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Stressed despite or because of flexible work arrangements?

Flexible work arrangements, job pressure
and work-to-home conflict for women and men
in Germany

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Abstract

The present study investigates the effects of flexible work arrangements on work-to-home conflict for women and men in Germany. It analyzes (1) how schedule control, i.e. flexitime and working-time autonomy, employer-oriented flexible schedules and telecommuting are related to work-to-home conflict and (2) whether these arrangements increase or decrease the positive effect of job pressure on work-to-home conflict. The multivariate analyses based on the German Socio-Economic Panel Study in 2011 and 2012 show that telecommuting is positively related to work-to-home conflict, independent of job pressure and overtime hours. Working-time autonomy is also positively related to work-to-home conflict, but only for men and mainly due to overtime hours. For women, working-time autonomy reinforces the positive effect of job pressure, whereas for men, flexitime is likely to buffer the positive effect of job pressure. Moreover, women are likely to experience work-to-home conflict with employer-oriented flexible schedules – independent of job pressure and overtime hours. Working time unpredictability and unreliability seem to mostly put a strain on women. This study provides evidence to show how flexible work arrangements time coupled with job pressure and unpredictable and unreliable hours may reinforce gender inequality in Germany, where the gender time gap and gender pay gap is one of the highest in Europe.

Keywords: work-to-home conflict, gender, schedule control, telecommuting, job pressure, overtime hours

Introduction

Preserving employees' health is a crucial goal of health and work-life balance initiatives at the governmental and company level. Work-related health problems decrease employees' well-being and diminish their productivity. A major threat to employees' physical and mental health is work-to-home conflict (Allen et al. 2000). Employees are likely to experience work-to-home conflict when working in a stressful job with high job pressure (Schiemann 2006). Work-related resources can help employees to deal with such work situations (Demerouti et al. 2001; Karasek 1979). Job control, i.e. control over the pace and process of work, has been found to be a crucial resource which is positively related to work-life balance and health (Bakker & Geurts 2004; Grzywacz & Marks 2000b; Schiemann 2002) and which helps individuals to cope with job pressure (Koltai & Schiemann 2015).

Previous studies, however, neglect a subdimension of job control that is crucial for dealing with job pressure, namely schedule control. Galvin and Schiemann (2012) found that schedule control buffers the negative effect of role blurring on work-to-home conflict and Schiemann (2013) showed that schedule control helps deal with work contact outside regular work hours. These studies also show that some schedule control is more beneficial than complete schedule control (Schiemann & Glavin 2008; Schiemann & Young 2010), but do not reveal employees' actual working-time arrangements. Information on working-time arrangements, i.e. flexitime or working-time autonomy, provides evidence on how schedule control is actually managed at the company level. Moreover, previous studies (Galvin & Schiemann 2012; Schiemann & Glavin 2008; Schiemann & Young 2010; Schiemann 2013) neglect the role of employer's schedule control for work-to-home conflict. Employees with fixed schedules and employees with schedules that are flexibly changed by the employer both lack schedule control, but only employees with employer-oriented flexible schedules have working time unpredictability and unreliability. Finally, the role of telecommuting in dealing with job pressure is not considered in previous research. Telecommuting has been found to be negatively related to stress (Mann & Holdsworth 2003) and might be a resource for employees.

The present study analyzes the influence of flexible work arrangements on work-to-home conflict. With flexitime, employees partly control their working time, but still have to adhere to a given time frame. Working-time autonomy is the complete control over when to work and how to make use of the available hours (Hofäcker & König 2012; Pocock 2005). With employer-oriented flexible schedules, employers can flexibly

change work schedules on a daily basis. Fixed schedules are entirely set by the company with no possibility to make changes. Employees who telecommute are able to work at home. The present study analyzes (1) how these arrangements are related to work-to-home conflict and (2) whether they increase or decrease the positive effect of job pressure on work-to-home conflict.

Whether employees profit from flexitime, working-time autonomy and telecommuting depends on their ability to create, manage and cross boundaries between the work and home domains (Clark 2000). Because women identify with the home domain more than men and take over most responsibilities at home (Bielby & Bielby 1989; van der Lippe et al. 2011), they might use flexible work arrangements differently to deal with job pressure. In addition, because women take over the “second shift” at home (Hochschild 1989), employer-oriented flexible schedules and related working-time unpredictability and unreliability might increase work-to-home conflict primarily for them. These gender differences might be considerable in a country like Germany, which can be assigned to the ‘traditional’ working-time regime with low gender equality, the prevalence of a traditional division of work between women and men, and high working-time flexibilization as a result of women working part-time (Chung & Tijdens, 2013; OECD 2017).

Using data from the German Socio-Economic Panel in 2011 and 2012, this study contributes to the literature in three ways: First, telecommuting is taken into account as a resource that might buffer job pressure. Second, the present study differentiates between arrangements related to schedule control, namely flexitime and working-time autonomy, and two arrangements related to the lack of schedule control, i.e. fixed schedules and employer-oriented flexible schedules. And third, gender differences in the relations between work arrangements, job pressure and work-to-home conflict are analyzed.

Work-to-home conflict and job pressure

Job pressure is a threat to employees' work-life balance as well as their emotional, mental and physical health and well-being (Bakker & Geurts 2004; Kattenbach et al. 2010; Krause et al. 2005). Job pressure is the stress resulting from a quantity of work that does not match the time scheduled for it (Koltai & Schiemann 2015) and, thus, encompasses the feeling of being overwhelmed by the workload and lacking time to complete work tasks (Schiemann 2013). Job pressure can also be caused by interruptions of the workflow (Grzywacz & Marks 2000a), since individuals who are interrupted work faster and therefore experience more time pressure and more stress (Mark et al. 2008). Job pressure can cause mental strain and has been found to be associated with distress and poorer physical health (Burchell et al. 2002; Robinson & Godbey 1997; Roxburgh 2004; Shields 1999). Stress, exhaustion, fatigue, anxiety and depression after the workday can reduce the quality of life at home (Green 2004; Kattenbach et al. 2010; Macky & Boxall 2008; Roxburgh 2004). When there is not sufficient time for recovery, work effort accumulates (Bakker & Geurts 2004), as do work-to-home conflict and health problems. Job pressure may even be a greater problem in terms of stress and tension than long working hours (Burchell 2006).

Job pressure can also contribute to work-to-home conflict (Skinner & Pocock 2008; White et al. 2003). Work-to-home conflict is related to stress, job-burnout and depression (Allen et al. 2000; Eden 2001). Employees who have to deal with job pressure have fewer resources to perform activities outside the work role (Crouter 1984; Kopelman et al. 1983) and need more time to recover from work. Work-to-home conflict, as a "chronic stressor", can repeatedly and enduringly impair mental health (Schiemann 2006) and is associated with health-diminishing behaviors such as alcohol consumption (Frone et al. 1998). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985, p. 77) differentiate between three forms of work-to-home conflict: (1) time-based conflict, (2) strain-based conflict and (3) behavior-based conflict. This study focuses on the strain-based form of conflict, which is produced by "emotional interference" of a stressful job in the non-work domain (Greenhaus & Parasuraman 1987).

