a moderator, a mediator, and an outcome variable.

Starting from the left side of the model, the predictor variable - also known as independent variable - is the input that will explain changes in the response (outcome variable). In our model, the predictor variable is family-friendly practices. Career aspirations come next as the moderator.

The mediator variable will explain the relationship between the outcome and the predictor variable. In other words, it’s a variable that has been assumed to cause an effect in the outcome variable (dependent variable). Our mediator is organizational commitment, separated in its subscales: (1) affective commitment, (2) normative commitment and (3) continuance commitment.

The last variable is the dependent variable, or outcome variable, and is represented by turnover intentions.

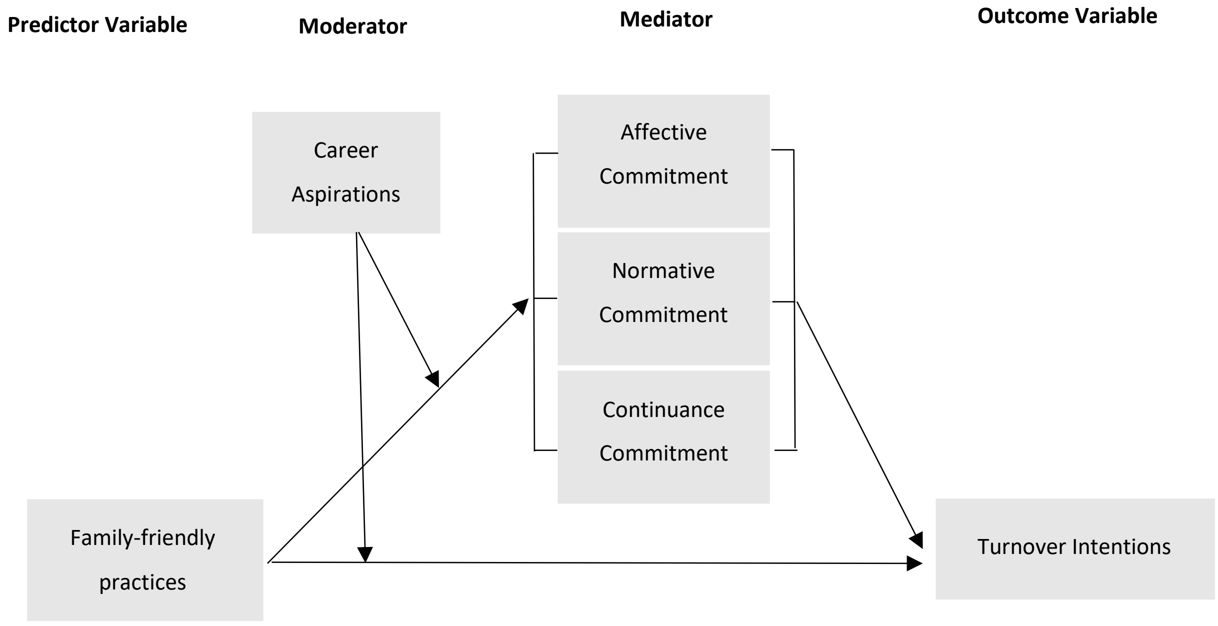

Predictor Variable
Moderator
Mediator
Outcome Variable
Career Aspirations
Affective Commitment
Normative Commitment
Continuance Commitment
Family-friendly practices
Turnover Intentions

Figure 3.1 – Research model

4. Method

(i) Participants

Most of the participants are currently employed in a large organization (53.3%; N = 106) and have no leadership responsibilities (58.2%; N = 113). The organization sector with the higher participation is the health sector with 17.6% (N = 35). Regarding the work mode, there are almost the same number of participants working remotely (34.2%; N = 66), working on site (32.6%; N = 63) and on a mixed mode (33.2%; N = 64). See Annex A.

Regarding sex, 66.5% are female (N = 129). As shown in Annex B, most of our participants is within the age range of 40 – 44 years-old, with a percentage of 32.0% (N =62). Furthermore, the majority of the respondents are married or in a non-marital partnership, totalizing 83.0% (N = 161).

More than half of the respondents (57.2%; N= 111) have completed a bachelor's degree, followed by 23.2% (N= 45) that have a master's degree.

The complete sociodemographic characterization of the sample is shown in Annex B.

(ii) Procedure

This study was based on a quantitative research approach. For the data collection, an online questionnaire was used. The questionnaire was developed on the Qualtrics platform and had 32 questions, taking an average of 15 minutes to complete. It was held in Portuguese and was divided into seven parts: (1) questions on family-friendly practices, (2) questions on organizational commitment, (3) questions on job security, (4) questions on career aspirations, (5) question on turnover intentions, (6) company characterization, and (7) sociodemographic questions. The complete questionnaire is presented in Annex C.

We started collecting our data on the 6th of March 2021, and closed the questionnaire on the 11th of June 2021, making a total of three months of data collection.

The sample criteria for this study relies on employees that work on the private sector in Portugal, and that have had at least one child in the last twelve years. Participants should answer the questionnaire considering their experience in the company and position where they are working at the present time. The unemployed will be excluded from the study. Participants whose children are over 12 years-old were excluded. The response was considered valid with only the youngest child taken under consideration.

A total of 698 questionnaires were sent and 246 responses were registered, totalizing a response rate of 35.24%. Out of these, nine responses were deleted in a primary data screening: two were blank; one had only answered to part of the sociodemographic questions; the fourth had only answered to the first item of the first scale; and the other five had children over 12 years old. Therefore, 237 valid responses were registered.

(iii) Measures

Family-friendly practices. To evaluate the existing family-friendly practices in the organizations, a list of eight items developed by Perry-Smith and Blum (2000) was used. Examples of items were: "Help with daycare costs" and "Flexible Scheduling". The items had a binary coding, where 0 = *The company does not have this policy* and 1 = *The company has this policy*. For statistical processing, each individual's score for the eight items were summed, ranging from 0 to 8. After performed the optimal quantification of the eight items (using a multiple correspondence analysis) the obtained Cronbach alpha (.58) was near the acceptable reliability in exploratory research (Hair et al., 2019).

Career Aspiration. To assess career aspirations the Revised Career Aspiration Scale (CAS-R) was used. The original CAS was composed of an 8-item scale. The revised version has added one more variable: achievement aspiration and removed four items from the original scale that proved non-relevant. The Revised CAS consists of 24 items divided into three sub-scales: achievement aspiration, leadership aspiration and educational aspiration, with 8 items each (Gray & O'Brien, 2007; Gregor & O'Brien, 2016). Each item is scored using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 0 = *Not at all true of me* to 4 = *Very true of me*. A total of five items were reversed scored. The translation to Portuguese was based on the previously made translation from Corgas, A.B.C. (2017). For statistical processing, the Revised CAS ranged from 0 to 4, was recoded from 1 to 5.

The scale validity was analysed using exploratory factorial analysis. The first principal component analysis (PCA) showed the need to elimimnate the item "I know that I will be recognized for my accomplishments in my field" from the achievement aspiration subscale, as it loaded poorly at 0.330. The final PCA loaded five factors. Similarly to what happened previously in the literature (Gregor & O'Brien, 2016; Kim et al., 2016), the reverse coded items from the leadership aspirations subscale and from the achievement aspirations subscales loaded on their own two factors and they were eliminated. There were no reverse-coded items on the educational aspirations subscale. Additionally, the item "I plan to obtain many promotions in my organization or business" loaded on the wrong factor, leading to its elimination.

Thus the final three factors were educational aspirations with the original 8 items (α = .91), leadership aspirations with 5 of the original items (α = .89), and achievement aspirations with 4 of the original items (α = .85).

Organizational Commitment. Organizational Commitment was measured using the 19-item scale develop by Allen & Meyer (1997). The scale is divided into three sub-scales: affective commitment with six items (three of which are reverse scored), continuance commitment with seven items, and normative commitment with six items (one of which is reverse scored) (Meyer & Allen., 1997). Each item is measured using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*. We used the Portuguese translation developed by Nascimento, J. L. R. P. (2010). The Cronbach's Alpha of the Affective Commitment scale was .87; of the Continuance Commitment was .85; and of the Normative Commitment was .89.

Turnover Intention. A 3-item scale was used to measure turnover intentions (Albrecht & Marty, 2020). The three items were answered on a six-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *Strongly disagree* to *6 = Moderately agree*. A sample item was "I will probably look for a new job in the next year". The scale translation to Portuguese was conducted by this study authors, and its validity was checked using a PCA. The scale's Cronbach's Alpha was .92.

Job Insecurity. Given the SARS-CoV19 pandemic context lived during this study, qualitative job insecurity was used as a control variable. It was measured using the scale from Van den Broeck et al. (2014) with four items ranged from *1 = Strongly disagree* to *5 = Strongly agree*. This scale's Cronbach's alpha was .90.

(iv) Data Analysis

To test our hypothesized mediation effect, model 4 of the SPSS macro developed by Hayes (2013) was used. This effect is described in hypotheses 2a, 2b and 2c. To test moderation effects where career aspirations moderate the relationship between FFPs and each of the organizational commitment's subscales (hypotheses 3a, 3b and 3c), and the relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions (hypothesis 4), model 8 of the SPSS macro developed by Hayes (2013) was used. The same SPSS macro was used to test the moderated mediation effect where career aspirations moderate the indirect effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via affective commitment, normative commitment, or continuance commitment (hypotheses 5a, 5b and 5c). Because our model is exposed to three different mediators (affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment), three different statistical studies were conducted.

5. Results

Table 5.1 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations for all study variables. As Table 5.1 shows, Family-friendly practices (FFPs) were significantly correlated to affective commitment (r = .19, *p* = .006) meaning that increasing FFPs increases affective commitment and registered a mean of 2.78 out of a total of 8 possible FFPs. Turnover intention (M = 3.40) is significantly and negatively correlated to affective commitment (r = -.70, *p* < .001), continuance commitment (r = -.27, *p* < .001), and normative commitment (r = -.62, *p* < .001). Out of the three it is important to stand out how strongly correlated turnover intention is to affective commitment. The moderator Career Aspirations (M = 3.73) was only significantly and positively correlated to affective commitment (r = .16, *p* = .024). Regarding the control variable, job insecurity (M = 2.65) is negatively correlated with affective commitment (r = -.24, *p* = .001), normative commitment (r = -.14, *p* = .041), turnover intention (r = -.30, *p* < .001), and positively correlated with continuance commitment (r = .21, *p* = .002).

Table 5.1 – Means, standard deviations and variables' correlation

Variables	M	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Family-friendly practices	2.78	1.23	-					
2. Affective Commitment	5.03	1.47	$.19^{**}$	-				
3. Continuance Commitment	4.21	1.37	-.10	.11	-			
4. Normative Commitment	3.98	1.56	-.04	$.60^{***}$	$.23^{***}$	-		
5. Career Aspirations	3.73	0.79	.11	$.16^{*}$	-.11	-.09	-	
6. Turnover Intention	3.40	1.98	-.13	$-.70^{***}$	$-.27^{***}$	$-.62^{***}$	-.01	-
7. Job Insecurity	2.65	0.97	-.01	$-.24^{***}$	$.21^{**}$	$-.14^{*}$	-.08	$-.30^{***}$

$^{*}p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$ $^{***}p < .001$

Hypothesis 1 predicted a negative relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions. However, this relationship was not statistically significant (B = -0.16, *t* = -1.40, *p* > .05, 95%CI = -0.38, 0.07). Therefore, hypothesis 1 was not supported. These results are true for all three of the following studies, regardless of the mediator used in the model.

Study 1: Affective Commitment as the mediator

Hypothesis 2a predicted that affective commitment mediated the relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions. We found that the 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via Affective Commitment (B = -0.22) did not include zero (-0.38 to -0.08), suggesting a significant indirect negative effect. Thus, hypothesis 2a was supported.

