



MASTERARBEIT | MASTER'S THESIS

Titel | Title

How do Preferences for Work-Life Balance Practices vary across
Demographic Groups - A Semi-Systematic Literature Review.

verfasst von | submitted by
Till Meven Trippner

angestrebter akademischer Grad | in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science (MSc)

Wien | Vienna, 2025

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt | Degree
programme code as it appears on the
student record sheet:

UA 066 914

Studienrichtung lt. Studienblatt | Degree
programme as it appears on the student
record sheet:

Masterstudium Internationale Betriebswirtschaft

Betreut von | Supervisor:

Mag. Oksana Galak PhD

I. Abstract:

The significance of Work-Life Balance has grown substantially over the past decades, while contemporary labor markets have become increasingly heterogeneous. To accommodate a wide variety of individual Work-Life Balance needs of employees, organizations must implement an adequately diverse range of Work-Life Balance practices. This semi-systematic literature review investigates demographic-specific preferences for Work-Life Balance practices, in particular, Flexible Work Arrangements, parental leave policies, individual career development initiatives, and employees' financial compensation. Expected differences include those between men and women, younger and older employees, and employees at various family-life stages. A carefully selected sample of 70 articles from peer-reviewed journals has been thoroughly examined and analyzed. The research revealed significant differences in Work-Life Balance preferences among men and women, as well as how these practices are utilized, exacerbating existing gender inequalities in the labor market. Additionally, differences among younger and older individuals were found, originating from different personal demands due to their current living situations or family-life stages. Moreover, the research highlighted different common characteristics among generational cohorts, shaping their attitudes toward work and their preferences for Work-Life Balance practices. The findings of this paper provide accurate demographic-specific insights that enhance the quality of future research and underline the importance of a diverse set of Work-Life Balance practices offered by employers to meet the increasingly diverse demands of employees' individual work-life balance needs.

III. Table of Content

<u>I. Abstract:</u>	1
<u>II. Deutsche Zusammenfassung:</u>	2
<u>III. Table of Content</u>	4
<u>IV. List of Tables</u>	5
<u>V. List of Abbreviations</u>	5
<u>1. Introduction</u>	6
<u>2. Theoretical Background</u>	8
2.1 Work-Life Balance	8
2.1.1 Meaning of Work-Life Balance.....	8
2.1.2 The Evolution of the Concept of Work-Life Balance	10
2.1.3 The Effects of Work-Life Balance on Individuals	12
2.1.4 The Impact of Work-Life Balance Practices on Employers.....	13
2.2 Flexible Work Arrangements	15
2.2.1 Definition and Relevance of Flexible Work Arrangements	15
2.2.2 Different Types of Flexible Work Arrangements	16
2.3 Parental Leave	19
2.3.1 Parental Leave's Effects on Child Development.....	20
2.3.2 Parental Leave's Effects on Parents	21
2.4 Financial Compensation & Career Development Opportunities	21
2.6 Diversity in the Labor Market	25
2.6.1 Demographic Aging	25
2.6.2 Gender Roles in an Increasingly Diverse Labor Market	26
2.7 Research Gap & Relevance	27
2.8 Research Questions & Propositions	28
<u>3. Methodology</u>	30
<u>4. Analysis of the selected Research Sample</u>	34
4.1 The Articles' Publication Dates from the Final Research Sample	35
4.2 Journals and Their Credibility	36
4.3 Methodology and Variables Used in the Sample	37
4.4 Thematic Statistics	38
<u>5. Discussion</u>	40
5.1 Observed Trends in the Literature	40

5.2 Barriers to the Use of Family-Friendly Practices	41
5.3 Perceived Importance of WLB.....	46
5.4 Flexible Work Arrangements:.....	49
5.5 Parental Leave	54
5.6 Financial Compensation & Personal Development.....	57
 <u>6. Conclusion</u>	 62
 6.1 Limitation	 63
6.2 Implication	65
6.3 Direction for Future Research	66
 <u>7. Appendix</u>	 67
 <u>8. References:</u>	 121

IV. List of Tables

Graph I: The Number of Publications per Year

Graph II: Distribution of the Research Sample according to the Research Methodology

Graph III: Distribution of Articles in the Research Sample by Job Attribute Focus

Graph IV: Distribution of Articles in the Research Sample by Demographic Focus

Model I: Vicious Circle of the Disproportionate Distribution of Domestic Work

Model II: Age-related Work-Life Balance Practice Preferences

Table 1: Author & Publication Date (Appendix)

Table 2: Journals & Impact Factor (Appendix)

Table 3: Methodology & variables (Appendix)

Table 4: Age/Gender & HR-Practice (Appendix)