The role of flexible work arrangements for work-to-home conflict

Flexible work arrangements can enable employees to align their work to private life and can help employees manage their lives more efficiently (Perrons 1998). Studies show that flexible work arrangements time leads to a better work-life balance (Dex 2002; Russell et al. 2009) and buffers the effects of longer working hours on work-family balance (Hughes, Parkes 2007). Employees with flexible work arrangements time determine the duration and intensity of exposure to the workload and the timing and amount of recovery (Nijp et al. 2012). They are also healthier (Ala-Mursula et al. 2002; Ala-Mursula et al. 2004; Gregory & Milner 2009). Working at home enables employees to save commuting time and to better balance home and work life (Mann & Holdsworth 2003). Employees who reduce their commuting time have more time for home activities and are less stressed and, thus, are better able to balance home and work (Mann & Holdsworth 2003).

Flexible work arrangements, however, might also have the opposite effect on employees' work outcomes. With flexible work arrangements, the boundaries between the work and home domains are weakened, which can cause work-to-home conflict. Especially in cases where employees are expected to identify more with their work role than with their family role, i.e. in an ideal worker culture (Williams et al. 2013), flexible work arrangements might threaten the balance between home and work life. Also, flexible arrangements can be used as a performance-enhancing measure, which risks weakening the family role and work-life balance, and can cause intense and longer work hours (Godard 2001; White et al. 2003).

These risks, however, seem to be rather low for flexitime, which has mostly been found to benefit employees (e.g. Ala-Mursula et al. 2002; Ala-Mursula et al. 2004; Galvin & Schiemann 2012; Nijp et al. 2012). With flexitime, employees have control over the starting and ending times of their workday within a given time frame. Working-time autonomy, by contrast, gives employees absolute control over scheduling of their working day. There is empirical evidence showing that high levels of autonomy can strain employees' well-being (Kubicek et al. 2014), because autonomy can come along with higher levels of job pressure and longer working hours (Warr 1987). Working-time autonomy rather than flexitime, is used as a performance-enhancing measure which promises employees complete control, but often obscures employer's control

(Brannen 2005). Also, as a social exchange (Blau 1964), employees who are given working-time autonomy might perceive this as a gift and might feel the need to reciprocate it by working harder and longer work hours (Kelliher & Anderson 2010). Moreover, above and beyond job pressure and overtime hours, high levels of autonomy might be related to work-to-home conflict, because autonomy often encompasses high degrees of work uncertainty, responsibility and decision-making over the work process (Warr 1987), which can stress employees. The risk of blurring boundaries between work and home life is greater with employees' complete autonomy, where it is the individual's own responsibility to manage and maintain the boundary. Employees with high levels of schedule control more often bring work home (Schiemann & Glavin 2008), and high levels of schedule control can cause work-family role blurring (Schiemann & Young 2010). The risk of work-to-home conflict might therefore be high with working-time autonomy – above and beyond job pressure and longer working hours. Flexitime, by contrast, might support employees in balancing work and home.

Hypothesis 1a: Employees with flexitime are less likely to have work-to-home conflict than employees with working-time autonomy.

The conflict between work and home life might also be greater for telecommuting, which can be used to work harder or to expand the working day by working additional hours at home and likewise risks blurring work and home roles (Mann & Holdsworth 2003). In addition, organizing the workday at home might be stressful. Furthermore, employees who work at home often experience career disadvantages (Glass & Noonan 2016) and stigmatization (Munsch 2016). They might therefore increase their work effort in order to compensate for these disadvantages. Also, stigmatization and fear of career disadvantages might put stress on employees and increase work-to-home conflict above and beyond job pressure and longer working hours.

Hypothesis 1b: Employees with telecommuting are more likely to have work-to-home conflict compared to those without telecommuting.

Low levels of control have been found to impair employees' well-being (Kubicek et al. 2014). Work-to-home conflict might be considerable when the employer controls work schedules. Employer-oriented flexible schedules lead to high working-time unpredictability and unreliability.

Employees with fixed schedules, by contrast, can rely on a steady working-time schedule. Due to high levels of working-time unpredictability and unreliability, employer-oriented flexible schedules might be strongly related to work-to-home conflict regardless of higher levels of job pressure and overtime hours.

Hypothesis 1c: Employees with employer-oriented flexible schedules are more likely to have work-to-home conflict than employees with fixed schedules.

The role of flexible work arrangements in dealing with job pressure

Employees who have sufficient job resources are assumed to adapt to high job demands and deal with job pressure. The job demands-resources model (Bakker & Geurts 2004; Demerouti et al. 2001) defines job autonomy, social support and performance feedback (Kattenbach et al. 2010) as crucial job resources. Job autonomy can be considered a resource that enables workers to cope with a high workload (Bakker & Geurts 2004). The demand-control model (Karasek 1979) states that mental strain results from the interaction between demands of the work situation and the range of decision-making freedom, i.e. job control, that employees have. A high level of control coupled with high demands results in adapting to the work situation and avoiding contact with negative exposure (Schiemann et al. 2006). Low levels of control, together with high demands, by contrast, lead to negative exposure and represent, as a combination, particularly stressful work conditions (Lennon & Rosenfield 1992).

Employees' job control is generally considered as a resource for coping with job pressure. However, this might apply only to some extent to schedule control (i.e. flexitime and working-time autonomy) and telecommuting. Because employees might profit more from flexitime than working-time autonomy, flexitime rather than working-time autonomy might help employees cope with job pressure. This might also be the case for telecommuting, which can be used to extend the working day and which, like working-time autonomy, risks blurring boundaries between work and home life. Working-time autonomy and telecommuting might therefore have the "opposite effect on stressors" (Schiemann et al. 2006, p. 253) and might reinforce job pressure on work-to-home conflict.

Hypothesis 2a: Employees with flexitime who experience job pressure are less likely to have work-to-home conflict than employees with working-time autonomy.

Hypothesis 2b: Employees with telecommuting who experience job pressure are more likely to have work-to-home conflict.

Low levels of control, by contrast, entail considerable risks for employees with high job demands (Lennon & Rosenfield 1992). Employer-oriented flexible schedules, which impart not control, but lead to high

working-time unpredictability and unreliability, might therefore intensify the job pressure.

Hypothesis 2c: Employees with employer-oriented flexible schedules who experience job pressure are more likely to have work-to-home conflict than employees with fixed schedules.

Gendered meanings of flexible work arrangements

Previous studies show that women rather than men make use of flexible work arrangements in order to balance the work and home domains. Women seem to make use of flexible work arrangements in order to control the pace and scheduling of their work tasks, which reduces feelings of time-based conflict (Greenhaus et al. 1989). They have a better work-life balance with flexible work arrangements than do men (Grzywacz & Marks 2000b; Nijp et al. 2012; Schiemann 2006), who risk working longer and more intense hours when the boundary between work and home is weakened (Burchell 2002; Lott 2015).