Table 5.2 – Results of the affective commitment mediation

							R^2
Model 1: mediator variable model	Outcome: Affective commitment						0.12
	Effect	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI	
FFPs	0.24	0.08	2.90	0.004	0.08	0.40	
Model 2: outcome variable model	Outcome: Turnover Intentions						0.51
	Effect	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI	
FFPs	0.06	0.09	0.73	0.466	-0.11	0.23	
Affective Commitment	-0.93	0.07	-12.74	0.000	-1.07	-0.79	
Indirect effect of FFPs on Turnover Intentions via Affective Commitment	Effect	BootSE			Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI	
	-0.22	0.08			-0.38	-0.08	

N = 199. Models controlled for job insecurity. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. 95% confidence intervals from 5,000 bootstrap samples. LL – lower limit; UL – upper limit; CI – confidence interval. FFPs – Family-friendly practices.

Table 5.3 contains the results found on the moderation and the moderated mediation effects. Hypothesis 3a suggested that career aspirations moderated the relationship between FFPs and affective commitment. However, Table 5.3 shows that the interaction between FFPs and career aspirations did not significantly contribute to affective commitment (B = 0.01, *t* = 0.17, *p* > .05, 95%CI = -0.15, 0.18), thus hypothesis 3a was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 assumed the moderation effect of career aspirations in the direct relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions. The interaction between FFPs and career aspirations did not significantly contribute to runover intentions. In addition, the interaction between FFPs and career aspirations did not significantly contribute to turnover (B = 0.06; *t* = 0.66, *p* > .05, 95%CI = -0.11, 0.22). Career aspirations did not significantly moderate the indirect effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via affective commitment, as the 95% confidence interval included zero (-0.17, 0.16). Therefore, the moderated mediation was not significant and hypothesis 5a was not supported.

Table 5.3 – Results of the moderated mediation via affective commitment

							R^2
Model 1: mediator variable model	Outcome: Affective commitment						0.14
	Effect	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI	
FFPs	0.23	0.08	2.75	0.006	0.06	0.39	
Career Aspirations	0.22	0.12	1.78	0.077	-0.02	0.47	
FFPs x Career Aspirations	0.01	0.08	0.17	0.863	-0.15	0.18	
Model 2: outcome variable model	Outcome: Turnover Intentions						0.52
	Effect	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI	
FFPs	0.05	0.09	0.60	0.557	-0.12	0.22	
Affective Commitment	-0.94	0.07	-12.90	0.000	-1.09	-0.80	
Career Aspirations	0.27	0.13	2.11	0.036	0.02	0.52	
FFPs x Career Aspirations	0.06	0.09	0.66	0.511	-0.11	0.22	
	Conditional indirect effect (via affective commitment)						
	Effect	BootSE			BootLLCI	BootULCI	
Career Aspirations (-1SD)	-0.21	0.10			-0.43	-0.02	
Career Aspirations (+1SD)	-0.23	0.10			-0.43	-0.03	
	Index	BootSE			BootLLCI	BootULCI	
Index of moderated mediation	-0.01	0.08			-0.17	0.16	

N = 198. Models controlled for job insecurity. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. 95% confidence intervals from 5,000 bootstrap samples. LL – lower limit; UL – upper limit; CI – confidence limit. FFPs – Family-friendly practices.

Study 2: Normative Commitment as the mediator

Hypothesis 2b predicted that normative commitment mediated the relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions. Results showed that the 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via normative commitment (B = -0.03) included zero (-0.17, 0.10), suggesting that there is no significant indirect effect (Table 5.4). Thus, hypothesis 2b was not supported.

Table 5.4 – Results of the normative commitment mediation

							R^2
Model 1: mediator variable model	Outcome: Normative commitment						0.03
	Effect	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI	
FFPs	0.05	0.09	0.50	0.617	-0.14	0.23	
Model 2: outcome variable model	Outcome: Turnover Intentions						0.43
	Effect	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI	
FFPs	-0.13	0.09	-1.37	0.171	-0.30	0.05	
Normative Commitment	-0.74	0.07	-10.564	0.000	-0.88	-0.60	
	Effect	BootSE			BootLLCI	BootULCI	
Indirect Effect of FFPs on Turnover Intentions via Normative Commitment	-0.03	0.07			-0.17	0.10	

N = 199. Models controlled for job insecurity. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Bootstrap sample size = 5000. LL – lower limit; UL – upper limit; CI – confidence interval. FFPs – Family-friendly practices.

Table 5.5 show that the interaction between FFPs and career aspirations did not significantly contribute to normative commitment (B = 0.08, *t* = 0.86, *p* > .05, 95%CI = -0.11, 0.27). Consequently, hypothesis 3b, which suggested that career aspirations moderated the relationship between FFPs and normative commitment, was not supported. The interaction between FFPs and career aspirations did not significantly contribute to turnover intentions (B = 0.10, *t* = 1.12, *p* > .05, 95%CI = -0.08, 0.28). Therefore, hypothesis 4, regarding the moderation effect of career aspirations in the direct relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions, was not supported. Career aspirations do not significantly moderate the indirect effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via normative commitment, as the 95% confidence interval includes zero (-0.24, 0.07). So, the moderated mediation was not significant and hypothesis 5b was not supported.

Table 5.5 – Results of the moderated mediation via normative commitment

							R^2
Model 1: mediator variable model	Outcome: Normative commitment						0.04
	Effect	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI	
FFPs	0.05	0.09	0.52	0.607	-0.14	0.24	
Career Aspirations	0.16	0.14	1.12	0.266	-0.12	0.44	
FFPs x Career Aspirations	0.08	0.09	0.86	0.392	-0.11	0.27	
Model 2: outcome variable model	Outcome: Turnover Intentions						0.44
	Effect	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI	
FFPs	-0.19	0.09	-1.41	0.161	-0.31	0.05	
Normative Commitment	-0.75	0.07	-10.65	0.000	-0.88	-0.61	
Career Aspirations	0.18	0.14	1.29	0.199	0.09	0.45	
FFPs x Career Aspirations	0.10	0.09	1.12	0.266	-0.08	0.28	
	Conditional indirect effect (via normative commitment)						
	Effect	BootSE			BootLLCI	BootULCI	
Career Aspirations (-1SD)	0.01	0.09			-0.14	0.24	
Career Aspirations (+1SD)	-0.08	0.09			-0.28	0.12	
	Index	BootSE			BootLLCI	BootULCI	
Index of moderated mediation	-0.06	0.08			-0.24	0.07	

N = 198. Models controlled for job insecurity. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. 95% confidence intervals from 5,000 bootstrap samples. LL – lower limit; UL – upper limit; CI – confidence limit. FFPs – Family-friendly practices.

Study 3: Continuance Commitment as the Mediator

Hypothesis 2c predicted that continuance commitment mediated the relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions. The 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via continuance commitment (B = 0.04) included zero (-0.04, 0.14), suggesting that there was no significant indirect effect (Table 5.6). Thus, hypothesis 2c was not supported.

Table 5.6 – Results of the continuance commitment mediation

								R^2
Model 1: mediator variable model	Outcome: Continuance commitment							0.05
		Effect	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI	
	FFPs	-0.08	0.08	-1.01	0.312	-0.24	0.08	
Model 2: outcome variable model	Outcome: Turnover Intentions							0.22
		Effect	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI	
	FFPs	-0.20	0.11	-1.90	0.059	-0.41	0.01	
	Continuance Commitment	-0.52	0.09	-5.54	0.000	-0.70	-0.33	
Indirect Effect of FFPs on Turnover Intentions via Continuance Commitment		Effect	BootSE			BootLLCI	BootULCI	
		0.04	0.04			-0.04	0.14	

N = 199. Models controlled for job insecurity. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. 95% confidence intervals from 5,000 bootstrap samples. LL – lower limit; UL – upper limit; CI – confidence interval. FFPs – Family-friendly practices.

The results for moderation and the moderated mediation effects are present in table 5.7. Hypothesis 3c suggested that career aspirations moderated the relationship between FFPs and continuance commitment, however, this hypothesis was not supported as the interaction between FFPs, and career aspirations did not significantly contribute to continuance commitment (B = -0.07, *t* = -0.86, *p* > .05, 95% CI = -0.23, 0.09).

Furthermore, the interaction between FFPs and career aspirations did not significantly contribute to turnover intentions either (B = 0.01, *t* = -0.06, *p* > .05, 95% CI = -0.21, 0.22) as shown in Table 5.7. Therefore, hypothesis 4 regarding the moderation effect of career aspirations in the direct relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions was not supported.

To conclude, career aspirations did not significantly moderate the indirect effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via normative commitment, as the 95% confidence interval includes zero (-0.04, 0.15). Thus, the moderated mediation was not significant and hypothesis 5c was not supported.

Table 5.7 – Results of the moderated mediation via normative commitment

							R^2
Model 1: mediator variable model	Outcome: Continuance commitment						0.06
	Effect	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI	
FFPs	-0.8	0.08	-0.92	0.357	-0.24	0.09	
Career Aspirations	-0.16	0.12	-1.28	0.201	-0.40	0.08	
FFPs x Career Aspirations	-0.07	0.08	-0.86	0.390	-0.23	0.09	
Model 2: outcome variable model	Outcome: Turnover Intentions						0.22
	Effect	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI	
FFPs	-0.20	0.11	-1.88	0.061	-0.42	0.01	
Continuance Commitment	-0.50	0.10	-5.33	0.000	-0.69	-0.32	
Career Aspirations	0.02	0.16	-0.12	0.905	-0.34	0.30	
FFPs x Career Aspirations	0.01	0.11	-0.06	0.952	-0.21	0.22	
	Conditional indirect effect (via continuance commitment)						
	Effect	BootSE			BootLLCI	BootULCI	
Career Aspirations (-1SD)	0.01	0.05			-0.11	0.11	
Career Aspirations (+1SD)	0.07	0.07			-0.04	0.21	
	Index	SE			Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI	
Index of moderated mediation	0.04	0.05			-0.04	0.15	

N = 198. Models controlled for job insecurity. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. 95% confidence intervals from 5,000 bootstrap samples. LL – lower limit; UL – upper limit; CI – confidence limit. FFPs – Family-friendly practices.

6. Discussion

The purpose of this dissertation was to analyse the impact of family-friendly practices (FFPs) on turnover intentions. Furthermore, affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment were individually studied as mediators in the FFPs - turnover intentions relationship. Additionally, career aspirations were introduced in the research model to study whether they acted as moderators in the relationship between FFPs and each of the subscales of organizational commitment; or in the relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions. Although all these variables have been studied before, some of them in greater depth than others, to the best of the author's knowledge no studies have examined the moderated mediation proposed in this dissertation, meaning this dissertation will close that gap in the literature, particularly using a Portuguese sample.

Our results found no relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions which means that, for our sample, whether organizations invest or not in family-friendly practices, turnover intentions will not be directly affected. This is a contradictory result as the literature expects FFPs to decrease turnover (Bourhis & Mekkaoui, 2010; Swody & Powell, 2007; Thompson et al., 1999). A possible explanation can be found in Bae and Goodman (2014) as they found that FFPs had little to no influence on turnover intentions and, similarly to this dissertation, they also found it to oppose the literature they had read on the matter. They suggested that supervisor's pressure was leading employees to not use FFPs as to not harm their careers, and hence the contradictory results of the lack of an impact from FFPs. This may well be the case for our sample as well, as 45% of the Portuguese respondents to the Eurobarometer report on work-life balance stated that they had found their career to be negatively impacted by the use of family-leaves (Kantar Public Brussels, 2018). Another viable explanation can be found on the literature that supports the relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions (Bourhis & Mekkaoui, 2010; Swody & Powell, 2007; Thompson et al., 1999) which shows that FFPs increase other variables such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction, so it is feasible to believe that FFPs don't decrease turnover intentions on their own, but indirectly via the increase in organizational commitment. This would then decrease turnover intentions which in turn would decrease turnover, as turnover intentions are the precursor of turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

In fact, our results showed the existence of an indirect relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions via affective commitment. However, results found no mediation effect in the relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions via normative commitment or continuance commitment. Although organizational commitment as a whole does have a negative correlation with turnover intentions, as established in the literature (Griffeth, 2000; Mowday et al., 1975), it has also been demonstrated that affective commitment has the strongest correlation with turnover intentions (Jaros, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1996). Therefore, it is not surprising that affective commitment was a significant predictor of turnover intentions. Thus, a manager interested in provoking a decrease on turnover intentions through family-friendly practices should focus on the role of affective commitment in this relationship. This finding is consistent with previous studies in the literature (Bourhis & Mekkaoui, 2010; Jaros, 1997; Swody & Powell, 2007; Thompson et al., 1999). We were, nonetheless, expecting a mediation effect from normative and continuance commitment. As explained in our literature review, normative commitment was expected to have a similar behaviour to affective commitment. Continuance commitment was expected to decrease with FFPs and lead to a decrease in turnover intentions. Neither of these happened and we'll present a possible reason for these results.