Table 5: Final Summary Table Part 1

Table 6: Final Summary Table Part 2

V. List of Abbreviations

Car. Dev. = Career Development Initiatives

Dep. = Dependent Variables

Fin. Comp. = Financial Compensation

FLS = Family-Life Stages

FWA = Flexible Work Arrangements

FWP = Flexible Work Practices

HRP = Human Resource Practices

Ind. = Independent Variables

Neg. Car. Consq. = Negative Career Consequences

PL = Parental Leave

WLB = Work-Life Balance

WLB-P = Work-Life Balance Practices

Dom. Resp. = Domestic Responsibilities

Careg. Resp. = Caregiving Responsibilities

1. Introduction

The concept of Work-Life Balance has sparked extensive academic literature that has been shaped through different socio-political times, making it a multifaceted term in a large literature field. For decades, Work-Life Balance has been a relevant topic of interest, predominantly in Western societies, where most of its literature has been accumulated. Essentially, Work-Life Balance describes how individuals manage their professional and personal responsibilities harmoniously while achieving a balanced state of mental well-being (Buddhapriya, 2005; Haar, 2013). An individual's positive Work-Life Balance can be disrupted through increased demands in their private or professional life domains. A negative Work-Life Balance can adversely affect the ability to fulfill demands in multiple life domains and can result in mental illnesses (Melo et al., 2018). Therefore, many employees expect their employing organizations to provide family-friendly practices to support them in managing their private workloads (Caillier, 2013). This is highly appreciated by the majority of the labor force (Kwon & Jeon, 2017). Work-life balance-enhancing practices also attract qualified personnel and facilitate recruiting and retaining them (Smith et al., 2019; Bello et al., 2024). This enables employers to gain a competitive advantage over competitors by attracting the most wanted job-seeking employees through a wide range of different WLB initiatives (Oludayo et al., 2018). Furthermore, as these practices also increase individuals' job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Feeney & Stritch, 2019), they consequently boost employees' productivity, which results in better organizational performance (Bae & Kim, 2016; Feeney & Stritch, 2019; Kim et al., 2023).

The current labor force is more diverse than ever before and is likely to become even more diverse in the future (Suedekum et al., 2009). As globalization advances across most industries and markets, including the labor market, it becomes easier for employers to recruit or relocate qualified personnel from around the world (Suedekum et al., 2009). Alongside this, national populations have become increasingly culturally diverse as migration levels have risen significantly over the past decades (Suedekum et al., 2009). Additionally, modern information and communication technologies have made remote work simple and easily accessible for employees and employers worldwide (Hsu & Tambe, 2024). Economic pressures, such as high inflation rates and declining state-funded retirement support, compel many people to work until an older age before retiring, resulting in demographic aging of the labor force (Hiessl, 2020). Furthermore, the workforce includes an augmenting number of individuals from non-

traditional family structures and dual-earner households, challenging traditional gender role perceptions (Powell et al., 2019). Thus, the socio-demographic composition involving culture, age, and family structures within the labor force has changed significantly in recent decades. The needs of a diverse labor force are becoming increasingly varied, making it increasingly difficult for organizations to adapt (Wepfer et al., 2015). Most employers already provide a wide variety of work-life balance practices, which differ in nature and purpose to cater to the unique needs and circumstances of employees' personal lives. Given today's growingly diverse workforce, it is logical that some work-life balance practices appeal more to certain socio-demographic groups than others (Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017). As employees today expect organizations to be increasingly more responsive to diverse Work-Life Balance needs and offer suitable human resource practices, employers must adapt to demographic changes in the workforce and reassess their selection of work-life balance initiatives (Dries, 2013; PWC, 2013; Hölter et al., 2023; Bello et al., 2024)

In this study, an extensive sample of research articles from peer-reviewed journals from an interdisciplinary literature field was selected and analyzed. This interdisciplinary approach was chosen deliberately to include a wide range of academic backgrounds in this semi-systematic literature review. It summarizes demographic-specific findings on the Work-Life Balance practice preferences of the people. This helps to better understand the diverse needs of different socio-demographic cohorts in the labor market, such as gender, age, or individuals in certain family-life stages, in order to meet those needs. The Human Resource practices and job attributes focused on in this research are: Flexible Work Arrangements, Parental Leave policies, career development initiatives, and employees' financial compensation. The research aims to provide a clearer understanding of which WLB policies are most suitable for different demographic cohorts in the workforce. It further aims to motivate employers to refine their Human Resource strategies in response to the evolving needs of a changing pool of labor while providing a valuable knowledge contribution to the literature field.

2. Theoretical Background

The following chapter aims to provide a theoretical overview of the key components of this research, ensuring a comprehensible traceability of the subsequent chapters. It offers an extensive explanation of the concept of Work-Life Balance, various Human Resource practices, and the increasing diversity in contemporary labor markets.

2.1 Work-Life Balance

The following subchapter provides an extensive understanding of the concept of Work-Life Balance and an overview of its transformation from a personal aspiration to a strategic imperative of organizations to attract and retain competitive human capital (Bello et al., 2024). It further highlights the positive and negative effects caused by a balanced or imbalanced Work-Life equilibrium.

2.1.1 Meaning of Work-Life Balance

In the literature, there is no widely accepted definition of Work-Life Balance that has been agreed on. Instead, multiple different definitions and conceptualizations of Work-Life Balance have been proposed. One of the most commonly used definitions is provided by Kalliath and Brough (2008), who described WLB as “the individual perception that work and nonwork activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual’s current life priorities” (p. 326). For many individuals, work occupies the majority of the time and resources available, leaving little capacity to engage in pursuits beyond their professional careers (Chandra, 2012). However, one’s professional career is only one among multiple potential interests people pursue in their lives. These various interests often interfere with one another, competing for the limited time and resources available in a person’s daily life. Individuals often embody various roles across different life domains, each with fluctuating demands they strive to fulfill. When these roles become particularly demanding, they can lead to role overload and role conflicts (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000).

In order to explain the meaning of Work-Life Balance, it is important to understand work-life conflict. Work-life conflict refers to the incompatibility between one’s professional and personal demands, making it challenging to fully meet the expectations in one domain while complying with all responsibilities in the other (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Consequently, either performance at work or time for private activities and obligations are falling short. The literature distinguishes between the “work-to-family conflict,” where work demands interfere with private needs, and “family-to-work conflict,” where private activities and obligations impede adequate job performance (Frone, 2003). Additionally, a positive Work-Life Balance can spill positive effects from one life domain into another (Gragnano et al., 2020). Therefore, we also distinguish between “work-to-family enrichment” and “family-to-work enrichment” (McNall et al., 2010).