These findings are generally explained in terms of the gendered meanings of flexibility (Brandth & Kvande 2016), i.e. they arise as a result of gender-specific identification with work and family roles. Women identify more with roles outside of work and engage in family roles more often than men, who feel greater work devotion and for whom work is a greater source of identity (Bielby & Bielby 1989; Duxbury & Higgins 1991; Schiemann et al. 2006). Moreover, women are more committed and have to be more committed to the family role due to the unequal division of unpaid work and job segregation in the workplace (Bielby & Bielby 1989). Women still take over the lion's share of housework and childcare (van der Lippe et al. 2011). Because women, more than men, use and have to use flexibility to fulfill duties outside the workplace, the buffering effect of schedule control and telecommuting might be stronger for them. Due to their engagement in and identification with the home domain, women, rather than men, might be successful boundary crossers (Clark 2000), and they might have less work-to-home conflict and use schedule control more for dealing with job pressure than men. This might be the case especially for working-time autonomy, where the risks of blurring boundaries are highest.

Hypothesis 3a: With flexitime and especially working-time autonomy, women are less likely than men to have work-to-home conflict.

Hypothesis 3b: With flexitime and especially working-time autonomy, women are less likely than men to have work-to-home conflict when they experience job pressure.

Telecommuting can be expected to reinforce the negative effects of job pressure on work outcomes for women rather than men. Because men identify less with their family role, they might create a boundary between

paid work and housework more easily than women when working at home (Mann & Holdsworth 2003). Also, women are often not expected to really work when working at home and are therefore disturbed by friends and neighbors during their work (Mann & Holdsworth 2003).

Hypothesis 3c: With telecommuting, women are more likely than men to have work-to-home conflict.

Hypothesis 3d: With telecommuting, women who experience job pressure are less likely to have work-to-home conflict than men.

With employer-oriented flexible schedules, by contrast, women might feel greater strain and work-to-home conflict than men. Since they have to take over the second shift (Hochschild 1989) at home and have to manage paid work and duties outside paid work, working-time unpredictability and unreliability might be a greater burden for them.

Hypothesis 3e: With employer-oriented flexible schedules, women are more likely than men to have work-to-home conflict.

Hypothesis 3f: With employer-oriented flexible schedules and job pressure, women are less likely to have work-to-home conflict than men.

Empirical strategy

The present study uses the German Socio-Economic Panel (SOEP; <http://www.diw.de/soep>), a representative panel study of German households. The SOEP started in the Federal Republic of Germany in 1984 and was expanded in 1990 to include the territory of the former German Democratic Republic (Haisken-DeNew & Frick 2005). In the SOEP, more than 12,000 households and 32,000 persons are currently interviewed on a yearly basis. In 2010, the Families in Germany (FID) panel was started, followed by three waves in 2011, 2012 and 2013. The FID was designed in accordance with the SOEP, which made integration in the SOEP possible (DIW Berlin 2017), and was added to the SOEP in 2014. The FID is a representative panel study of households with children (birth cohorts 2007, 2008, 2009 and 2010) with a focus on low-income households, single-parent households and households with more than one child.

The sample for this study contains 10,411 observations (5,035 men and 5,406 women) for working-time arrangements. 6,442 employees were observed in 2011 (only the original SOEP sample) and 3,999 in 2012 (only in the FID sample). Telecommuting was observed for 3,997 employees (1,826 men and 2,135 women) only in the FID sample in 2012. The self-employed and respondents beyond retirement age (older than 65 years) were excluded from the analysis. All respondents were employed and had contracted working hours at the time of the interview. Employees without contracted hours were excluded from the analysis, because for them, their formal working-time arrangements might be unimportant for their work process.

Job pressure and overtime

Job pressure is measured in terms of three variables: time pressure ("Because of the high volume of work, there is often high time pressure"), increased amount of work ("The amount of work has increased steadily over the last two years") and interruptions ("I am often interrupted and distracted while working"). The items of each variable are (0) no and (1) yes. Overtime is measured in terms of the difference between contracted working hours and actual working hours per week.

Work-to-home conflict

Work-to-home conflict is measured via a sum index of four variables: “I am often already thinking about work-related problems when I wake up”, “When I come home, it is very easy to switch off from thinking about work”, “Work seldom lets go of me; it stays in my head all evening” and “If I put off something that needs to be done that day, I can't sleep at night”. The items are (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) agree, and (4) strongly agree for all variables, except for the question “When I come home, it is very easy to switch off from thinking about work” where the scale is reversed. With these questions, work-to-home conflict due to rumination is measured on a scale from 0 to 1 (Busch-Heizmann & Holst 2017).

Flexible work arrangements

The present study differentiates between two forms of schedule control, i.e. flexitime and working-time autonomy. Additionally, employees' lack of control, i.e. employer-oriented flexible schedules, is taken into account. The survey question for employees' working time arrangements was used with the items (1) “work schedule set by the company with no possibility of changes” (fixed schedules), (2) “work schedule set by the company partly with changes on a daily basis” (employer-oriented flexibility), (3) “work schedule determined by employee within a given time frame” (flexitime), and (4) “hours entirely determined by employee” (working-time autonomy). The reference category is fixed schedules. Telecommuting is measured with the research question “Does it happen that you work at home?” interviewees could respond yes (1) or no (0).

Controls

Because higher-status employees are more likely to have job control and higher levels of job pressure (Kelly & Moen 2007; Ortega 2009; Schiemann 2006), employees' status must be taken into account. I therefore control for income, education and workplace position. Income is measured by individual annual pre-tax labor income (adjusted for price changes), including all wages and benefits. Education is measured by primary, secondary, and tertiary education. Workplace position is measured by employees' job authority, i.e., no job authority, management tasks, and extensive leadership. Status also depends on the duration of

working time per week. Employees who do not work full-time are often stigmatized at the workplace (Williams et al. 2013). Thus, a variable is used for full-time, part-time, and marginal/irregular employment. Moreover, I control for the status position using the ISCO classification with the following items: (1) legislators, senior officials, managers, (2) professionals, (3) associate professionals, technicians, (4) clerks, (5) service workers, (6) craft and similar jobs, (7) plant and machine operators and assembly line operators, (8) elementary workers. The reference category is “armed forces”. The article also controls for whether employees have a second job and job unpredictability and unreliability, which leads to longer work hours (White et al. 2003) and is a stressor to employees’ well-being and health (Mauno et al. 2017). Furthermore, I control for the sector in which the worker works based on the NACE 2-digit classification: i.e., retail; health/education; metal, chemical, and electronic industries; service industries; and lastly insurance and banking sectors. Because flexible work arrangements are more common in the public than in the private sector (Russell et al. 2009), a control was included for public sector.

Not only the work situation, but also the household context affects individuals’ health and well-being. Employees who are the main breadwinner in the household might experience greater mental strain and work-to-home conflict, because they take on the financial responsibility for their family. The financial situation of the household might also influence employees’ mental health and work-to-home conflict. In particular, financially precarious situations might add to feelings of stress. I therefore control for the yearly total post-tax household income. The household income is equivalence-scaled using the modified OECD scale. Because childcare adds to the daily workload, the analysis controls for the number of children (no children, one child, two children, and three or more children) and for very young children (0–2 and 3–4 years) in the household. Moreover, in Germany, marriage discourages women’s full-time employment through the split-taxation system and reinforces a traditional allocation of work in couples (Sainsbury 1999). I therefore control for marital status. Two variables for age and age-squared were used in the models. Finally, because women have less access to schedule control (Table 1), there is a control for gender in all models. In addition, I control for the different samples and data (SOEP and FID) that were included in the analysis. Table A1 shows all variables used in the analyses.