Table 5.1 shows that both normative and continuance commitment are correlated to turnover intentions. They aren't, though, correlated to FFPs. Family-friendly practices have positive consequences for employees such as increased job satisfaction, reduced parenting stress and improved work-life balance (Swody & Powell, 2007; Thompson et al., 1999; UNICEF, 2019a). And they also have benefits for the organization such as reduced absenteeism, increased market attractiveness, increased employee retention and, in turn, lowered recruitment costs (UNICEF, 2019a). Perhaps it is possible that employees with different types of organizational commitment saw FFPs through different optics. Firstly, individuals who have an affective attachment to the organization may choose to see FFPs as the organization wanting to help their employees, which in turn will strengthen the existing affective bond, explaining the existence of the mediation effect. Secondly, individuals with normative commitment are individuals that feel indebted to the organization, and so choose to stay through a sense of guilt (Brown, 1996; Jaros, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Riley, 2006; Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008). Perhaps these individuals chose not to use FFPs as to not increase the sense of guilt and the feeling of debt towards the organization. If this is the case and these individuals really chose not to use FFPs, then the lack of interaction would explain us finding no correlation between normative commitment and FFPs, and consequently no mediation effect. Thirdly, individuals with continuance commitment have no bond to the organizations, whether it's an affective bond or a guilt bond. They stay because they have to, because there are no other alternatives in the market for example. We expected FFPs to decrease continuance commitment by appealing to the creation of either kind of bond with the organization. As our results show that that did not happen, maybe these employees only saw FFPs as the organization trying to benefit itself. This would explain why continuance commitment didn't decrease and why FFPs didn't affect continuance commitment at all. These individuals that are only staying in the organization because they are stuck there, stay in the same situation with or without FFPs. Without a correlation between FFPs and continuance commitment, the mediation effect was also not verified.

Bloom *et al.* (2011) wrote about how the relationship between FFPs and organizational performance can be a "false positive" as FFPs are generally used together with other performance-enhancing management practices. The authors indicated that FFPs are only positively correlated with better firm performance when management quality is omitted. As our study does not control any other management practices, we cannot forget the possibility that our results were tainted with the impact of other performance-enhancing management practices. Furthermore, one must not forget that this study took place in the middle of the SARS-CoV19 pandemic, where employees were sent to work from home and organizations focused on developing and implementing measures to facilitate work-life balance. In that way, and although we controlled the pandemic effect via job insecurity, it is possible that the existence of new measures and a whole new way of living may have influenced our results.

This study also set out to examine career aspirations as a moderator. The literature suggests that when an individual's career aspirations are met inside the company, organizational commitment increases (Goulet & Singh, 2002) and turnover intentions diminish (Bigliardi et al., 2005; Li & Huang, 2017). Then again, high career aspirations can become hard for organizations to continuously fulfil, in which case the opposite consequences can be experienced. Career aspirations entail features such as recognition from the supervisor, creating an impact in one's field, being promoted at least once, becoming a leader, having space to continue one's education, among others (Gray & O'Brien, 2007). Organizations don't have the ability to promote everyone to a leadership position, for example, so those who want promotions and don't get them might start looking for the promotion outside the current organization. Therefore, we expected career aspirations to be a buffer in the relationship between FFPs and affective, normative and continuance commitment; and in the relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions. This would mean that as career aspirations increase, the effect of FFPs on organizational commitment would decrease; and that as career aspirations increase, the effect of FFPs on turnover intentions would decrease. However, based on our results, there are no statistically relevant proof to state that career aspirations are a moderator in the relationships mentioned above. Additionally, we found that career aspirations did not moderate the indirect effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via affective commitment, the indirect effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via normative commitment, or the indirect effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via continuance commitment. These results go against the literature we found and presented in chapter 2 and it is interesting to try and find reasons as to why this may have happened.

The first reason may have to do with our sample. The majority of our sample is female, married, and aged between 35 to 49 years old. As shown previously, Bass (2015) found that women tend to ramp down their career aspirations once they have children and, being that one of the criteria to participate in this study was to have children with 12 years-old or younger, every woman in our sample is a mother to at least one child. Also, it is possible that, given the age group, our respondents had already gotten the promotions or recognitions they aspired to. They could, for example, have settled for their current position and wage. In other words, as we only evaluated career aspirations and not satisfaction with career aspirations, one is left wondering if our respondents were satisfied and don't worry as much with career aspirations anymore, making the impact of career aspirations in our model mostly non-existent, as career aspirations only had a correlation with affective commitment.

The second reason may have to do with the reduced number of family-friendly practices that our respondents were exposed to. Out of the eight practices exposed in our questionnaire, the mean score was 2.78 (Table 5.1). This means that our respondents do not have a lot of support on this matter from their organizations, or at least they are unaware that their organization offers these practices. When we started this study on FFPs in Portugal we did not expect to have found such a low number of FFPs that show that, in reality, the offered family-friendly practices barely go beyond what is required by the Portuguese Labour Law. As neither of the moderation hypotheses were confirmed, our results show that career aspiration is not a relevant moderator in this model when in the presence of a low number of FFPs. On the other hand, affective commitment's score was quite high at 5.03 out of 7 (Table 5.1), which shows that our respondents are already emotionally connected with their organizations, despite the low number of FFPs. This may be due to other antecedents of affective commitment such as decentralization of the decision making process, organizational support, and role clarity (Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Also, perhaps our respondents were never offered better practices throughout their careers and consider the current offered practices to be enough. Because of this, it is possible that our respondents are unable to recognize the value that better FFPs would add to their lives, which consequently hinders the statistical significance of the impact FFPs would have in their organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

Thirdly, as our literature review exposes it, the impact of career aspirations depends on whether they are being met inside the company or if the individual feels the necessity to look for fulfilment elsewhere. It is possible that, in our model, we should have studied career aspirations fulfilment instead of just career aspirations *per se*. Our results show that career aspirations on its own do not have an impact in our model so possibly our respondents have found organizations that take their career aspirations into account and that work on fulfilling them. Because fulfilled career aspirations inside the company lead to an increase on organizational commitment (Goulet & Singh, 2002) and a decrease on turnover intentions (Bigliardi et al., 2005; Li & Huang, 2017), this could explain why our affective commitment is already fairly positive and our turnover intentions are at a low 3.40 out of 7 (Table 5.1).

Lastly, to measure career aspirations the Revised Career Aspiration Scale was used, an instrument developed in 2016 (Gregor & O'Brien, 2016). Considering the SARS-CoV19 pandemic context in which our study took place, there may have been a paradigm change in what having career aspirations mean since 2016. With the fear of losing jobs, the stress of not knowing what the future held both professional and personally, and the shift into a virtual world, there may have been a priority shift. If employees started to aspire for careers that would give them long-term security, health care plans, flexible working hours, and the possibility to work from home more than they aspire for education and leadership positions, then perhaps our respondents didn’t identify with the instrument we used to measure career aspirations. Maybe career aspirations didn’t moderate the model because the concrete items of career aspirations we measured were out of context for the present reality.

Recommendations and Conclusions

The fact that this dissertation studies two variables that haven't received much attention in the literature, family-friendly practices and career aspirations, is one of its strengths. However, this dissertation has its limitations, as all research does. One of them is the number of participants. The sample criteria for this study was very specific (employees that work on the private sector in Portugal, and that have had at least one child in the last twelve years), which made data collection harder. Nevertheless, a bigger sample could help identify outliers and decrease margins of error. Ensuring sample representativeness is also important. Were this study to be repeated in Portugal, we would recommend ensuring country-wide representativeness as culture, birth rates and job alternatives vary greatly depending on the geographic region. For instance, in regions up-country jobs are scarcer and the population does not have many alternatives to the organization they are already working in. This may affect the turnover intention levels and particularly continuance commitment levels, which will then be translated into the results. In the same way, culture changes country-wide on the view of grandparents helping raise the children, which will affect how much FFPs are valued and needed in that region and, therefore, their impacts. We would also recommend guaranteeing industry representativeness, as organizations' behaviours can change depending on its industry. Further, it would be interesting to conduct a comparative study between male and female respondents as a recent Eurobarometer report found that in Portugal 61% of respondents found it to be easier for women than for men to take family leaves (Kantar Public Brussels, 2018). The same report found that only 41% of European men took a paternity leave, but women value less the financial compensation during leaves than men; and that 34% of the female respondents found that flexible work arrangements negatively impacted their career, against 28% of the male respondents (Kantar Public Brussels, 2018).

More studies are needed on the fields of career aspirations and family-friendly practices. We have found that, when compared to subjects as organizational commitment and turnover intentions, the existing literature on career aspirations and FFPs is unsatisfactory. This shows that we do not fully understand the behaviour of Family-friendly practices and career aspirations, making it hard to predict their impact on other variables and making it possible for these predictions to be distant from the reality. It would be interesting to repeat this study in a few years, once we are more aware of the complex dimensions of career aspirations and FFPs and the impacts they have on the employee-organization relationship.

For future studies, the author would also recommend measuring whether the individual considers that their career aspirations are being met inside the company. Knowing the answer to this question might have helped us understand if career aspirations simply have no impact on the relationship between FFPs and organizational commitment, on the relationship between FFPs and turnover intentions, and on the indirect effect of FFPs on turnover intentions via organizational commitment; or if this impact fully depends on career aspirations being fulfilled. For now, the author considers that a study comparing high career aspirations and low career aspirations as moderators would also be interesting.

Furthermore, literature shows that the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions is stronger over time (Mowday et al., 1975), and specifically that there is a time lag between the moment the employee experiences organizational commitment and the moment it starts impacting turnover intentions (Jaros, 1997). Thus, it would be interesting to perform this study in two different moments in time and study whether this time lag would have a significant impact on the model proposed in this dissertation.

In sum, our results have proven that FFPs have an indirect effect on turnover intentions via affective commitment, such that higher FFPs will increase organizational commitment, which in turn will decrease turnover intentions. These results come as a confirmation of what we had already found and stated in our literature review.

References

Albrecht, S. L., & Marty, A. (2020). Personality, self-efficacy and job resources and their associations with employee engagement, affective commitment and turnover intentions. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *31*(5), 657–681. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2017.1362660

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuanc and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *63*, 1–18.

Aranki, D. H., Suifan, T. S., & Sweis, R. J. (2019). The Relationship between Organizational Culture and Organizational Commitment. *Modern Applied Science*, *13*(4), 137. https://doi.org/10.5539/mas.v13n4p137

Assembleia da República. (2009). Código do Trabalho - Lei nº7/2009. In *Diário da República* (Vol. 1, Issue 30).