To further talk about Work-Life Balance, we need to clarify what belongs to each side of the balance. The work domain seems to be pretty straightforward and includes all responsibilities and activities within the professional context of an individual. The life domain, on the other hand, is more ambiguous, which is the reason why the literature contains several different terms that only marginally differ from one another. The three most popular used terms are Work-Life Balance, Work-Nonwork Balance, and Work-Family Balance. The term Work-Family Balance solely focuses on the balance between work obligations and the responsibilities of the role in a family as a parent, a partner, or a caretaking individual for older family members (Amstad et al., 2011). However, it disregards other activities and duties that may belong to an individual’s private life outside one’s family, such as community work, household duties, physical activities, or social time with friends. The term Work-Non-Work Balance sets its focus on including every activity and responsibility outside of the daily business at work, including personal time, family obligations, leisure time, or other private duties one may need to fulfill (Casper et al., 2018). The term Work-Life Balance is the most common and generates the most amount of literature. It refers to a longed-for equilibrium between professional responsibilities and a broad spectrum of activities and responsibilities in one’s private life while focusing more on a healthy mental well-being rather than the actual distribution of resources.

Work-Life Balance describes the extent to which a person is able to harmoniously manage the demands of multiple roles in life (Haar, 2013), distributing one’s time and energy across different life domains without feeling distressed or exhausted (Melo et al., 2018). Essentially, it is an equilibrium of how a person combines their professional and private responsibilities without one domain adversely affecting the other (Killiath & Borough, 2008). A positive Work-Life Balance spreads and enhances productivity and stress resilience across different roles, enriching other life domains (Melo et al., 2018). Work-Life Balance describes a harmonious compatibility of all roles in an individual’s life. In achieving this, the individual feels mentally well-balanced and is able to handle their responsibilities across different life-domains more effectively (Buddhapriya, 2005). Recent literature has highlighted that job-

related and private demands do not exist statically, instead, the intensity changes constantly. In this sense, WLB is described as a dynamic state (Maertz & Boyar, 2011; Bloom et al., 2009). Moreover, a positive Work-Life Balance means something different to each individual, as it has a highly subjective interpretation (Sirgy & Lee, 2017). Some people may feel perfectly balanced with their ongoing professional and private load, while others feel distressed and exhausted under the same circumstances and require a different apportionment of their resources to feel well-balanced and experience mental well-being. Furthermore, a person's stress resilience can evolve with age, leading to changes in how individuals achieve their healthy Work-Life Balance (Chandra, 2012).

2.1.2 The Evolution of the Concept of Work-Life Balance

During the Industrial Revolution in the 19th century, long working hours and poor working conditions raised concerns about workers' well-being and sparked intense labour rights discussions among unions, public health advocates, and employers (Lockwood, 2003). For the first time, a balance between one's working hours and time away from work was debated, which laid the groundwork for the modern concept of Work-Life Balance (Naithani, 2010). Later, with the growing inclusion of women in the workforce, the term Work-Life Balance emerged and gained awareness for the first time (Raja & Stein, 2014). Early policies were primarily aimed at supporting working mothers in managing their jobs alongside concurrent caretaking responsibilities at home, for which women were perceived to be mainly responsible. Later, in the 20th century, it was commonly agreed on that Work-Life conflicts affect more than only working mothers, reflecting changing family structures and evolving gender role expectations (Powell et al., 2019). Also, the growing number of dual-income households and the need for elderly care due to an aging population demanded more flexibility in people's work schedules (Crawford et al., 2019).

Since the concept of Work-Life Balance was first introduced, a broad and interdisciplinary literature field emerged, growing into a fundamental topic in modern occupational health and Human Resource Management debates over the last decades (Bird, 2006). As the significance of work and leisure are perceived differently across cultures, the literature on WLB has mainly been driven by the research in Western countries (Chandra, 2012). However, the literature on Work-Life Balance seems to be imbalanced itself as the majority of the research focuses predominantly on parents and mainly on work and family

roles, disregarding other private responsibilities (Gagnano et al., 2020). Through its continued academic relevance over decades, the literature field has been shaped by multiple socioeconomic impacts and technological or scientific advancements. Influential factors include the ongoing digitalization of the workplace, the COVID-19 pandemic, or the discovery and increasing awareness of both the beneficial effects of a positive Work-Life Balance and the negative consequences of an imbalance between one's work and personal life.

The digitalization and the well-advanced communication technologies - such as the internet, mobile phones, or modern messaging tools - have penetrated all areas of life and fundamentally changed how people communicate, work, and navigate through their daily routines (Diaz et al., 2012). While technological progress is usually celebrated as revolutionary and innovative achievements, enabling simple and fast communication and facilitating a positive Work-Life Balance, the literature reveals that, in fact, these technological advancements pose serious threats to a healthy Work-Life Balance (Ninaus et al., 2021). Modern technological capabilities allow employees to work from anywhere, at any time, which boosts workplace flexibility significantly (Cousins & Robey, 2015). However, the ubiquity of technological devices makes people constantly accessible and pressures individuals to be responsive at all times (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015). This pressure of constant availability makes boundaries between work and private time fade out increasingly (Clark, 2001). In the literature, this is often referred to as an "always-on culture" (Atanasoff & Venable, 2017). Terms such as "technostress" or "telepressure" describe the phenomenon of feeling pressured to constantly be reactive, which causes stress and mental health burdens. This is further strengthened by research conducted by the European Commission in 2018, finding that the number of sick days due to mental health strain per employee has tripled since the 1990s (Leoni, 2019).