Models

Linear regression models were estimated for work-to-home conflict with robust standard errors in order to correct for within-individual autocorrelation (Angrist & Pischke 2009). Predicted values for working-time arrangements and telecommuting were estimated with average values of all other variables in the models. Because telecommuting was only observed for a subsample, separate models were estimated for working-time arrangements and telecommuting.

Table 1: Working-time arrangements and telecommuting for German employees, women and men

	All	Men	Women
Working-time arrangement			
Fixed	42.61	40.92	44.32
Employer flex	21.17	19.85	22.50
Flexitime	24.91	26.19	23.62
Autonomy	11.31	13.04	9.56
N	10,441	5,035	5,406
Chi-squared test		***	
Telecommuting			
No	81.62	80.38	82.71
Yes	18.38	19.62	17.29
N	3,997	1,862	2,135
Chi-squared test		*	

Note: SOEP 2011, 2012; column percentages weighted with cross-sectional weight; gender difference significant (chi-squared test) for working-time arrangements and telecommuting; * $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$

Results

Table 2 shows the results for working-time arrangements without controlling for job pressure and overtime hours (Model 1), with controlling for job pressure (Model 2) and with controlling for job pressure and overtime hours (Model 3).

Employer-oriented flexible schedules are positively related to work-to-home conflict and the effect is highly significant – even when controlling for job pressure and overtime hours (Table 2, Models 2 and 3). Without controlling for job pressure and overtime hours, the predicted value for work-to-home conflict is 0.32 as opposed to 0.30 for fixed schedules. With controlling for job pressure and overtime hours the predicted values are 0.31.

Work-to-home conflict is also higher with working-time autonomy. Working-time autonomy is significantly and positively related to work-to-home conflict and is still significant at the 0.05 level when controlling for job pressure (Table 2, Model 2). When taking job pressure into account, the value for work-to-home conflict is as high with working-time autonomy as it is with employer-oriented schedules (0.31). When additionally controlling for overtime hours, the effect of working-time autonomy, however, is not significant. Thus the positive effect of working-time autonomy on work-to-home conflict is mainly driven by overtime hours.

Flexitime is positively and significantly related to work-to-home conflict when not controlling for job pressure and overtime hours (Table 2, Models 1), but only at the 0.05 level. Moreover, when controlling for job pressure, the effect for flexitime is negative and not significant (Table 2, Model 2) and, according to the Wald test, significantly different than working-time autonomy at the 0.01 level. Thus the association with work-to-home conflict is weaker for flexitime than for working-time autonomy.

Telecommuting is positively associated with work-to-home conflict and the effect is highly significant, regardless of whether there are controls for job pressure and longer working hours (Table 3, Models 2 and 3). The predicted value for work-to-home conflict with telecommuting is 0.32 as opposed to 0.29 without telecommuting and 0.31 when adding job pressure and overtime hours.

When employees experience job pressure, i.e. interruptions of their workflow, they are less likely to have work-to-home conflict with flexitime. The interaction term is negative and significant (Table 2, Model 4). The predicted value for flexitime is – according to the Wald-test – significantly different than employer-oriented flexible schedules at the 0.05 level. Employees who experience interruptions have lower work-to-home conflict with flexitime than with employer-oriented schedules. Moreover,

there is a positive, but only weak association at the 0.10 level between working-time autonomy and time pressure. Employees who have time pressure tend to have more work-to-home conflict with working-time autonomy. For telecommuting, only the interaction with the increased amount of work is negative and significant at the 0.10 (Table 3, Model 2 and 3). Employees whose amount of work increased tend to have less work-to-home conflict with telecommuting.

Table 2: OLS regression models for work-to-home conflict and working-time arrangements

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Working-time arrangements				
Fixed schedules	ref	ref	ref	ref
Employer flex	0.020*** (0.00)	0.012*** (0.00)	0.009** (0.00)	0.001 (0.01)
Flexitime	0.008* (0.00)	−0.001 (0.00)	−0.002 (0.00)	0.008 (0.01)
Autonomy	0.013** (0.00)	0.010* (0.00)	0.005 (0.00)	0.000 (0.01)
Time pressure		0.059*** (0.00)	0.056*** (0.00)	0.052*** (0.00)
Interruptions		0.027*** (0.00)	0.026*** (0.00)	0.033*** (0.00)
Increased amount of work		0.021*** (0.00)	0.019*** (0.00)	0.017*** (0.00)
Overtime hours			0.002*** (0.00)	0.002*** (0.00)
Employer flex × time pressure				0.009 (0.01)
Flexitime × time pressure				0.006 (0.01)
Autonomy × time pressure				0.015+ (0.01)
Employer flex × interruptions				−0.009 (0.01)

Flexitime × interruptions				−0.018**
				(0.01)
Autonomy × interruptions				−0.008
				(0.01)
Employer flex × in- creased amount of work				0.011
				(0.01)
Flexitime × increased amount of work				−0.001
				(0.01)
Autonomy × increased amount of work				−0.000
				(0.01)
Constant	0.225***	0.237***	0.231***	0.231***
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)
R-squared	0.05	0.14	0.15	0.15
N	10441	10441	10441	10441

Note: Logistic regression models; log odds; robust standard errors in parentheses; Unweighted; Dependent variable: work-to-home conflict; Controls: volume of work, job authority, work status (ISCO-88), sectors, second job, permanent contract, job change, age, age squared, education, annual household income, married, children, age of the youngest child, sample; [†]p<0.10, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001; Data source: SOEP 2011 and 2012

Table 3: OLS regression models for work-to-home conflict and telecommuting

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Telecommuting	0.031*** (0.01)	0.025*** (0.01)	0.022*** (0.01)	0.036*** (0.01)
Time pressure		0.065*** (0.00)	0.062*** (0.00)	0.061*** (0.00)
Interruptions		0.020*** (0.00)	0.019*** (0.00)	0.021*** (0.00)
Increased amount of work		0.024*** (0.00)	0.022*** (0.00)	0.025*** (0.00)
Overtime hours			0.002*** (0.00)	0.002*** (0.00)
Telecommuting × time pressure				0.005 (0.01)
Telecommuting × interruptions				−0.011 (0.01)
Telecommuting × increased amount of work				−0.017 ⁺ (0.01)
Constant	0.151** (0.05)	0.127* (0.05)	0.124* (0.05)	0.123* (0.05)
R-squared	0.05	0.15	0.15	0.15
N	3997	3997	3997	3997

Note: Logistic regression models; log odds; robust standard errors in parentheses; Unweighted; Dependent variable: work-to-home conflict; Controls: volume of work, job authority, work status (ISCO-88), sectors, second job, permanent contract, job change, age, age squared, education, annual household income, married, children, age of the youngest child, sample; ⁺p<0.10, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001; Data source: SOEP 2011 and 2012

Gender differences

Table 4 and Table 5 show the results for the correlation of women's and men's work-to-home conflict with working-time arrangements and telecommuting, respectively. The gender differences are significant for working-time arrangements, but not for telecommuting (Table A2 and A3).