Bae, K. Bin, & Goodman, D. (2014). The influence of family-friendly policies on turnover and performance in South Korea. *Public Personnel Management*, *43*(4), 520–542. https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026014536055

Bass, B. C. (2015). Preparing for Parenthood?: Gender, Aspirations, and the Reproduction of Labor Market Inequality. *Gender and Society*, *29*(3), 362–385. https://doi.org/10.1177/0891243214546936

Bigliardi, B., Petroni, A., & Ivo Dormio, A. (2005). Organizational socialization, career aspirations and turnover intentions among design engineers. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *26*(6), 424–441. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730510617645

Bloom, N., Kretschmer, T., & Van Reenen, J. (2011). ARE FAMILY-FRIENDLY WORKPLACE PRACTICES A VALUABLE FIRM RESOURCE? *Strategic Management Journal*, *32*, 343–367. https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.879

Bothma, C. F. C., & Roodt, G. (2013). The validation of the turnover intention scale. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *11*(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v11i1.507

Bourhis, A., & Mekkaoui, R. (2010). Beyond Work-Family Balance: Are Family-Friendly Organizations More Attractive ? *Relations Industrielles / Industrial Relations*, *65*(1), 98–117. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.7202/039529ar

Brown, R. B. (1996). Organizational commitment: Clarifying the concept and simplifying the existing construct typology. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *49*(3), 230–251. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1996.0042

Budd, J. W., & Mumford, K. A. (2006). Family-friendly work practices in Britain: Availability and perceived accessibility. *Human Resource Management*, *45*(1), 23–42. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20091

Clement, T., & Cucchiara, A. (2018). *How are Companies Modifying Benefits in Total Rewards Programs to Address the Varying Needs of their Employee Population?* https://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/student/197

Cohen, G., Blake, R. S., & Goodman, D. (2016). Does Turnover Intention Matter? Evaluating the Usefulness of Turnover Intention Rate as a Predictor of Actual Turnover Rate. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *36*(3), 240–263. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X15581850

Collins, M. (2014). *How can organisations support the engagement of female employees post maternity leave? March*, 1–72.

Corgas, A. B. C. (2017). *Aspirações de vida de estudantes universitários : um estudo com alunos de mestrado do ISCTE-IUL Aspirações de vida de estudantes universitários : um estudo com alunos de mestrado do ISCTE-IUL*. Iscte - Instituto Universitário de Lisboa.

Cunha, V., Atalaia, S., & Wall, K. (2016). *Policy Brief II Homens e Licenças Parentais: Quadro Legal, Atitudes e Práticas*. https://repositorio.ul.pt/bitstream/10451/27160/1/ICS_VCunha_SAtalaia_KWall_PolicyBriefII.pdf

Dex, S., Smith, C., & Winter, S. (2001). Effects of family-friendly policies on business performance.

Research Papers in Management Studies, University of Cambridge, 1–51.

Dougherty, T. W., Bluedorn, A. C., & Keon, T. L. (1985). Precursors of employee turnover: A multiple-sample causal analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *6*(4), 259–271. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030060404

Geurts, S. A., Schaufeli, W. B., & Rutte, C. G. (1999). Absenteeism, turnover intention and inequity in the employment relationship. *Work and Stress*, *13*(3), 253–267. https://doi.org/10.1080/026783799296057

Goulet, L. R., & Singh, P. (2002). Career Commitment : A Reexamination and an Extension. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *61*, 73–91. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1844

Gray, M. P., & O'Brien, K. M. (2007). Advancing the assessment of women's career choices: The career aspiration scale. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *15*(3), 317–337. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072707301211

Gregor, M. A., & O'Brien, K. M. (2016). Understanding Career Aspirations Among Young Women: Improving Instrumentation. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *24*(3), 559–572. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072715599537

Griffeth, R. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium. *Journal of Management*, *26*(3), 463–488. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0149-2063(00)00043-x

Guerreiro, M. D. D., Lourenço, V., & Pereira, I. (2006). Boas Práticas de Conciliação entre Vida Profissional e Vida Familiar. In *Ministério do Trabalho e da Solidariedade Social Comissão para a Igualdade no Trabalho e no Emprego*. http://igualdade.cm-abrantes.pt/docs/Boas_Praticas_de_Conciliac.pdf

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2019). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (8th ed.). Pearson New International Edition.

Hayes, A. (2013). Integrating Mediation and Moderation Analysis: fundamentals using PROCESS. In *Introduction to Mediation, Moderation and Conditional Process Analysis*.

Hollingworth, D., & Valentine, S. (2014). Corporate social responsibility, continuous process improvement orientation, organizational commitment and turnover intentions. *International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management*, *31*(6), 629–651. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJQRM-09-2012-0131

Holmes, E. K., Petts, R. J., Thomas, C. R., Robbins, N. L., & Henry, T. (2020). Do workplace characteristics moderate the effects of attitudes on father warmth and engagement? *Journal of Family Psychology*, *34*(7), 867–878. https://doi.org/10.1037/fam0000672

Instituto Nacional de Estatística, S. P. (2012). *Estatísticas no Feminino: Ser Mulher em Portugal*.

Jaros, S. J. (1997). An assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *51*(3), 319–337. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1995.1553

Jin, M. H., McDonald, B., & Park, J. (2018). Person–Organization Fit and Turnover Intention: Exploring the Mediating Role of Employee Followership and Job Satisfaction Through Conservation of Resources Theory. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *38*(2), 167–192. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X16658334

Kantar Public Brussels. (2018). *Flash Eurobarometer 470 – Work-Life Balance* (Issue October). https://doi.org/10.2838/173898

Kim, Y. H., O'Brien, K. M., & Kim, H. (2016). Measuring Career Aspirations Across Cultures: Using the Career Aspiration Scale With Young Korean Women. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *24*(3), 573–585. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072715599538

Li, Y., & Huang, S. (2017). Hospitality service climate, employee service orientation, career aspiration and performance: A moderated mediation model. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *67*, 24–32. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2017.07.012

Meyer, J. P., & Allen., N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application.* Sage Publications.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment.

Human Resource Management Review, *1*(1), 61–89. https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822(91)90011-Z

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1996). Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment to the Organization: An Examination of Construct Validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *49*(3), 252–276. http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8980084

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *78*(4), 538–551. https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.78.4.538

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *61*(1), 20–52. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1842

Mikolajczak, M., Gross, J. J., & Roskam, I. (2019). Parental Burnout: What Is It, and Why Does It Matter? *Clinical Psychological Science*, *7*(6), 1319–1329. https://doi.org/10.1177/2167702619858430

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1975). The Measurement of Organizational Commitment. *Jornal of Vocational Behavior*, *14*(2), 224–247. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(79)90072-1

Nascimento, J. L. R. P. (2010). *Influência do Comprometimento Organizacional nas Estratégias Comportamentais, Mediada pelo Comprometimento com os Objetivos e pela Satisfação Global com o Trabalho*. Iscte - Instituto Universitário de Lisboa.

Park, S. M., & Rainey, H. G. (2007). Consequences of Affective , Normative , and Continuance. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *27*(3), 197–226.

Peper, B., Dulk, L. Den, & Doorne-Huiskes, A. Van. (2005). *Flexible Working and Organisational Change: The Integration of Work and Personal Life*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Perry-Smith, J. E., & Blum, T. C. (2000). Work-family human resource bundles and perceived organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *43*(5), 1107–1117. https://doi.org/10.5465/1556339

Poelmans, S. A. Y. (2005). *Work and Family: An International Research Perspective*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Riley, D. (2006). *Turnover Intentions: The mediation effects of job satisfcation, affective commitment and continuance commitment*. The University of Waikato.

Ronda, L., Ollo-López, A., & Goñi-Legaz, S. (2016). Family-friendly practices, high-performance work practices and work–family balance: How do job satisfaction and working hours affect this relationship? *Management Research*, *14*(1), 2–23. https://doi.org/10.1108/MRJIAM-02-2016-0633

Roskam, I., Aguiar, J., Akgun, E., Arikan, G., Artavia, M., & Avalosse, H. (2021). Parental Burnout Around the Globe : a 42-Country Study. *Affective Science*, *2*, 58–79. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1007/s42761-020-00028-4

Santoso, A. L., Sitompul, S. A., & Budiatmanto, A. (2018). Burnout, Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intention. *Journal of Business & Retail Management Research*, *13*(01). https://doi.org/10.24052/JBRMR/V13IS01/ART-06

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *25*(3), 293–315. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.248

Shaw, J. D., Delery, J. E., Jenkins, G. D., & Gupta, N. (1998). An organization-level analysis of voluntary and involuntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, *41*(5), 511–525. https://doi.org/10.2307/256939

Swody, C. A., & Powell, G. N. (2007). Determinants of employee participation in organizations' family-friendly programs: A multi-level approach. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *22*(2), 111–122. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-007-9057-6

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Turnover Intention, and Turnover: Path Analyses Based on Meta-Analytic Findings. *Personnel Psychology*, *46*(2), 259–293.

https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1993.tb00874.x

Thompson, C. A., Beauvais, L. L., & Lyness, K. S. (1999). When Work-Family Benefits Are Not Enough: The Influence of Work-Family Culture on Benefit Utilization, Organizational Attachment, and Work-Family Conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *54*(3), 392–415. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1998.1681

UNICEF. (2019a). *Family-Friendly Policies - Redesigning the Workplace of the Future.* https://www.unicef.org/documents/family-friendly-policies-redesigning-workplace-future

UNICEF. (2019b). *Redesigning the workplace to be family-friendly: What governments and businesses can do*. https://www.unicef.org/early-childhood-development/family-friendly-policies

Van den Broeck, A., Sulea, C., Vander Elst, T., Fischmann, G., Iliescu, D., & De Witte, H. (2014). The mediating role of psychological needs in the relation between qualitative job insecurity and counterproductive work behavior. *Career Development International*, *19*(5), 526–547. https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-05-2013-0063

Vandenberghe, C., & Tremblay, M. (2008). The role of pay satisfaction and organizational commitment in turnover intentions: A two-sample study. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *22*(3), 275–286. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-008-9063-3

Annexes

A) Characterization of the organization

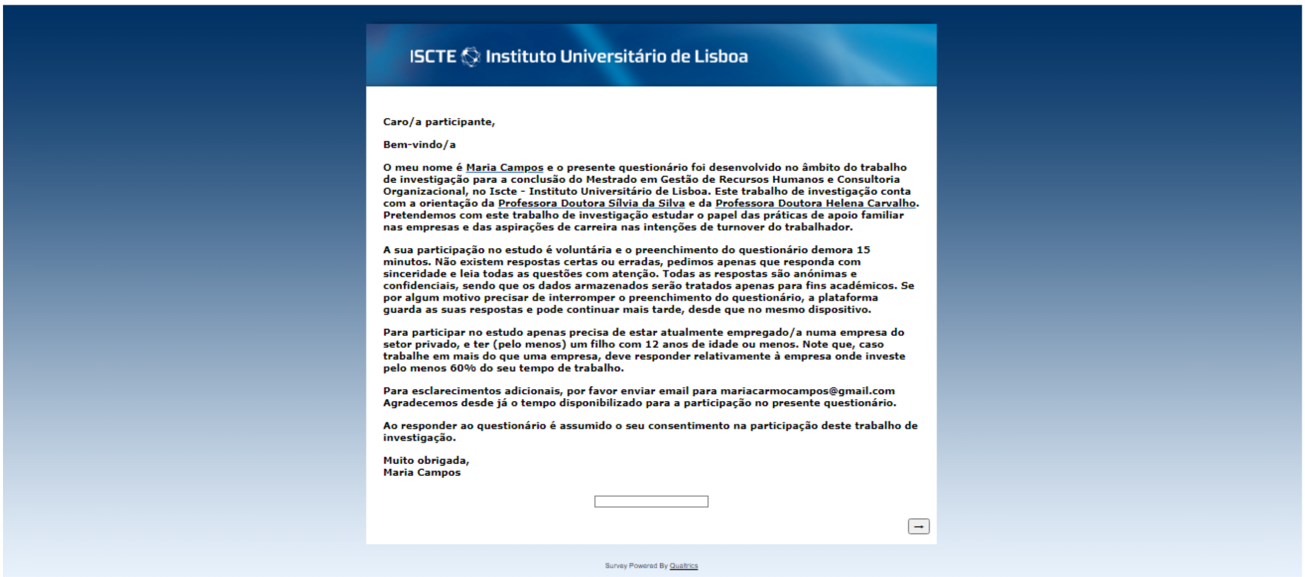
		Valid Percent
Company size **Total: N = 237** **Valid: N = 199**	Micro (1 - 9 employees)	11.6%
	Small (10 - 49 employees)	13.6%
	Medium (50 - 250 employees)	21.6%
	Large (>250 employees)	53.3%
Leadership position **Total: N = 237** **Valid: N = 194**	Yes	41.8%
	No	58.2%
Company's sector **Total: N = 237** **Valid: N = 199**	Hospitality	2.5%
	Administrative and managerial activities	4.5%
	Scientific and research activities	2.5%
	Financial services	5.5%
	Retail and wholesalers	10.1%
	Construction, Engineering and Architecture	2.5%
	Consulting and Auditing	6.5%
	Sports	1.0%
	Education	5.5%
	Electricity, Gas and Water	2.5%
	Information and Communication	5.0%
	Justice	1.0%
	Health	17.6%
	Primary sector	1.0%
	Transportation and Logistics	2.0%
	Other	30.2%
Work mode **Total: N = 237** **Valid: N = 193**	On site	32.6%
	Mixed (both remote and on site)	33.2%
	Remote	34.2%