Certainly, this was further intensified during the Covid-19 pandemic, as many employees were forced to stay at home, which has accelerated the digital transformation at the workplace (Wang et al., 2021). The inevitable technological adaptation the pandemic caused has demonstrated that the technology is sufficiently advanced to enable employees to work remotely and has left the working world with lasting lessons about the potential of advanced flexible working conditions (Wand et al., 2021). However, working from home poses more challenges than originally assumed. The blending of the familiar environment at home with a work context slowly blurs the spatial separation between professional and personal spaces, making it harder for individuals to associate their living space with relaxation, thereby reducing comfort at home (Araújo & Lua, 2021). Furthermore, spending the majority of the time at home also increases the potential for domestic conflicts and poses threats to a harmonious family life.

Further, working from home significantly reduces valuable social interactions with peers and worsens a feeling of isolation and loneliness, which are typical drivers of mental health issues (Oakman et al., 2020). These external factors have significantly shaped the literature field on Work-Life Balance over the last decades, making it a rapidly growing and contemporary subject of research. This is expected to continue in the future as well, as recent political and societal discourse calls for a modernization of the current working conditions, suggesting the four-day week. This renegotiation of current working conditions receives acknowledgment, as younger generations seem to value their WLB and leisure time more than previous generations did (Petroulas et al., 2010; Valet et al., 2021; Höter et al., 2023).

2.1.3 The Effects of Work-Life Balance on Individuals

As previously mentioned, Work-Life Balance is a person's subjective perception that their work and non-work lives are harmoniously compatible with minimal conflict between the different roles (Sirgy & Lee, 2017). Since private and professional demands do not constantly require the same level of commitment and instead fluctuate in their intensity, we describe Work-Life Balance as a dynamic state (Casper et al., 2018). When a person successfully balances their private and professional duties, it can yield several positive outcomes for both the individual and their employer. Conversely, a negative Work-Life Balance can result in numerous unfavorable consequences.

When a person becomes predominantly occupied with one life domain and can no longer meet the demands of other domains, it is referred to as a negative Work-Life Balance. Such an imbalance leads to mental exhaustion, strained social relationships, and diminished professional performances (Melo et al., 2018; Hammer et al., 2005). Consequently, a person's stress resilience declines (Kerksieck et al., 2024), and increased stress levels over time can lead to serious mental health issues, such as depression or burnout symptoms (Melchior et al., 2007). Mentally drained individuals need to take breaks from their jobs and recover as stress levels start to spill over into other life domains, causing severe mental health issues (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This, in turn, increases job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, and turnover rates and causes disturbed team dynamics at the workplace (Jackson & Fransman, 2018). Research has shown that a negative Work-Life Balance leads employees to leave their jobs in pursuit of better mental health (Haar et al., 2014). Also, poor mental health is often accompanied by physical symptoms expressed in increased fatigue or sleep disorders (Amstad et al., 2011).

Being mentally and physically burdened hampers an individual's overall productivity and efficiency significantly (Bloom et al., 2009). Consequently, the performance at work declines, which in turn increases the stress level even more. While a positive Work-Life Balance fosters a strong social network, a negative one strains valuable social relationships useful for coping mechanisms during periods of high stress levels. A Work-Life Imbalance, therefore, can increase family conflicts and result in reduced overall life satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Haar et al., 2014).

In contrast, a positive Work-Life Balance spills increased stress resilience and productivity across all life domains (Melo et al., 2018). Successfully balancing one's professional and private responsibilities enhances both one's job and life satisfaction (Sirgy & Lee, 2018; Thompson & Prottas, 2005). Achieving a balanced state of mental well-being enables an individual to effectively handle personal and professional responsibilities and additionally provides perseverance to overcome stressful times (Buddahapriya, 2005). According to Obina et al. (2024), individuals with good mental health are more likely to make healthier lifestyle choices, such as engaging in physical activities or healthy nutrition, which ultimately results in better physical health. Obina et al. (2024) also state that lower stress levels and adequate time for private activities help consolidate social relationships, which build strong networks for social support and assurance to help cope with professional burden. This improves emotional well-being and boosts one's personal and professional life capacities (Gragnano et al., 2020; Freund & Carmeli, 2003).

2.1.4 The Impact of Work-Life Balance Practices on Employers

In general, if an organization offers family-friendly or other Work-Life Balance-enhancing practices, it influences a person's perception of their employer, as employees feel that the organization supports them with their nonwork responsibilities and personal needs to achieve or maintain a positive Work-Life Balance (Bae & Yang, 2017; Kim et al., 2023). Usually, an employee's job satisfaction increases with the provision of family-friendly practices (Bae & Yang, 2017). Also, an employer's image of supporting Work-Life Balance strongly influences its ability to attract, recruit, and retain labor (Smith et al., 2019; Bello et al., 2024) and reduces absenteeism and turnover intentions (Jackson & Fransman, 2018). Consequently, the employer lowers the organization's turnover rates and costs for acquiring

and training new personnel (Sharafizad et al., 2011; Bloom et al., 2009). Furthermore, by attracting and retaining highly qualified and skilled labor with diverse WLB practice offerings, a significant competitive advantage in the market can be generated (Nadeem & Henry, 2003; Waters & Bardoel, 2006), as Human Capital, the skills embodied in individuals that facilitates economic growth (Becker, 1964), is of course, a vital factor for organizational performance (Wright et al., 2001). Furthermore, an employee's job satisfaction enhances mental well-being, which in turn positively correlates with employees' productivity (Omondi & K'Obonyo, 2018; Kerksieck et al., 2024). Improved employee productivity contributes to an organization's revenue (Asawo, 2018). Hence, investing in Work-Life Balance enhancing practices increases an organization's overall economic performance (Hildebrandt, 2006). As the overall organizational performance benefits from the well-being of its workforce, Work-Life Balance becomes relevant not only for employees but for employers as well (Bloom et al., 2009; Melo et al., 2018) and forces organizations to frequently update their Work-Life Balance offerings to promote more employee-friendly workspaces to increase productivity (Oludayo et al., 2018; Carney & Getz, 2018).