The positive and highly significant effects of employer-oriented flexible schedules on work-to-home conflict exist primarily for women (Table 4, Models 2, 4 and 6). For men, employer-oriented flexible schedules are also significantly related to work-to-home conflict, but only at the 0.05 significance level and with a smaller effect size (Table 4, Model 1). The predicted value for work-to-home conflict is 0.31 for men compared to 0.32 for women. Moreover, when controlling for job pressure and overtime hours, employer-oriented flexible schedules are not significant for men, but they are for women (Table 4, Model 3 and 5). Working-time unpredictability and unreliability mostly seem to put strain on female employees.

The effect of working-time autonomy is positive and highly significant only for men (Table 4, Models 1). Again, working-time autonomy is still significantly and positively related to work-to-home conflict when controlling for job pressure (Table 4, Model 3), but not significant when adding overtime hours as control (Table 4, Model 5).

The present study expects that women with job pressure experience less work-to-home conflict than men when having flexitime and working-time autonomy and more work-to-home conflict when telecommuting. The interaction terms between telecommuting and job pressure are not significant for women and men (Table A5). The working-time arrangements do significantly moderate the relation between job pressure and work-to-home conflict (Table A4), but the results do not confirm the expectation.

Only men benefit from flexitime. The interaction term between flexitime and interruptions is negative and significant for men with and without controlling for overtime hours (Table A4, Model 1 and 3) and the predicted value for flexitime is significantly different than fixed schedules at the 0.10 level. Men have lower levels of work-to-home conflict with interruptions when having flexitime as opposed to fixed schedules (Figure 1).

Table 4: OLS regression models for work-to-home conflict and working time arrangements for women and men

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Working-time arrangements						
Fixed schedules	ref	ref	ref	ref	ref	ref
Employer flex	0.012* (0.00)	0.027*** (0.00)	0.005 (0.00)	0.018*** (0.00)	0.001 (0.00)	0.015*** (0.00)
Flexitime	0.009+ (0.00)	0.006 (0.01)	0.001 (0.00)	−0.001 (0.00)	−0.002 (0.00)	−0.001 (0.00)
Autonomy	0.022*** (0.01)	0.004 (0.01)	0.015** (0.01)	0.005 (0.01)	0.008 (0.01)	0.003 (0.01)
Time pressure			0.054*** (0.00)	0.062*** (0.00)	0.052*** (0.00)	0.060*** (0.00)
Interruptions			0.030*** (0.00)	0.023*** (0.00)	0.030*** (0.00)	0.023*** (0.00)
Increased amount of work			0.020*** (0.00)	0.022*** (0.00)	0.018*** (0.00)	0.019*** (0.00)
Overtime hours					0.002*** (0.00)	0.002*** (0.00)
Constant	0.206*** (0.04)	0.332*** (0.04)	0.180*** (0.03)	0.306*** (0.04)	0.176*** (0.03)	0.302*** (0.04)
R-squared	0.04	0.07	0.14	0.16	0.14	0.17
N	5035	5406	5035	5406	5035	5406

Note: Logistic regression models; log odds; robust standard errors in parentheses; Un-weighted; Dependent variable: work-to-home conflict; Controls: volume of work, job authority, work status (ISCO-88), sectors, second job, permanent contract, job change, age, age squared, education, annual household income, married, children, age of the youngest child, sample; +p<0.10, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001; Data source: SOEP 2011 and 2012

Table 5: OLS regression models for work-to-home conflict and telecommuting for women and men

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Telecommuting	0.028*** (0.01)	0.028*** (0.01)	0.022** (0.01)	0.024** (0.01)	0.017* (0.01)	0.022** (0.01)
Time pressure			0.060*** (0.01)	0.069*** (0.01)	0.058*** (0.01)	0.067*** (0.01)
Interruptions			0.023*** (0.01)	0.016** (0.01)	0.022*** (0.01)	0.015** (0.01)
Increased amount of work			0.027*** (0.01)	0.021*** (0.01)	0.025*** (0.01)	0.019** (0.01)
Overtime hours					0.002*** (0.00)	0.002* (0.00)
Constant	0.059 (0.07)	0.165* (0.08)	0.080 (0.06)	0.152* (0.07)	0.077 (0.06)	0.156* (0.07)
R-squared	0.04	0.06	0.14	0.16	0.15	0.16
N	1862	135	1862	2135	1862	2135

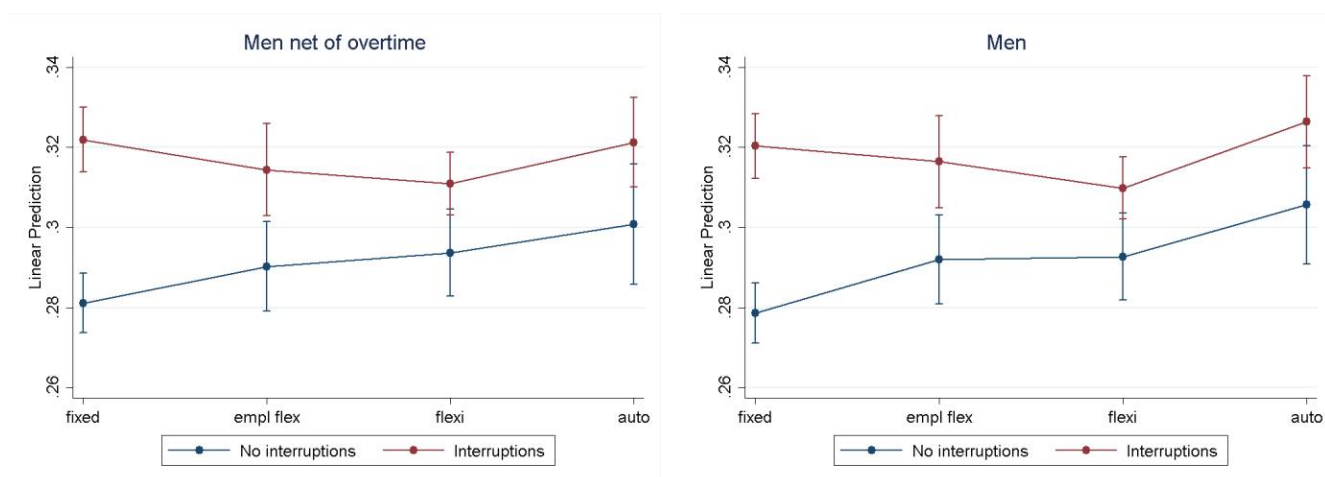
Note: Logistic regression models; log odds; robust standard errors in parentheses; Un-weighted; Dependent variable: work-to-home conflict; Controls: volume of work, job authority, work status (ISCO-88), sectors, second job, permanent contract, job change, age, age squared, education, annual household income, married, children, age of the youngest child, sample; *p<0.10, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001; Data source: SOEP 2011 and 2012

Working-time autonomy reinforces job pressure only for women. The coefficient for working-time autonomy is significant for women with and without controlling for overtime hours (Table A4, Models 2 and 4). The predicted values for working-time autonomy are significantly different than fixed schedules at the 0.05 level according to the Wald test. Women who have time pressure have a higher work-to-home conflict with working-time autonomy as opposed to fixed schedules (Figure 2).