B) Sociodemographic characterization of the sample

		Valid Percent
Sex **Total: N = 237** **Valid: N = 194**	Male	33.0%
	Female	66.5%
	Prefer not to answer	0.5%
Age **Total: N = 237** **Valid: N = 194**	25-29	4.6%
	30-34	15.5%
	35-39	21.1%
	40-44	32.0%
	45-49	20.6%
	50-54	5.2%
	55-59	0.5%
	60-64	0.0%
	>64	0.5%
Marital Status **Total: N = 237** **Valid: N = 194**	Single	7.2%
	Married/ Non-marital partnership	83.0%
	Divorced/ Separated	8.8%
	Window(er)	1.0%
Academic Qualifications **Total: N = 237** **Valid: N = 194**	Up to the 9th grade	1.0%
	Highschool	14.4%
	Bachelor's degree	57.2%
	Master's degree	23.2%
	Doctorate	4.1%

C) Questionnaire

Introduction



Caro/a participante,

Bem-vindo/a

O meu nome é Maria Campos e o presente questionário foi desenvolvido no âmbito do trabalho de investigação para a conclusão do Mestrado em Gestão de Recursos Humanos e Consultoria Organizacional, no Iscte - Instituto Universitário de Lisboa. Este trabalho de investigação conta com a orientação da Professora Doutora Sílvia da Silva e da Professora Doutora Helena Carvalho. Pretendemos com este trabalho de investigação estudar o papel das práticas de apoio familiar nas empresas e das aspirações de carreira nas intenções de turnover do trabalhador.

A sua participação no estudo é voluntária e o preenchimento do questionário demora 15 minutos. Não existem respostas certas ou erradas, pedimos apenas que responda com sinceridade e leia todas as questões com atenção. Todas as respostas são anónimas e confidenciais, sendo que os dados armazenados serão tratados apenas para fins académicos. Se por algum motivo precisar de interromper o preenchimento do questionário, a plataforma guarda as suas respostas e pode continuar mais tarde, desde que no mesmo dispositivo.

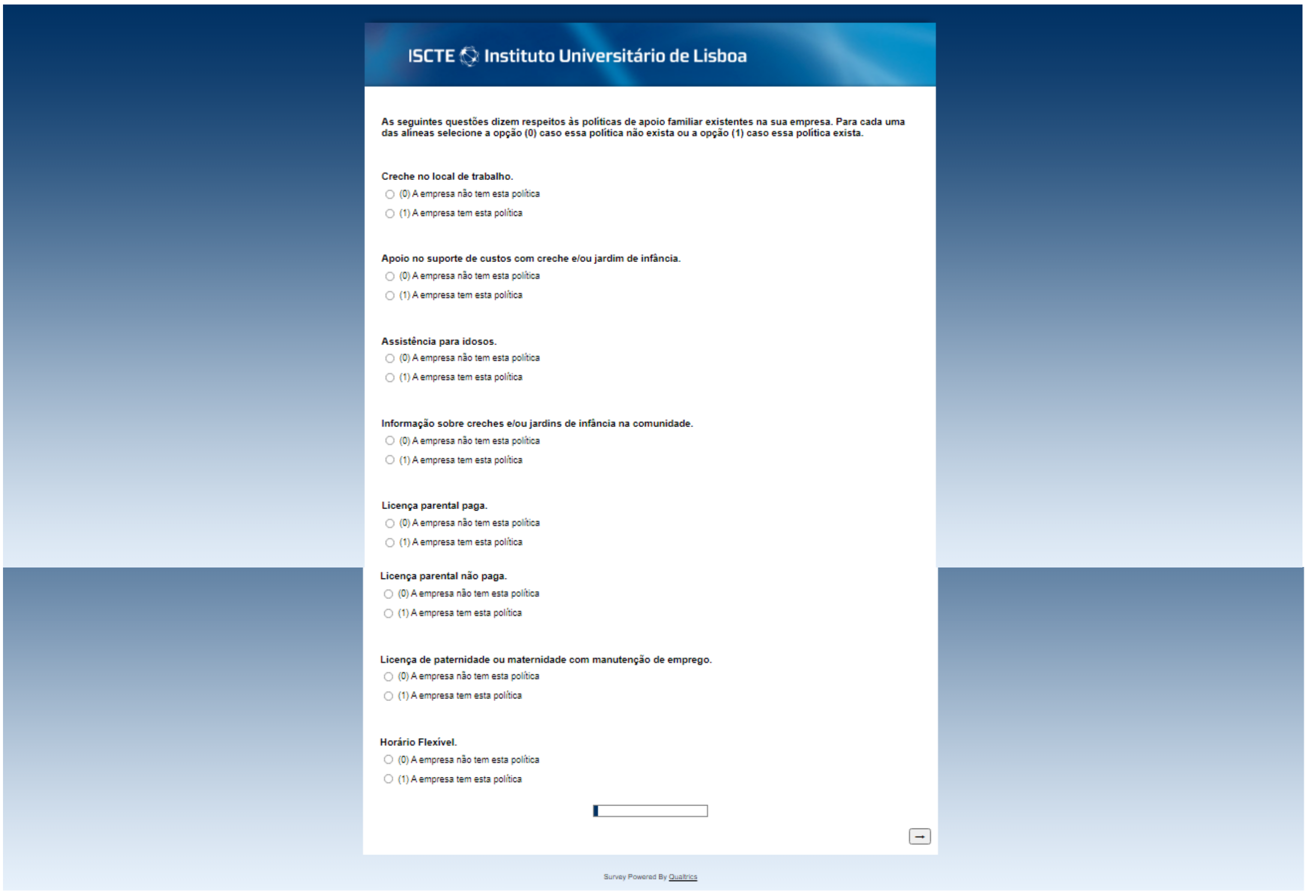
Para participar no estudo apenas precisa de estar atualmente empregado/a numa empresa do setor privado, e ter (pelo menos) um filho com 12 anos de idade ou menos. Note que, caso trabalhe em mais do que uma empresa, deve responder relativamente à empresa onde investe pelo menos 60% do seu tempo de trabalho.

Para esclarecimentos adicionais, por favor enviar email para mariacarmocampos@gmail.com
Agradecemos desde já o tempo disponibilizado para a participação no presente questionário.

Ao responder ao questionário é assumido o seu consentimento na participação deste trabalho de investigação.

Muito obrigada,
Maria Campos

Part 1 – family-friendly Practices



As seguintes questões dizem respeitos às políticas de apoio familiar existentes na sua empresa. Para cada uma das alíneas selecione a opção (0) caso essa política não exista ou a opção (1) caso essa política exista.

Creche no local de trabalho.
○ (0) A empresa não tem esta política
○ (1) A empresa tem esta política

Apoio no suporte de custos com creche e/ou jardim de infância.
○ (0) A empresa não tem esta política
○ (1) A empresa tem esta política

Assistência para idosos.
○ (0) A empresa não tem esta política
○ (1) A empresa tem esta política

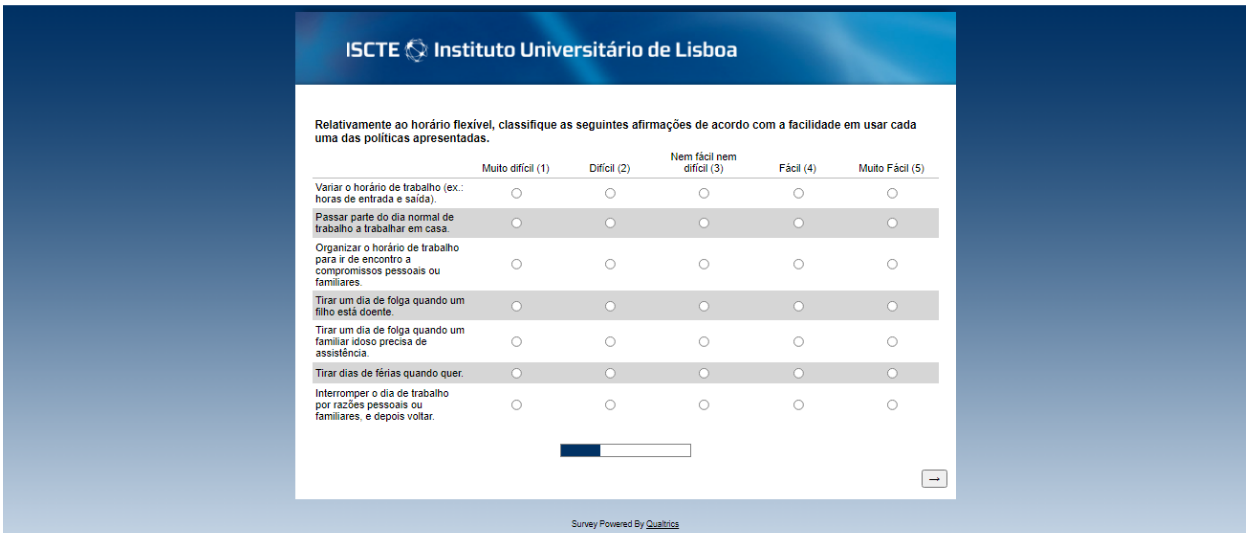
Informação sobre creches e/ou jardins de infância na comunidade.
○ (0) A empresa não tem esta política
○ (1) A empresa tem esta política

Licença parental paga.
○ (0) A empresa não tem esta política
○ (1) A empresa tem esta política

Licença parental não paga.
○ (0) A empresa não tem esta política
○ (1) A empresa tem esta política

Licença de paternidade ou maternidade com manutenção de emprego.
○ (0) A empresa não tem esta política
○ (1) A empresa tem esta política