For many young job-seeking individuals today, Work-Life Balance is one of the most relevant job attributes, as a healthy life beyond the workplace supports coping with increased stress levels (González et al., 2017). This constitutes a shift in employee preferences driven by increasing individualization (Valet et al., 2021), the emergence of alternative working arrangements, and an ongoing demographic shift in the labor market (England & Farkas, 1986; Hölter et al., 2023). This demographical shift causes skill shortages and a labor market vacuum, putting younger, well-qualified individuals into a favorable bargaining position to express their desire for improved WLB conditions when negotiating with employers (Dries, 2013; Hölter et al., 2023). Due to these evolving preferences among employees of different generations and the pressure on employers to recruit qualified staff, there is a recurring need to constantly update Human Resource practices (Lockwood, 2006). To attract qualified personnel, today's employers are prompted to offer work arrangements that fit employees' contemporary demands (Rapoport et al., 2002). Thus, a comprehensive understanding of those demands is essential for employers to compete for qualified labor (Valet et al., 2021; Hölter et al., 2023). As WLB requires responding to individual needs and circumstances of an increasingly diverse workforce, enabling individuals to find their subjectively ideal apportionment requires an extensive understanding and supply of various Work-Life Balance initiatives (Chandra, 2012).

Work-Life Balance practices entail a wide range of policies, which are explained extensively in the upcoming subchapters.

2.2 Flexible Work Arrangements

Flexible Work Arrangements (FWA) have gained increasing importance in modern employment systems, particularly in response to demographic changes and a more internationalized labor market (Inanc, 2016). Initially introduced as a response to skill shortages (Lewis, 2001), FWAs now represent a strategic approach to enhance employee well-being and organizational performance (Hildebrandt, 2006; Omondi & K'Obonyo, 2018). By offering greater autonomy over when, where, and how to work, FWAs enable employees to balance professional responsibilities with personal needs, thereby fostering job satisfaction, commitment, and productivity at work (Chung et al., 2007; de Menezes & Kelliher, 2011).

2.2.1 Definition and Relevance of Flexible Work Arrangements

As mentioned earlier, Work-Life Balance in general, including Flexible Work Arrangements, is a very privileged concern that predominantly occurs in developed countries. Hence, its popularity varies across geographies and social strata, as in some cases the implementation of FWA is limited to adequate technological infrastructure (Cappelli & Keller, 2013; Atiku et al., 2020). This is also reflected in the literature, as most research has been conducted in Western or highly developed Asian countries. Also, the level of technological dependency and education within an industry influences the accessibility and utilization of Flexible Work Arrangements, particularly in knowledge-based and service sectors, as the overall share of unconventional employment arrangements is relatively high, allowing an augmented internationalized and demographically diverse labor market (Inanc, 2018). Flexible Work Arrangements are practices offered by employers designed to improve their employees' Work-Life Balance and foster mental well-being (Shockley & Allen, 2007). Flexible Work Practices exist in many different variations, providing different types of flexibility to accommodate a diverse labor force, enabling each employee to find suitable support for individual Work-Life Balance needs (Omondi & K'Obonyo, 2018). FWAs allow employees greater autonomy over their work schedules, increasing employees' control over their daily lives and allowing them to decide when they work, where they work from, and, for some FWAs, even for how many hours they work (Chung et al., 2007). By enabling employees to

better reconcile private with professional demands, FWA facilitates reduced work-related stress and improved overall mental well-being of employees significantly (de Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). From an organizational perspective, the benefits of FWA reach beyond only employee satisfaction. The literature highlights that Flexible Work Arrangements offered by employers reduce absenteeism and turnover rates, resulting in enhanced organizational productivity (Sharafizad et al., 2011; Omondi & K'Obonyo, 2018). Consequently, many employers embraced the implementation of Flexible Work Arrangements as strategic initiatives to increase employees' job satisfaction, strengthen their job commitment, and ultimately improve organizational performance (Hildebrandt, 2006). Furthermore, attracting, recruiting, and retaining skilled labor through extensive Flexible Work Practices can gain a competitive advantage in the market (Nadeem & Henry, 2003; Waters & Bardoel, 2006).

Flexible Work Arrangements were first introduced during the skill shortage in the 1980s when recruiting skilled labor posed serious challenges (Lewis, 2001). The development of alternative working arrangements have been further driven by an increasingly diverse labor force that requires an adequate adaptation of working conditions to a demographically evolved target group (Robbins & Judge, 2010). Especially today, young employees appreciate their WLB significantly more than older generations did, forcing employers to provide a wide variety of FWPs and other WLB initiatives to maintain and gain highly qualified personnel (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018; Sharafizad et al., 2011). The significant participation of working mothers in the labor market, while still being perceived as the primary caregiver of a family, further emphasizes the necessity for Flexible Work Arrangements to support women after childbirth or enable them to remain in the labor market and maintain a healthy Work-Life Balance despite increased personal demands (Abendroth & den Dulk, 2011; Chung & van der Horst, 2018). Furthermore, as the wide-ranging advantages of FWA, including increased mental well-being and improved organizational productivity, have been examined in the literature, FWA has convinced many employers to implement flexible work beyond to only female employees (White et al., 2003). Over time, FWA evolved from an employee-friendly initiative primarily aimed at women to a competitively strategic tool for Human Resource Management.

2.2.2 Different Types of Flexible Work Arrangements

As previously mentioned, Flexible Work Arrangements serve as an umbrella term including a wide range of employee-friendly practices designed to enhance an individual's

flexibility at work in multiple different ways. Here, we distinguish between four different types of FWA: Workplace flexibility, work schedule flexibility, workload flexibility, and workday flexibility (Omondi & K'Obonyo, 2018).