Moreover, employer-oriented flexible schedules reinforce job pressure mainly for women (Table A4, Models 2 and 4). This is primarily due to overtime hours, but when controlling for overtime the effect is still significant at the 0.10 level. The predicted value, 0.34, is relatively and significantly different than fixed schedules at the 0.001 level and flexi-time at the 0.01 level. Women whose amount of work increased have a

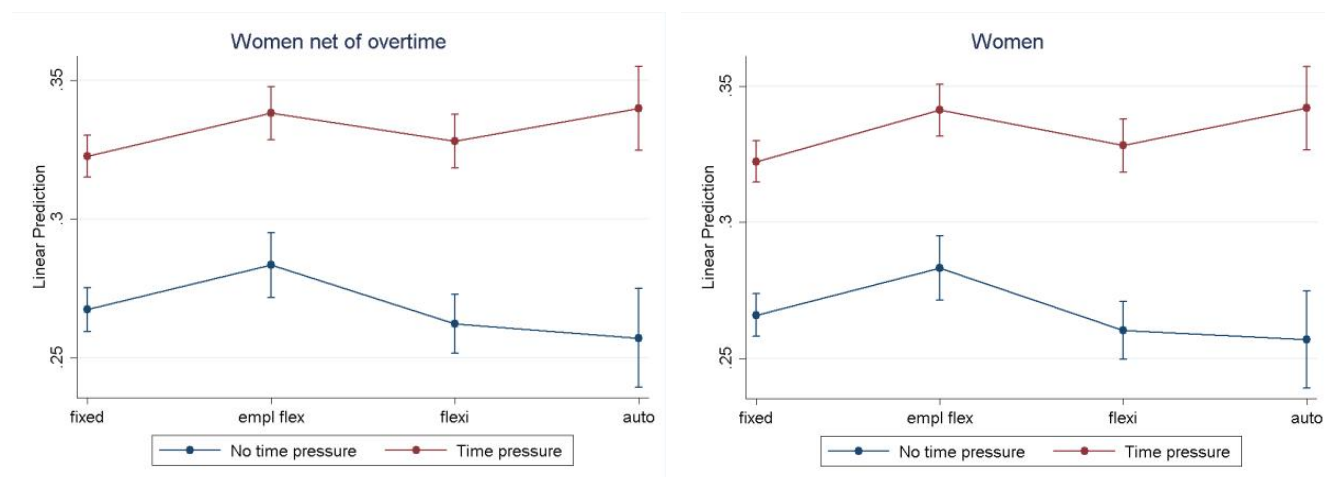
relatively high work-to-home conflict with employer-oriented flexible schedules (Figure 3).

Figure 1: Predicted values for men's work-to-home conflict due to interruptions with various working-time arrangements



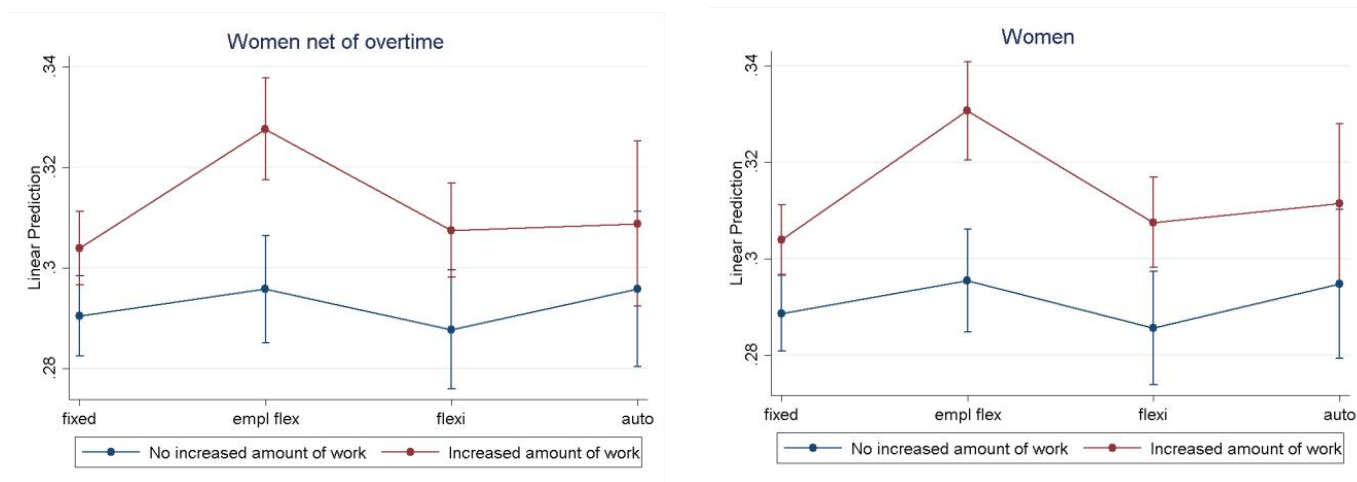
Note: Predicted values with (left) and without (right) controlling for overtime hours based on estimations presented in Table A4, Models 1 and 3

Figure 2: Predicted values for women's work-to-home conflict due to time pressure with various working time arrangements



Note: Predicted values with (left) and without (right) controlling for overtime hours based on estimations presented in Table A4, Models 2 and 4

Figure 3: Predicted values for women's work-to-home conflict due to increased amount of work with various working time arrangements



Note: Predicted values with (left) and without (right) controlling for overtime hours based on estimations presented in Table A4

Conclusion and discussion

The aim of this study was to analyze the relation between job pressure, flexible work arrangements and work-to-home conflict. Are flexible work arrangements related to work-to-home conflict? Do they increase or decrease the negative effect of job pressure on work-to-home conflict? And are these associations the same for women and men? Schedule control (i.e. flexitime and working-time autonomy), employer-oriented flexible schedules and telecommuting were considered. Previous studies indicate that schedule control is negatively related to work-to-home conflict and might therefore help employees deal with job pressure. This, however, might primarily apply to flexitime rather than working-time autonomy and telecommuting, since complete autonomy and working at home have been found to negatively impact employees' outcomes. Moreover, employer-oriented flexible schedules rather than fixed schedules might reinforce work-to-home conflict and job pressure. Finally, due to the gendered meaning of flexibility and the unequal division of unpaid work in couples, gender differences for the associations between flexible work arrangements, job pressure and work-to-home conflict were expected. Table 6 provides an overview of the tested hypotheses.

The present study showed that flexitime and working-time autonomy are positively related to work-to-home conflict, but that the association is stronger with working-time autonomy than with flexitime. The positive association between working-time autonomy and work-to-home conflict is mainly driven by overtime hours. Moreover, flexitime weakens the positive effect of job pressure on work-to-home conflict, whereas working-time autonomy tends to reinforce it. Telecommuting is also highly related to work-to-home conflict, but independent of job pressure and overtime hours. Telecommuting seems to be a stressor for employees whose boundaries between family and work life become blurred. Telecommuters might also feel stressed due to (fear of) stigmatization and career disadvantages. Moreover, employees with employer-oriented flexible schedules are more likely to have work-to-home conflict than employees with fixed schedules – independent of job pressure and overtime hours. Working-time unpredictability and unreliability seem to contribute to higher levels of work-to-home conflict. Employer-oriented schedules also reinforce job pressure.