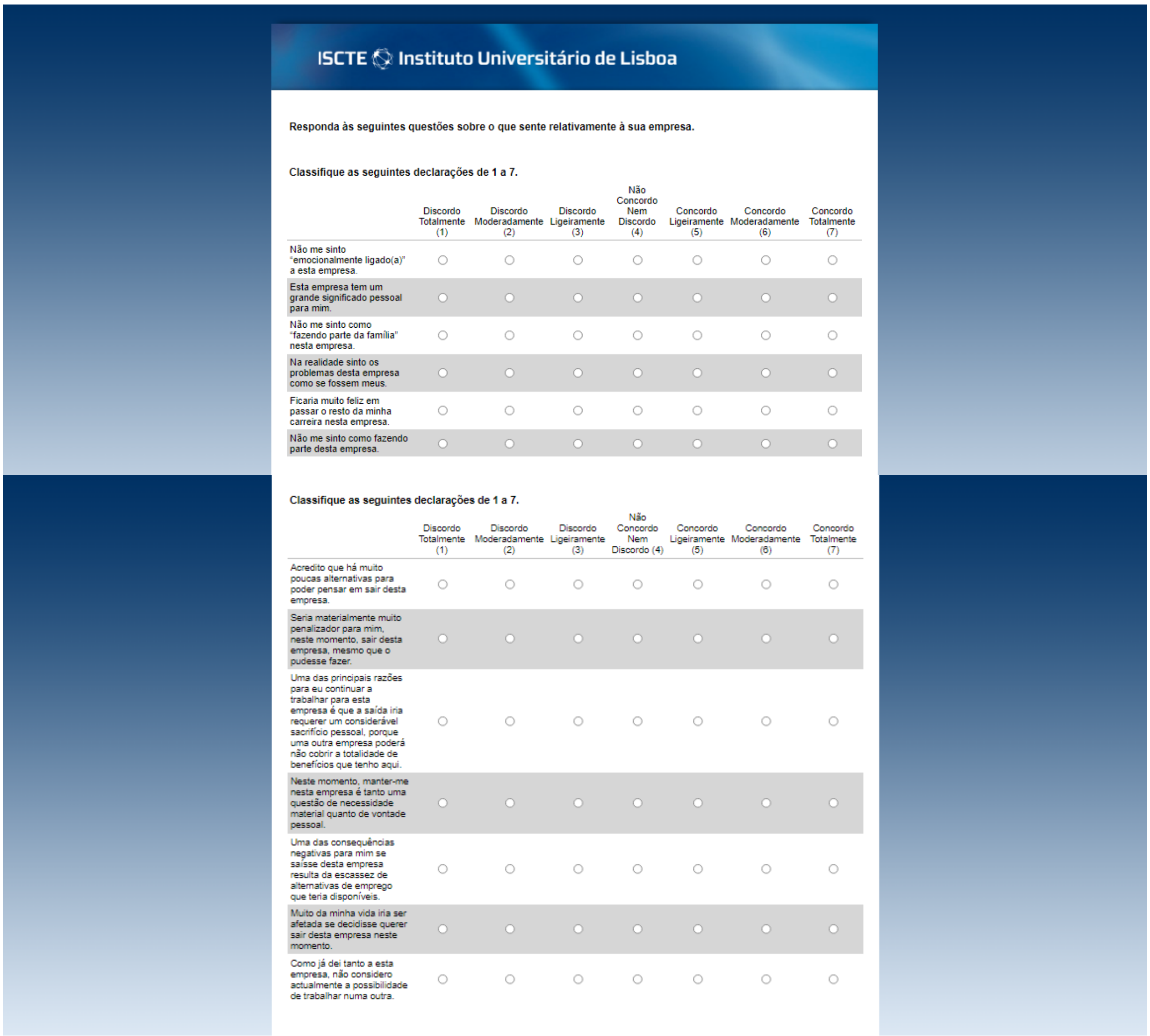
Horário Flexível.
○ (0) A empresa não tem esta política
○ (1) A empresa tem esta política


ISCTE Instituto Universitário de Lisboa
→
Survey Powered By Qualtrics

Relativamente ao horário flexível, classifique as seguintes afirmações de acordo com a facilidade em usar cada uma das políticas apresentadas.

	Muito difícil (1)	Difícil (2)	Nem fácil nem difícil (3)	Fácil (4)	Muito Fácil (5)
Variar o horário de trabalho (ex.: horas de entrada e saída).	○	○	○	○	○
Passar parte do dia normal de trabalho a trabalhar em casa.	○	○	○	○	○
Organizar o horário de trabalho para ir de encontro a compromissos pessoais ou familiares.	○	○	○	○	○
Tirar um dia de folga quando um filho está doente.	○	○	○	○	○
Tirar um dia de folga quando um familiar idoso precisa de assistência.	○	○	○	○	○
Tirar dias de férias quando quer.	○	○	○	○	○
Interromper o dia de trabalho por razões pessoais ou familiares, e depois voltar.	○	○	○	○	○

Part 2 – Organizational Commitment



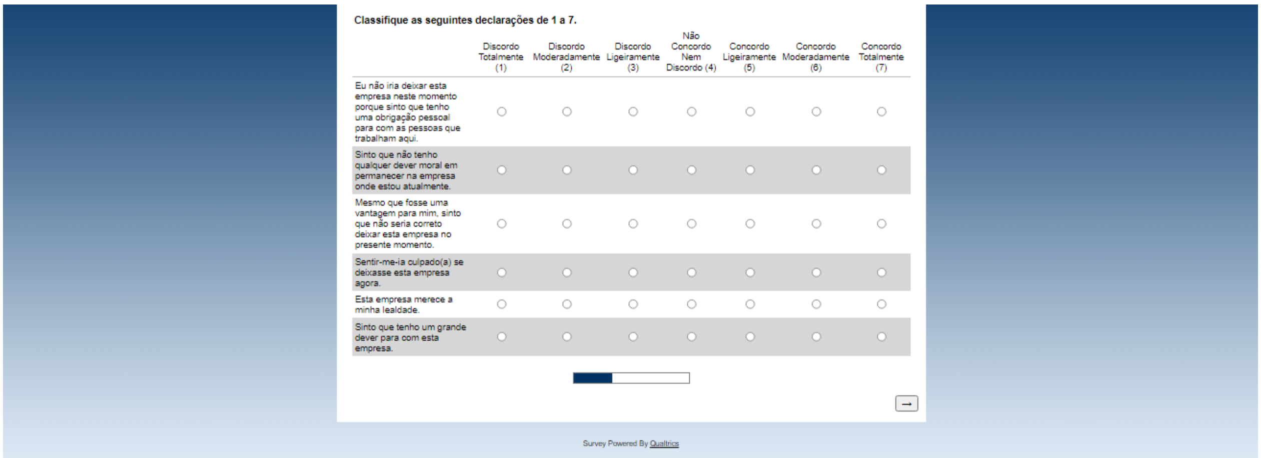
Responda às seguintes questões sobre o que sente relativamente à sua empresa.

Classifique as seguintes declarações de 1 a 7.

	Discordo Totalmente (1)	Discordo Moderadamente (2)	Discordo Ligeiramente (3)	Não Concordo Nem Discordo (4)	Concordo Ligeiramente (5)	Concordo Moderadamente (6)	Concordo Totalmente (7)
Não me sinto "emocionalmente ligado(a)" a esta empresa.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Esta empresa tem um grande significado pessoal para mim.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Não me sinto como "fazendo parte da família" nesta empresa.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Na realidade sinto os problemas desta empresa como se fossem meus.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Ficaria muito feliz em passar o resto da minha carreira nesta empresa.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Não me sinto como fazendo parte desta empresa.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Classifique as seguintes declarações de 1 a 7.

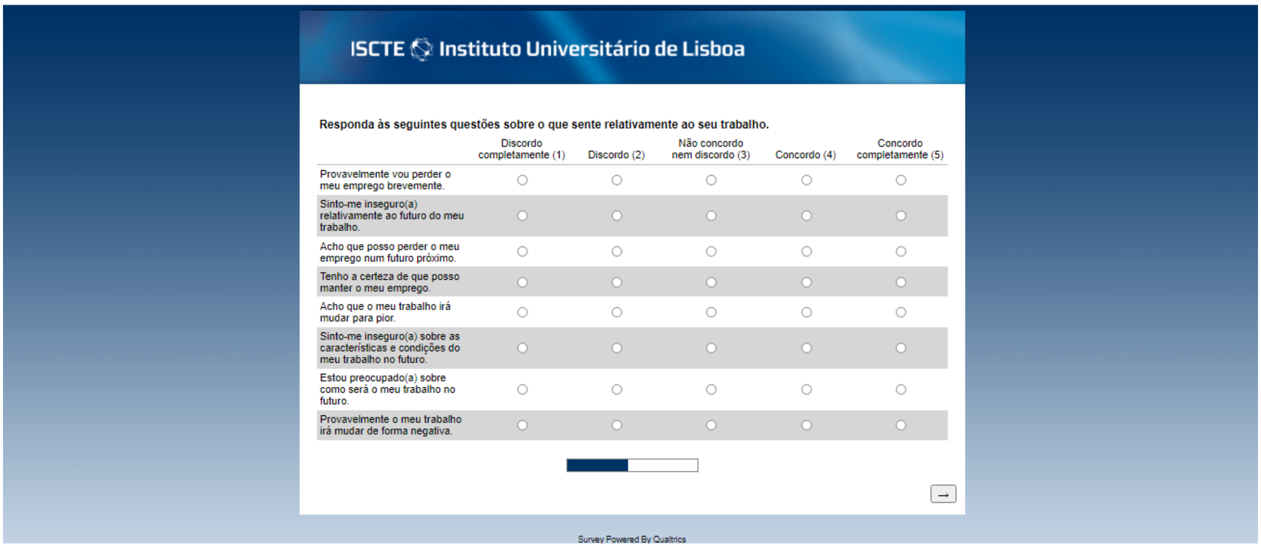
	Discordo Totalmente (1)	Discordo Moderadamente (2)	Discordo Ligeiramente (3)	Não Concordo Nem Discordo (4)	Concordo Ligeiramente (5)	Concordo Moderadamente (6)	Concordo Totalmente (7)
Acredito que há muito poucas alternativas para poder pensar em sair desta empresa.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Seria materialmente muito penalizador para mim, neste momento, sair desta empresa, mesmo que o pudesse fazer.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Uma das principais razões para eu continuar a trabalhar para esta empresa é que a saída iria requerer um considerável sacrifício pessoal, porque uma outra empresa poderá não cobrir a totalidade de benefícios que tenho aqui.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Neste momento, manter-me nesta empresa é tanto uma questão de necessidade material quanto de vontade pessoal.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Uma das consequências negativas para mim se saísse desta empresa resulta da escassez de alternativas de emprego que teria disponíveis.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Muito da minha vida iria ser afetada se decidisse querer sair desta empresa neste momento.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Como já dei tanto a esta empresa, não considero actualmente a possibilidade de trabalhar numa outra.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○



Classifique as seguintes declarações de 1 a 7.

	Discordo Totalmente (1)	Discordo Moderadamente (2)	Discordo Ligeiramente (3)	Não Concordo Nem Discordo (4)	Concordo Ligeiramente (5)	Concordo Moderadamente (6)	Concordo Totalmente (7)
Eu não iria deixar esta empresa neste momento porque sinto que tenho uma obrigação pessoal para com as pessoas que trabalham aqui.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sinto que não tenho qualquer dever moral em permanecer na empresa onde estou atualmente.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Mesmo que fosse uma vantagem para mim, sinto que não seria correto deixar esta empresa no presente momento.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sentir-me-ia culpado(a) se deixasse esta empresa agora.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Esta empresa merece a minha lealdade.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sinto que tenho um grande dever para com esta empresa.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

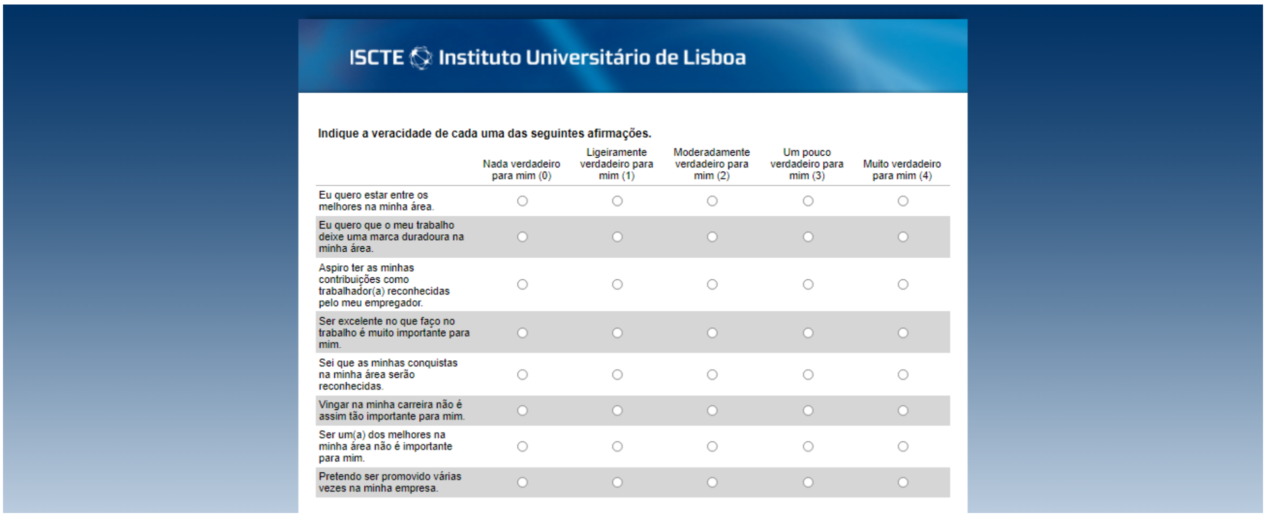
Part 3 – Job Insecurity



Responda às seguintes questões sobre o que sente relativamente ao seu trabalho.