Workplace Flexibility

Workplace flexibility refers to the ability to perform work from various locations, instead of being restricted to an employer's offices. This type of flexibility allowed employees to work "remotely", either from their homes - referred to as "work-from-home" - or while traveling through different countries - referred to as "workation". Essentially, workplace flexibility, also called "telework", enables individuals to stay at home while more easily fulfilling domestic and childcaring responsibilities (Omondi & K'Obonyo, 2018).

Of course, workplace flexibility is highly dependent on appropriate information and communication technologies and employees having adequate equipment of technological devices to ensure connectivity (Marinho et al., 2021; Grant et al., 2013). Additionally, not all jobs are suitable for telework, as certain tasks can not be performed digitally. The suitability of a job to be executed remotely is a fundamental prerequisite. Many organizations offer hybrid work models, allowing their employees to split their working locations, partially working remotely while being on-site for a few days a week. Often, workplace flexibility is combined with work schedule autonomy to fully exploit all benefits, minimize commuting time, and further enable employees to control their daily schedules and reconcile domestic and professional responsibilities harmoniously (Allen et al., 2013). Remote work has been particularly driven by the COVID-19 pandemic, which accelerated the technological adaptation at the workplace, as employees were forced to work from home (Waizenegger et al., 2020). The pandemic has paved the way for continuous relocation of people's jobs to their homes, demonstrating that technological progress is sufficiently advanced to enable increased workplace flexibility.

Work Schedule Autonomy

Having full control over one's work schedule allows an individual with multiple role responsibilities to manage their time more efficiently and adapt their professional working hours to personal demands. One of the most common practices for flexible working hours is called "flexitime", which enables employees to allocate their working hours completely

autonomously (Omondi & K'Obonyo, 2018). The only requirement is to fulfill the contractual working time per week and comply with one's professional responsibilities. Within these parameters, individuals can decide for themselves when to start working, take breaks, or finish working (Avery & Zabel, 2001). This type of flexibility is especially popular in combination with workplace flexibility, as an employee eliminates commuting time to his employer's facilities and can more quickly fulfill personal demands from home. These working arrangements allow individuals to invest increased time in personal duties and distribute their working hours freely, without compromising professional obligations.

Workload Flexibility

Workload flexibility allows employees to adjust their work volume, which often results in reduced total working hours per week. This flexibility includes arrangements such as part-time employment, in which the employees only occupy parts of a full-time position. Usually, reducing one's working hours per week is accompanied by a proportionally lower salary (Kossek & Michel, 2011). Another work arrangement promoting workload flexibility is job sharing, where two or more employees divide the responsibilities and workload of one full-time employee (Christensen & Staines, 1990).

Workday Flexibility

Workday Flexibility describes the ability to reallocate the same amount of working hours across different days. The form of flexibility in the number of days an employee has to work in a week has become increasingly more popular, especially ever since the compressed workweeks, such as the four-day week, suggested by the IG Metall in 2023, have gained popularity in Germany. The idea was that a compressed workweek contains the regular number of 40 hours per week, however, it suggests a redistribution of these 40 hours to only four working days instead of five, resulting in fewer yet longer shifts of 10 hours each day (Omondi & K'Obonyo, 2018). Employees who would implement this type of flexibility gain an extra day per week, which can be spent on other pursuits in life outside of work (Baltes et al., 1999). However, a disadvantage of a compressed workweek is that employees are unavailable for three days instead of two, potentially increasing the lethargy of communication and business processes. Conversely, workday flexibility can also be used to spread the total working hours across additional days in order to work less hours each day.

2.3 Parental Leave

For organizations to support female employees with the physical burden of pregnancy and childbirth, parental leave presents a family-friendly Human Resource policy to support an employee's Work-Life Balance during the highly demanding times of early parenthood (Heshmati et al., 2023). Parental leave allows employees to take job-protected absences from work before and after the birth or adoption of their child, ensuring their right to return to their employment once the leave period ends (Kamerman, 2000). Additionally, some organizations are financially supporting their employees during the time of their absence. The extent to which employees are financially supported depends on the employer and the legal framework of the respective country (Heshmati et al., 2023). Parental leave is usually subdivided into maternity leave (leave for mothers), paternity leave (leave for fathers), and adoptive or family leave, which allows employees to take some time to care for an infant (O'Brien & Moss, 2022).

Although many parental leave policies are intended to support men and women, some are predominantly aimed at women, as women are still commonly perceived as the main caregiver of the family (Lambrianou et al., 2022). However, there are cultural differences in the perceptions of adequate distribution of parental leave between men and women (Valarino et al., 2018). These differences are often reflected in the legal frameworks a country has on parental leave policies, leading to specific legal situations varying strongly across different countries (Tanaka, 2005). In most OECD countries, continuous financial support for employees between 50% and 100% of their original salary is mandated by law. In contrast, paid parental leave is not required in the US, allowing employers to provide fully unpaid parental leave (Tanaka, 2005). Of course, every employer can decide to exceed the legally determined financial support during their employees' leaves. Furthermore, countries' legal frameworks also differ in how parental leave can be utilized. While in some countries, parental leave is only accessible to women, others force men to increase their share of domestic support (Celebi, 2021; Rocha et al., 2021; Valarino et al., 2018). For example, Sweden provides fathers with non-transferable paternity leaves, meaning their leave entitlements can not be transferred to mothers, which forces them to support mothers more with domestic work and promotes fathers' involvement in childcare responsibilities (Rocha et al., 2021).