Furthermore, gender differences were found for the associations between working time arrangements, job pressure and work-to-home conflict. The strong and positive effects of employer-oriented flexible schedules exist primarily for women. Due to the unequal allocation of unpaid work, women are more likely to have work-to-home conflict with employ-

er-oriented flexible schedules and related working-time unpredictability and unreliability. Moreover, employer-oriented flexible schedules reinforce the positive effect of job pressure on work-to-home conflict only for women. Working-time autonomy is related to work-to-home conflict only for men. Men with working-time autonomy are more likely to experience work-to-family conflict due to longer working hours than women. Women seem to be more successful in managing the boundaries between work and family life with complete schedule control. When experiencing job pressure, however, women are more likely than men to feel strained with working-time autonomy. Only for men does flexitime weaken the positive effect of job pressure.

The results indicate that gendered meanings of flexibility (Bakker & Geurts 2004) exist and that, in general, women profit more from working-time autonomy than men. However, the meaning of flexibility depends on women's and men's work situations, i.e. levels of job pressure. In negative work situations, flexibility is a resource for men rather than women who feel more strained by job pressure in general and with working-time autonomy specifically. Future research on gender-specific meanings of flexibility should take the workplace situation into account. Moreover, the present study showed the value of differentiating between different forms of lack of control. Interestingly, employees mostly benefit from fixed schedules regarding work-to-home conflict. Fixed schedules are less related to overtime hours and job pressure and are predictable and reliable. Working-time unpredictability and unreliability, by contrast, has negative consequences for employees and adds to gender inequality by reinforcing work-to-home conflict and the positive effect of job pressure primarily for women.

Some of this study's limitations should be mentioned. First, the only data used is cross-sectional data. Thus, the results might be biased by time-constant unobserved heterogeneity and selection effects, even though there were controls for various factors. Second, the number of observations for schedule control and telecommuting is rather small. When using interactions between these variables with gender and/or indicators for job pressure, the number of observations might become too small for effects to be significant. Third, the analysis accounted for employees' status by controlling for job authority, work position, education and income. However, it might be that status differences have not been fully captured. The measure for job authority does not capture very fine gradations of authority and only differentiates between management and extended leadership positions.

Nevertheless, the study revealed that employees have advantages with a certain amount of schedule control, i.e. flexitime, rather than with

complete schedule control, i.e. working-time autonomy. Working-time autonomy positively affects men's work-to-home conflict through overtime hours and reinforces the positive effect of job pressure on work-to-home conflict for women. Furthermore, schedules that are flexibly changed by the employer are related to working-time unpredictability and unreliability and reinforce work-to-home conflict – and also reinforce the strain which women often experience by taking over the second shift at home. In the light of current debates in Germany, where companies are increasingly calling for deregulation of working-time rules and flexibly adapting working time to the companies' needs, these results are alarming. Deregulated work arrangements such as working-time autonomy and employer-oriented flexible schedules have negative consequences for employees' work-life balance and can reinforce gender inequality.

Table 6: Hypotheses confirmed (+) or not confirmed (–)

1a: Employees with flexitime are less likely to have work-to-home conflict than employees with working-time autonomy.	+
1b: Employees with telecommuting are more likely to have work-to-home conflict compared to those without telecommuting.	+
1c: Employees with employer-oriented flexible schedules are more likely to have work-to-home conflict than employees with fixed schedules.	+
2a: Employees with flexitime who experience job pressure are less likely to have work-to-home conflict than employees with working-time autonomy.	+
2b: Employees with telecommuting who experience job pressure are more likely to have work-to-home conflict.	–
2c: Employees with employer-oriented flexible schedules who experience job pressure are more likely to have work-to-home conflict than employees with fixed schedules.	+
3a: With flexitime and especially working-time autonomy, women are less likely than men to have work-to-home conflict.	+
3b: Women who experience job pressure are less likely to have work-to-home conflict with flexitime and especially working-time autonomy than men.	–
3c: With telecommuting, women are more likely than men to have work-to-home conflict.	–
3d: Women who experience job pressure are less likely to have work-to-home conflict with telecommuting than men.	–
3e: With employer-oriented flexible schedules, women are more likely than men to have work-to-home conflict.	+
3f: With employer-oriented flexible schedules and job pressure, women are less likely to have work-to-home conflict than men.	+

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Appendix

Table A1: Variables used in the analyses (N=10,441, N = 3,997 for telecommuting)

	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
Work-to-home conflict	0.30	0.13	0	0.75
Time pressure	0.59	0.49	0	1
Interruptions	0.54	0.50	0	1
Increased amount of work	0.60	0.49	0	1
Overtime hours	31472	18384	−36	50
Working-time arrangements				
Fixed schedules	0.42	0.49	0	1
Employer flex	0.22	0.41	0	1
Flexitime	0.24	0.43	0	1
Autonomy	0.07	0.25	0	1
Telecommuting	0.20	0.40	0	1
Work volume				
Full-time	0.66	0.25	0	1
Part-time	0.27	0.44	0	1
Marginal/irregular employment	0.07	0.25	0	1
Job authority				
No authority	0.80	0.40	0	1
Management tasks	0.19	0.39	0	1
Extensive leadership	0.02	0.13	0	1
Individual annual pre-tax labor income	30892.11	23763.05	0	460000
Status classes				
Legislators, senior officials, managers	0.05	0.23	0	1
Professionals	0.19	0.39	0	1
Associate professionals, technicians	0.26	0.44	0	1
Clerks	0.12	0.32	0	1
Service workers	0.11	0.31	0	1

Craft and similar jobs	0.12	0.32		
Plant and machine operators and assembly line operators	0.07	0.25	0	1
Elementary workers	0.08	0.26	0	1
Armed forces	0.01	0.09	0	1
Sectors				
Public	0.27	0.45	0	1
Service	0.05	0.22	0	1
Health and education	0.23	0.42	0	1
Retail	0.12	0.33	0	1
Insurance and banking	0.04	0.20	0	1
Metal	0.11	0.31	0	1
Chemistry	0.03	0.16	0	1
Electric	0.02	0.14	0	1
Second job	0.09	0.28	0	1
Permanent contract	0.86	0.34	0	1
Job change	0.17	0.37	0	1
Age	42.96	9.68	18	65
Age squared	1932.30	834.10	324	4225
Education				
Low	0.25	0.43	0	1
Middle	0.49	0.50	0	1
High	0.26	0.44	0	1
Yearly total post-tax household income	22907.69	12314.88	0	483833.3
Married	0.64	0.48	0	1
Children				
No child	0.40	0.49	0	1
One child	0.22	0.42	0	1
Two children	0.23	0.42	0	1
Three and more children	0.15	0.36	0	1
Age of the youngest child				
0–2 years	0.09	0.29	0	1
3–4 years	0.12	0.33	0	1