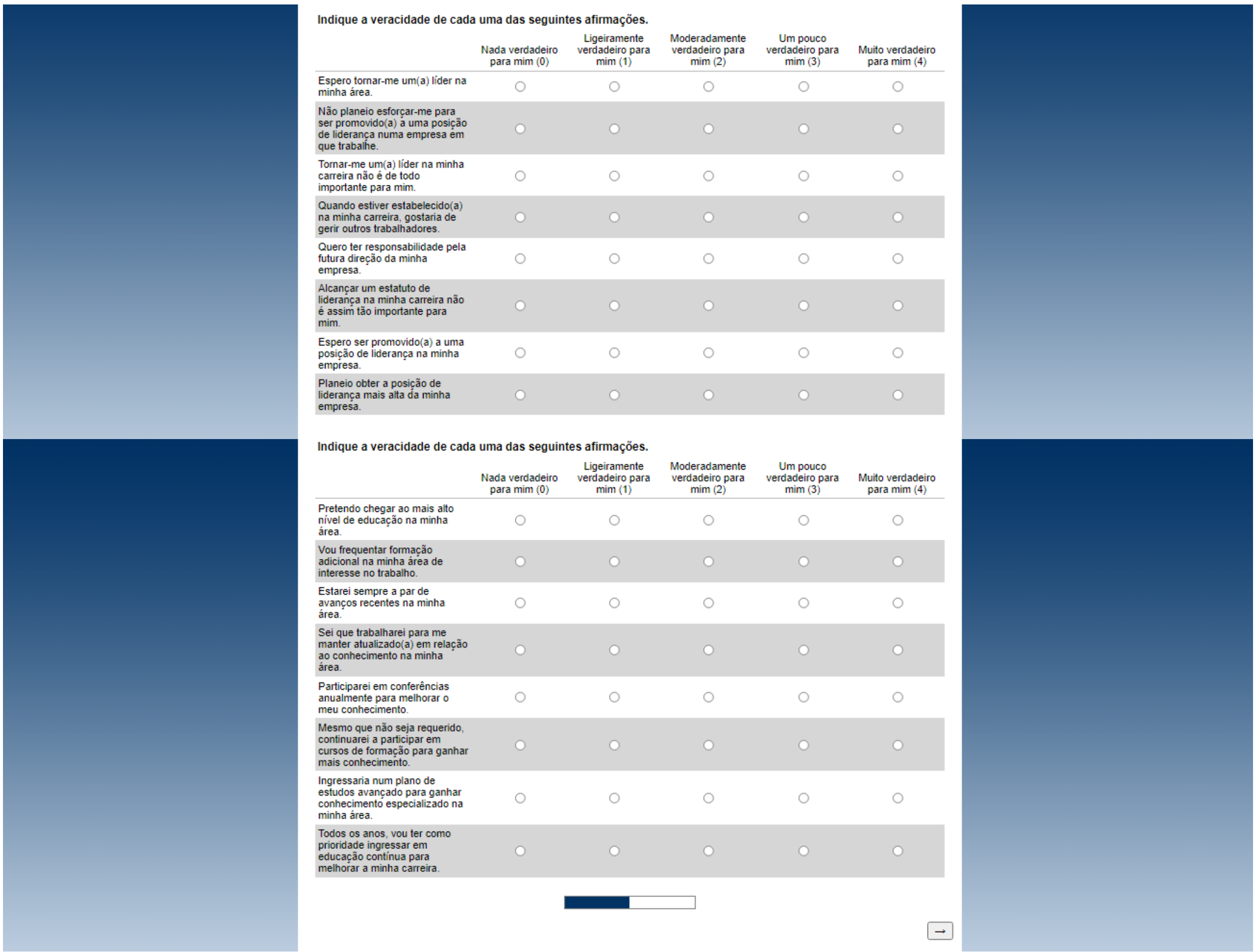
	Discordo completamente (1)	Discordo (2)	Não concordo nem discordo (3)	Concordo (4)	Concordo completamente (5)
Provavelmente vou perder o meu emprego brevemente.	○	○	○	○	○
Sinto-me inseguro(a) relativamente ao futuro do meu trabalho.	○	○	○	○	○
Acho que posso perder o meu emprego num futuro próximo.	○	○	○	○	○
Tenho a certeza de que posso manter o meu emprego.	○	○	○	○	○
Acho que o meu trabalho irá mudar para pior.	○	○	○	○	○
Sinto-me inseguro(a) sobre as características e condições do meu trabalho no futuro.	○	○	○	○	○
Estou preocupado(a) sobre como será o meu trabalho no futuro.	○	○	○	○	○
Provavelmente o meu trabalho irá mudar de forma negativa.	○	○	○	○	○

Part 4 – Career Aspirations



Indique a veracidade de cada uma das seguintes afirmações.

	Nada verdadeiro para mim (0)	Ligeiramente verdadeiro para mim (1)	Moderadamente verdadeiro para mim (2)	Um pouco verdadeiro para mim (3)	Muito verdadeiro para mim (4)
Eu quero estar entre os melhores na minha área.	○	○	○	○	○
Eu quero que o meu trabalho deixe uma marca duradoura na minha área.	○	○	○	○	○
Aspiro ter as minhas contribuições como trabalhador(a) reconhecidas pelo meu empregador.	○	○	○	○	○
Ser excelente no que faço no trabalho é muito importante para mim.	○	○	○	○	○
Sei que as minhas conquistas na minha área serão reconhecidas.	○	○	○	○	○
Vingar na minha carreira não é assim tão importante para mim.	○	○	○	○	○
Ser um(a) dos melhores na minha área não é importante para mim.	○	○	○	○	○
Pretendo ser promovido várias vezes na minha empresa.	○	○	○	○	○



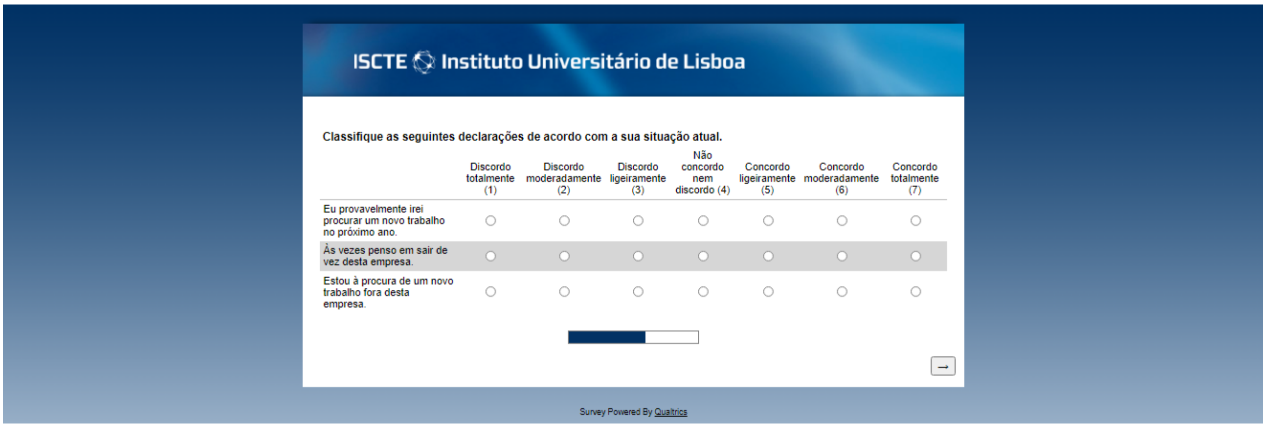
Indique a veracidade de cada uma das seguintes afirmações.

	Nada verdadeiro para mim (0)	Ligeiramente verdadeiro para mim (1)	Moderadamente verdadeiro para mim (2)	Um pouco verdadeiro para mim (3)	Muito verdadeiro para mim (4)
Espero tornar-me um(a) líder na minha área.	○	○	○	○	○
Não planeio esforçar-me para ser promovido(a) a uma posição de liderança numa empresa em que trabalhe.	○	○	○	○	○
Tornar-me um(a) líder na minha carreira não é de todo importante para mim.	○	○	○	○	○
Quando estiver estabelecido(a) na minha carreira, gostaria de gerir outros trabalhadores.	○	○	○	○	○
Quero ter responsabilidade pela futura direção da minha empresa.	○	○	○	○	○
Alcançar um estatuto de liderança na minha carreira não é assim tão importante para mim.	○	○	○	○	○
Espero ser promovido(a) a uma posição de liderança na minha empresa.	○	○	○	○	○
Planeio obter a posição de liderança mais alta da minha empresa.	○	○	○	○	○

Indique a veracidade de cada uma das seguintes afirmações.

	Nada verdadeiro para mim (0)	Ligeiramente verdadeiro para mim (1)	Moderadamente verdadeiro para mim (2)	Um pouco verdadeiro para mim (3)	Muito verdadeiro para mim (4)
Pretendo chegar ao mais alto nível de educação na minha área.	○	○	○	○	○
Vou frequentar formação adicional na minha área de interesse no trabalho.	○	○	○	○	○
Estarei sempre a par de avanços recentes na minha área.	○	○	○	○	○
Sei que trabalharei para me manter atualizado(a) em relação ao conhecimento na minha área.	○	○	○	○	○
Participarei em conferências anualmente para melhorar o meu conhecimento.	○	○	○	○	○
Mesmo que não seja requerido, continuarei a participar em cursos de formação para ganhar mais conhecimento.	○	○	○	○	○
Ingressaria num plano de estudos avançado para ganhar conhecimento especializado na minha área.	○	○	○	○	○
Todos os anos, vou ter como prioridade ingressar em educação contínua para melhorar a minha carreira.	○	○	○	○	○