2.3.1 Parental Leave's Effects on Child Development

According to the literature, the amount of time parents invest in their child's early years substantially influences pediatric health and cognitive development, as the parents' interactions with their child and their environments at home strongly shape their development (Belsky, 1984; Ruhm, 2000). As parental leave policies are designed to enable parents to take more time to care for their children, it can be perceived to be an important contributor to a child's well-being and development. Research has found that a child's separation from its primary caregivers - such as a mother's early return into the labor market within the first six weeks after childbirth - can have severe negative effects on the child's health and development (Berger et al., 2005). Ruhm (2000) further provides evidence that parental leave significantly reduces early childhood mortality rates. Furthermore, as parental leave promotes better bonds between a child and its parents, it also fosters a healthy family environment, which benefits the emotional development of an infant (Meil & Romero-Balsas, 2018). An appropriate example of this is the impact breastfeeding has on an infant's health, as research has shown that breastfeeding a child significantly reduces the incidence and severity of diseases and infections (Cunningham et al., 1991). However, breastfeeding poses considerable challenges to working mothers, and research has shown that employment reduces the frequency and duration of breastfeeding (Blau & Robins, 1989; Roe et al., 1997).

The time parents invest in childcare during early childhood years is of great importance to an infant's health, as the previous arguments have shown. Moreover, a growing body of literature highlights that these early childhood conditions have long-lasting impacts on a child's emotional and cognitive development (Cunha et al., 2006; Almond & Currie, 2011). These effects can become apparent for years to come, as Carneiro et al. (2015) report and argue that variations in the length of parental leave are associated with differences in children's well-being, emotional stability, and conscientiousness. As mentioned earlier, women take advantage of parental leave policies predominantly more often than men for various reasons. However, research has highlighted the significance of the father's contribution to childcare, family dynamics, and gender equality, increasing the awareness and importance of paternity leave (Meil & Romero-Balsas, 2018).

2.3.2 Parental Leave's Effects on Parents

As women often carry out the majority of childcare responsibilities, women are the ones mainly taking advantage of parental leave policies (Moran & Koslowski, 2019; Romero-Balsas, 2023). However, job-protected parental leave policies augment the likelihood of women taking time off from work and care for their children, thereby promoting their healthy development (Baum & Ruhm, 2016; Yamaguchi, 2019). In addition, the probability that women will return to the labor market eventually has risen consequently (Baker & Milligan, 2008; Kluve & Tamm, 2013). Also, parental leave policies contribute to a higher overall employment of women in the labor market (Ruhm, 2000).

An employee's utilization and length of parental leave highly depend on their socioeconomic background, often forcing lower-income parents to return to work earlier than parents with more financial resources who can afford to stay away from work longer (Huebener et al., 2017). Hence, some families and their children's development are more dependent on their employer's parental leave provisions than others. Of course, this dependence is exacerbated drastically for single parents. According to Bradbury et al. (2015), the differences in a child's development caused by the absence of its parents are already evident at the age of five and become increasingly more pronounced in later years, hence, many children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds fall behind in early years.

As well as other family-friendly practices, parental leave provisions influence a person's perception of their employer, as employees feel that the organization supports them with their nonwork responsibilities and personal needs to achieve or maintain a positive Work-Life Balance (Bae & Yang, 2017; Kim et al., 2023). Consequently, an employee's job satisfaction increases with the provision of parental leave (Bae & Yang, 2017).

2.4 Financial Compensation & Career Development Opportunities

It is essential to highlight that financial compensation and career development opportunities are not formally classified as Work-Life Balance practices. However, the extensive literature on Work-Life Balance emphasizes their importance for individuals' overall job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2010; Rynes et al., 2004; Valet et al., 2017). Historically, a job's salary has been widely regarded as the most important job attribute for employees (Jurgensen, 1978). Career development opportunities are, of course, closely linked to the level of financial

compensation, as career advancements into more prestigious positions are naturally accompanied by higher pay (Valet et al., 2017). However, these priorities appear to have changed in recent years as the importance of Work-Life Balance has risen significantly, in some cases even surpassing the importance of financial compensation (Sacks et al., 2012; Kahneman & Deaton, 2010). Research has indicated that financial compensation and career development opportunities indirectly influence one's perceived Work-Life Balance and even enable employees to better utilize Work-Life Balance practices (Hoole & Hotz, 2016; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003). Unlike previously introduced Work-life Balance practices, financial compensation is often assessed in relation to other job attributes, as it is often described as a trade-off factor for employees when evaluating job opportunities (Rynes et al., 2004). Accordingly, a salary works as a counterbalance for unpleasant other job attributes (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). Of course, these trade-offs work in both ways – employees may accept lower salaries for better working conditions or demand a more generous pay for tolerating less desirable circumstances (Rosen, 1986). Therefore, financial compensation is weighed against other non-monetary attributes of a job (Beauregard & Henry, 2009) – an idea which is commonly acknowledged in the literature, especially in the field of labor economics. Particularly, Rosen's (1986) "Theory of equalizing differences" is widely accepted and established. Rosen (1986) describes that wages adjust not only to the value of labor but also to the characteristics of the job itself. Therefore, jobs with less desirable features must offer higher wages to attract employees, while those jobs with more attractive non-monetary features may offer fewer financial compensation. Since financial compensation is being viewed as a trade-off factor, and thus assessed in relation to other job attributes, this trade-off framing poses an asymmetry in how job attributes are compared to one another, yet it remains analytically relevant and existing literature still emphasizes that the appreciation of money and one's salary varies across gender and age (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Batt & Valcour, 2003). A preference for financial compensation still indicates an underlying value judgment - some employees may prioritize salary even when other Work-Life Balance practices are available, while others may gladly reject higher salaries in exchange for non-monetary benefits (Rynes et al., 2004; Beauregard & Henry, 2009). By analyzing financial compensation alongside more straightforward Work-Life Balance practices, the study captures not only the direct preferences of different gender and age groups but also their evaluation of broader job attribute packages' trade-offs. Including these factors, the research reflects a more holistic and realistic understanding of job attribute preferences and acknowledges the complexity of the Work-Life

Balance literature, extending it beyond the traditional focus on flexibility and autonomy (Cahill & Sedrak, 2012; Bustamante et al., 2021).