Note: SOEP Data 2011 and 2012

Table A2: OLS Regression models for work-to-home conflict and interaction between working-time arrangements and female

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Working-time arrangements			
Fixed schedules	ref	ref	ref
Employer flex	0.012* (0.00)	0.005 (0.00)	0.001 (0.00)
Flexitime	0.003 (0.00)	−0.004 (0.00)	−0.005 (0.00)
Autonomy	0.019*** (0.01)	0.014** (0.01)	0.007 (0.01)
Time pressure		0.059*** (0.00)	0.056*** (0.00)
Interruptions		0.027*** (0.00)	0.026*** (0.00)
Increased amount of work		0.021*** (0.00)	0.019*** (0.00)
Overtime hours			0.002*** (0.00)
Female	0.012** (0.00)	0.009* (0.00)	0.010* (0.00)
Employer flex × Female	0.016* (0.01)	0.014* (0.01)	0.016* (0.01)
Flexitime × Female	0.008 (0.01)	0.006 (0.01)	0.006 (0.01)
Autonomy × Female	−0.014+ (0.01)	−0.010 (0.01)	−0.005 (0.01)
Constant	0.252*** (0.03)	0.229*** (0.02)	0.226*** (0.02)
R-squared	0.05	0.14	0.15
N	10441	10441	10441

Note: Logistic regression models; log odds; robust standard errors in parentheses; Unweighted; Dependent variable: work-to-home conflict; controls: volume of work, job authority, work status (ISCO-88), sectors, second job, permanent contract, job change, age, age squared, education, annual household income, married, children, age of the youngest child, sample; +p<0.10, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001; Data source: SOEP 2011 and 2012

Table A3: OLS Regression models for work-to-home conflict and interaction between telecommuting and female

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Telecommuting	0.029*** (0.01)	0.024*** (0.01)	0.019** (0.01)
Time pressure		0.065*** (0.00)	0.063*** (0.00)
Interruptions		0.020*** (0.00)	0.019*** (0.00)
Increased amount of work		0.024*** (0.00)	0.022*** (0.00)
Overtime hours			0.002*** (0.00)
Female	0.018** (0.01)	0.012+ (0.01)	0.013* (0.01)
Telecommuting × Female	0.003 (0.01)	0.002 (0.01)	0.005 (0.01)
Constant	0.162** (0.05)	0.136** (0.05)	0.133** (0.05)
R-squared	0.05	0.14	0.15
N	3997	3997	3997

Note: Logistic regression models; log odds; robust standard errors in parentheses; Unweighted; Dependent variable: work-to-home conflict; Controls: volume of work, job authority, work status (ISCO-88), sectors, second job, permanent contract, job change, age, age squared, education, annual household income, married, children, age of the youngest child, sample; +p<0.10, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001; Data source: SOEP 2011 and 2012

Table A4: OLS regression models for work-to-home conflict and interaction between working-time arrangements and job pressure for women and men

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Working-time arrangements				
Fixed schedules	ref	ref	ref	ref
Employer flex	0.001 (0.01)	0.007 (0.01)	−0.003 (0.01)	0.006 (0.01)
Flexitime	0.018* (0.01)	−0.003 (0.01)	0.018* (0.01)	−0.002 (0.01)
Autonomy	0.024* (0.01)	−0.011 (0.01)	0.019+ (0.01)	−0.012 (0.01)
Time pressure	0.049*** (0.01)	0.056*** (0.01)	0.047*** (0.01)	0.055*** (0.01)
Interruptions	0.042*** (0.01)	0.027*** (0.01)	0.041*** (0.01)	0.026*** (0.01)
Increased amount of work	0.022*** (0.01)	0.015** (0.01)	0.020*** (0.01)	0.013* (0.01)
Overtime hours			0.002*** (0.00)	0.002*** (0.00)
Employer flex × time pressure	0.018+ (0.01)	0.002 (0.01)	0.017+ (0.01)	−0.000 (0.01)
Flexitime × time pressure	0.004 (0.01)	0.012 (0.01)	0.002 (0.01)	0.011 (0.01)
Autonomy × time pressure	0.005 (0.01)	0.029* (0.01)	0.003 (0.01)	0.027* (0.01)
Employer flex × interruptions	−0.017+ (0.01)	−0.002 (0.01)	−0.017 (0.01)	−0.001 (0.01)
Flexitime × interruptions	−0.025** (0.01)	−0.013 (0.01)	−0.023** (0.01)	−0.013 (0.01)
Autonomy × interruptions	−0.021+ (0.01)	0.003 (0.01)	−0.020+ (0.01)	0.003 (0.01)
Employer flex × increased amount of work	0.003 (0.01)	0.020* (0.01)	0.003 (0.01)	0.018+ (0.01)
Flexitime × increased amount of work	−0.009 (0.01)	0.007 (0.01)	−0.010 (0.01)	0.006 (0.01)
Autonomy × increased amount of work	−0.001 (0.01)	0.001 (0.01)	−0.002 (0.01)	−0.000 (0.01)

Constant	0.178*** (0.03)	0.312*** (0.04)	0.174*** (0.03)	0.307*** (0.04)
R-squared	0.14	0.17	0.15	0.17
N	5035	5406	5035	5406

Note: Logistic regression models; log odds; robust standard errors in parentheses; Unweighted; Dependent variable: work-to-home conflict; Controls: volume of work, job authority, work status (ISCO-88), sectors, second job, permanent contract, job change, age, age squared, education, annual household income, married, children, age of the youngest child, sample; ⁺p<0.10, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001; Data source: SOEP 2011 and 2012

Table A5: OLS regression models for work-to-home conflict and interaction between telecommuting and job pressure for women and men

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Telecommuting	0.035*	0.035**	0.032*	0.035**
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Time pressure	0.058***	0.068***	0.056***	0.066***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Interruptions	0.023***	0.019**	0.023**	0.018**
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Increased amount of work				
	0.032***	0.024***	0.030***	0.022***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Overtime hours			0.002***	0.002**
			(0.00)	(0.00)
Telecommuting ×	0.010	0.001	0.010	0.001
time pressure	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Telecommuting ×	−0.007	−0.007	−0.008	−0.006
interruptions	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Telecommuting ×	−0.020	−0.014	−0.020	−0.018
increased amount of work	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Constant	0.112	0.200**	0.106	0.199**
	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.08)
R-squared	0.14	0.16	0.15	0.17
N	1862	2135	1862	2135

Note: Logistic regression models; log odds; robust standard errors in parentheses; Unweighted; Dependent variable: work-to-home conflict; Controls: volume of work, job authority, work status (ISCO-88), sectors, second job, permanent contract, job change, age, age squared, education, annual household income, married, children, age of the youngest child, sample; ⁺p<0.10, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001; Data source: SOEP 2011 and 2012

The present study investigates the effects of flexible work arrangements on work-to-home conflict for women and men in Germany. It analyzes (1) how schedule control, i.e. flexitime and working-time autonomy, employer-oriented flexible schedules and telecommuting are related to work-to-home conflict and (2) whether these arrangements increase or decrease the positive effect of job pressure on work-to-home conflict. The multivariate analyses are based on the 2011 and 2012 German Socio-Economic Panel study.