Part 5 – Turnover Intentions



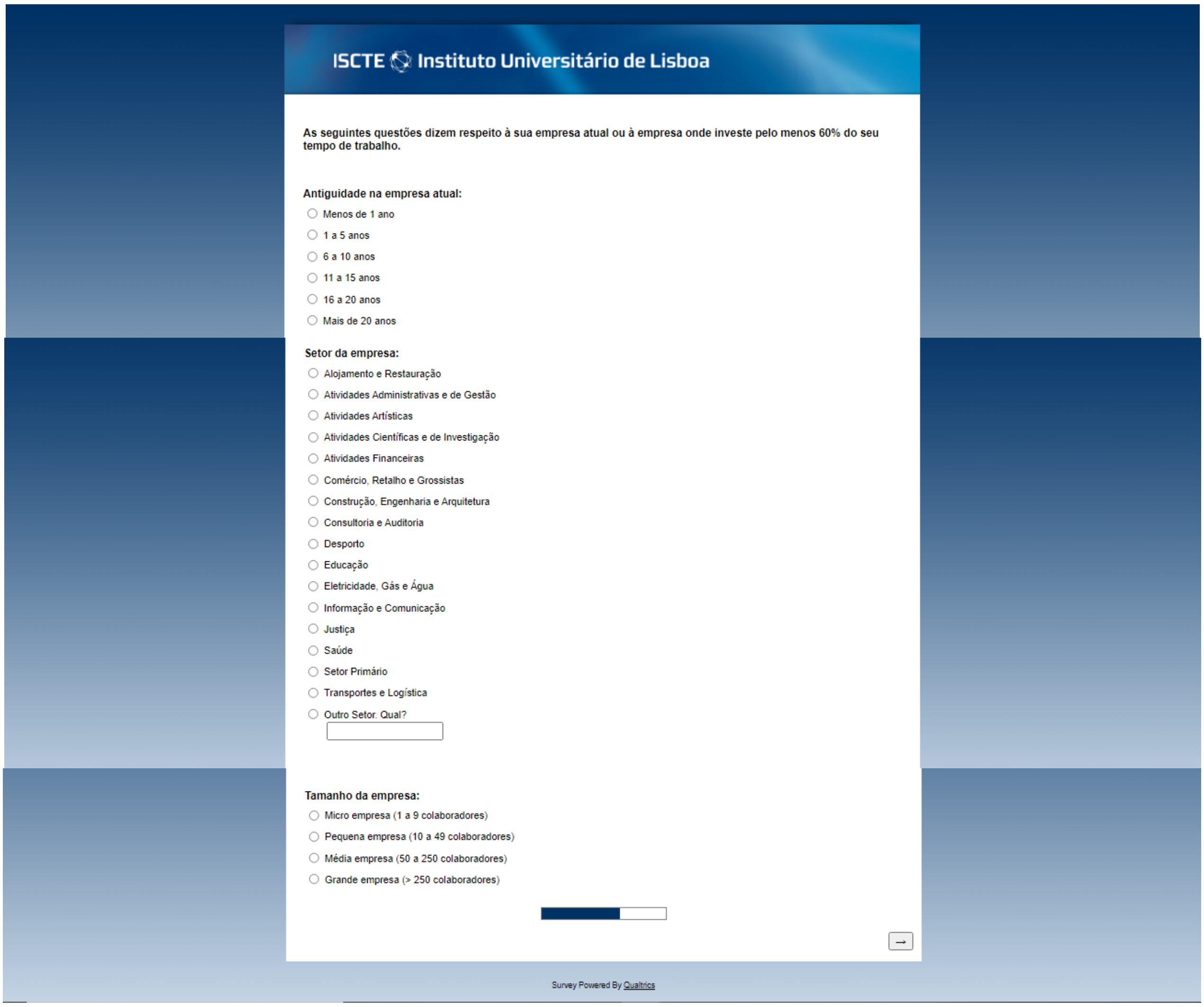
ISCTE Instituto Universitário de Lisboa

Classifique as seguintes declarações de acordo com a sua situação atual.

	Discordo totalmente (1)	Discordo moderadamente (2)	Discordo ligeiramente (3)	Não concordo nem discordo (4)	Concordo ligeiramente (5)	Concordo moderadamente (6)	Concordo totalmente (7)
Eu provavelmente irei procurar um novo trabalho no próximo ano.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Às vezes penso em sair de vez desta empresa.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Estou à procura de um novo trabalho fora desta empresa.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Survey Powered By Qualtrics

Part 6 – Company characterization



As seguintes questões dizem respeito à sua empresa atual ou à empresa onde investe pelo menos 60% do seu tempo de trabalho.

Antiguidade na empresa atual:

- ○ Menos de 1 ano
- ○ 1 a 5 anos
- ○ 6 a 10 anos
- ○ 11 a 15 anos
- ○ 16 a 20 anos
- ○ Mais de 20 anos

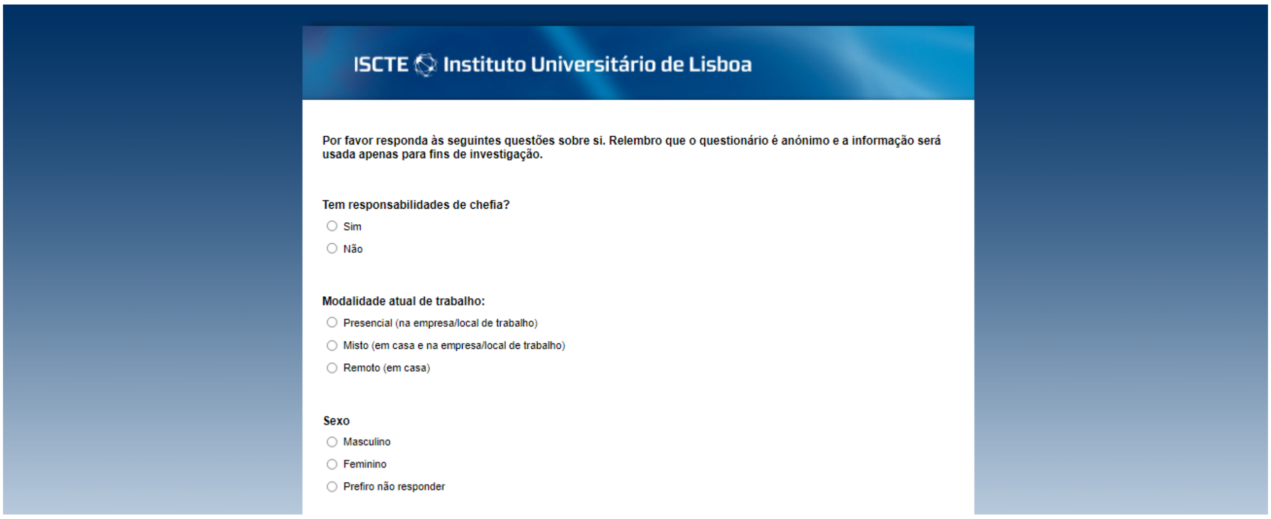
Setor da empresa:

- ○ Alojamento e Restauração
- ○ Atividades Administrativas e de Gestão
- ○ Atividades Artísticas
- ○ Atividades Científicas e de Investigação
- ○ Atividades Financeiras
- ○ Comércio, Retalho e Grossistas
- ○ Construção, Engenharia e Arquitetura
- ○ Consultoria e Auditoria
- ○ Desporto
- ○ Educação
- ○ Eletricidade, Gás e Água
- ○ Informação e Comunicação
- ○ Justiça
- ○ Saúde
- ○ Setor Primário
- ○ Transportes e Logística
- ○ Outro Setor. Qual?

Tamanho da empresa:

- ○ Micro empresa (1 a 9 colaboradores)
- ○ Pequena empresa (10 a 49 colaboradores)
- ○ Média empresa (50 a 250 colaboradores)
- ○ Grande empresa (> 250 colaboradores)

Part 7 – Sociodemographic characterization



Por favor responda às seguintes questões sobre si. Relembro que o questionário é anónimo e a informação será usada apenas para fins de investigação.

Tem responsabilidades de chefia?

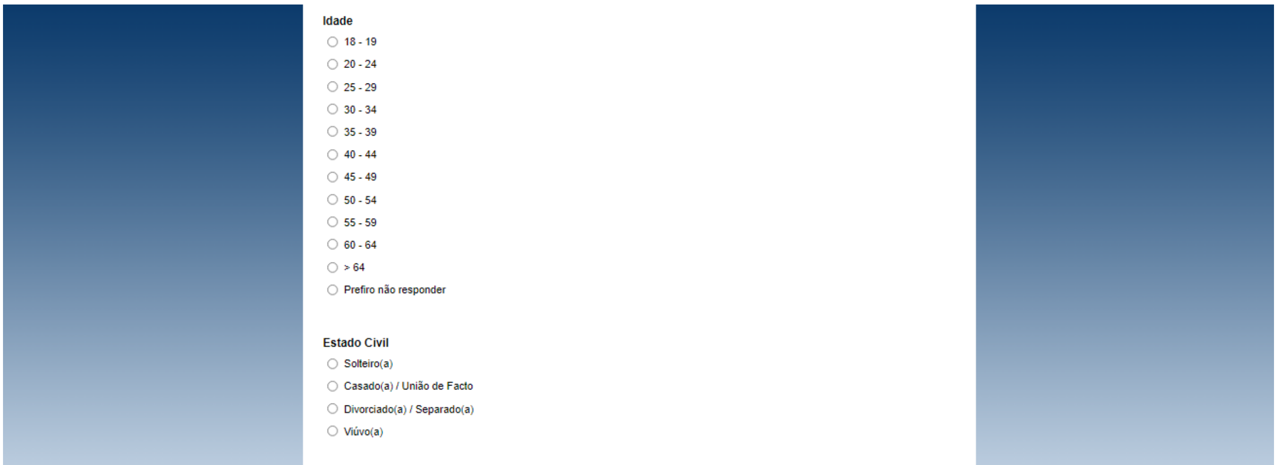
- ○ Sim
- ○ Não

Modalidade atual de trabalho:

- ○ Presencial (na empresa/local de trabalho)
- ○ Misto (em casa e na empresa/local de trabalho)
- ○ Remoto (em casa)

Sexo

- ○ Masculino
- ○ Feminino
- ○ Prefiro não responder

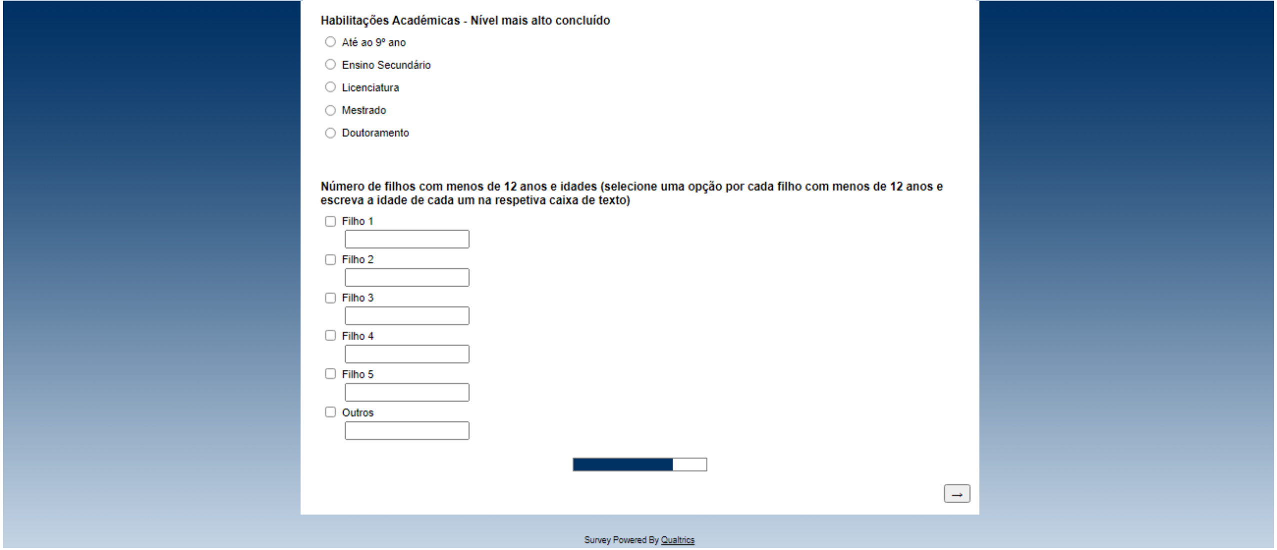


Idade

○ 18 - 19
○ 20 - 24
○ 25 - 29
○ 30 - 34
○ 35 - 39
○ 40 - 44
○ 45 - 49
○ 50 - 54
○ 55 - 59
○ 60 - 64
○ > 64
○ Prefiro não responder

Estado Civil

○ Solteiro(a)
○ Casado(a) / União de Facto
○ Divorciado(a) / Separado(a)
○ Viúvo(a)



Habilitações Académicas - Nível mais alto concluído

○ Até ao 9º ano
○ Ensino Secundário
○ Licenciatura
○ Mestrado
○ Doutoramento

Número de filhos com menos de 12 anos e idades (selecione uma opção por cada filho com menos de 12 anos e escreva a idade de cada um na respetiva caixa de texto)

☐ Filho 1
☐ Filho 2
☐ Filho 3
☐ Filho 4
☐ Filho 5
☐ Outros

Survey Powered By Qualtrics