An employee's compensation includes all monetary rewards—such as salaries, bonuses, healthcare benefits, retirement contributions, and other financial incentives—from their employer in exchange for labor (Mondy, 2008). Typically, the conditions for the financial compensation are contractually agreed upon beforehand and play a significant role in negotiating the terms of employment for both parties (Stringer et al., 2011). Employers strive to keep their labor costs low while also competing with other organizations for skilled personnel in the labor market that try to attract employees with generous salaries (Gerhart, 1994). For employees, the level of income provides the means to live a comfortable life since money enables them to afford sustenance, material well-being, and security (Judge et al., 2010). Thus, money is one of the most, if not the most, important motivator for individuals to work, and plays a central role when evaluating a job opportunity (Rynes et al., 2004; Jurgensen, 1978).

Additionally, the financial compensation of a job determines the pay satisfaction of an employee, which is positively associated with job satisfaction (Stringer et al., 2011; Winda et al., 2017) and, consequently, boosting employees' and organizational productivity (Omondi & K'Obonyo, 2018). However, the research indicates inconsistent findings as not all authors agree on the linear relationship between financial compensation levels and job satisfaction. Judge et al. (2010), for example, state that their empirical evidence shows that this relationship is not as straightforward as often believed, and an increased salary does not necessarily mean a proportionate rise in job satisfaction. It can be argued that subjective well-being may not continuously increase with higher salaries, but objective or tangible well-being certainly does (Judge et al., 2010). Historically, pay satisfaction has been one of the key factors employees consider most when evaluating a job opportunity (Stringer et al., 2011). High earnings not only enhance an individual's material well-being but also elevate social status, which increases life satisfaction (Clark & Senik, 2010). Nevertheless, more recent studies suggest that the importance of financial compensation in evaluating job opportunities has diminished, while other job attributes, particularly the ability to maintain a healthy Work-Life Balance, have gained greater attention, especially in Western societies where economic prosperity allows individuals to long for a positive Work-Life Balance (Sacks et al., 2012; Kahneman & Deaton, 2010). Consequently, research has proposed a new term: "Total Compensation," which considers all intangible benefits of a job offer alongside tangible benefits, such as salary levels

(Hoole & Hotz, 2016). Total Compensation encompasses non-financial rewards such as enhanced autonomy and flexibility in one's work schedule, the company's values, and effective feedback from supervisors to enhance personal career development (Cahill & Sedrak, 2012; Bustamante et al., 2021; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003).

As mentioned previously, intangible job attributes are gaining increasing attention and attractiveness among employees and job seekers. Among others, the chance to develop one's professional skills to enhance the chances for potential career progression is one of them, which then in turn is usually associated with increased financial compensation. Throughout an employee's career, most individuals strive to increase their work capabilities and achieve aspired job positions (Herzberg et al., 1959). Usually, employees appreciate training opportunities as they facilitate their professional advancement and increase their internal and external labor market attractiveness (Valet et al., 2017). Investing in one's own human capital increases professional competencies, improving qualification for higher positions and potential promotion, which usually leads to an augmented level of financial compensation (Valet et al., 2017).

From an employer's perspective, offering career development opportunities for employees has several advantages as well. First, generally providing personal and professional development initiatives attracts potential employees and helps recruit them (Winda et al., 2017). Furthermore, showing employees the possibility to grow professionally facilitates the retention of employees significantly and decreases an organization's turnover rates (Valet et al., 2017). This is further confirmed by a considerable amount of research linking career development support with job satisfaction (Ismail et al., 2014; Winda et al., 2017). Additionally, career development opportunities increase employee performance through increased skill levels and feed ambitions to progress (Winda et al., 2017). As mentioned multiple times, productivity at work is further enhanced through job satisfaction and mental well-being (Sharafizad et al., 2011; Omondi & K'Obonyo, 2018). Second, educating their employees allows organizations to specifically train them for higher positions internally, which in turn eliminates the cost of external labor acquisition and the training of new employees (Gonzalez et al., 2021). If employees have experienced various positions within one organization, it can be assumed that their overall understanding of the internal processes within the company is further advanced than for employees joining externally, thus facilitating more efficient work and problem-solving capabilities.

2.6 Diversity in the Labor Market

As presented previously, there is a wide variety of Work-Life Balance practices and employee-attracting offerings provided by organizations that facilitate and promote a healthy Work-Life Balance. Work-Life Balance, as mentioned earlier, is a highly subjective perception, and different individuals have different needs in order to achieve their perceived state of a positive Work-Life Balance (Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017; Sirgy & Lee, 2018). The reasons for these diverse needs are multifactorial and include a wide range of different circumstances of people's personal life demands, family structures, professions, cultural backgrounds, or their age. Therefore, a wide variety of employee-friendly initiatives is inevitable to satisfy the needs of a heterogeneous workforce. The increasing diversity of today's workforce is hence a critical point as it requires a constantly evolving and growing supply of Work-Life Balance practices for employers to meet the needs of their personnel (Wepfer et al., 2015). Many contemporary populations of economically strong or advancing countries have experienced significant demographic changes over the past decades and are becoming increasingly more diverse in multiple demographic dimensions. This demographic heterogeneity is caused by an aging population, a growing number of individuals with multicultural backgrounds, and a rising number of non-traditional family structures (Suedekum et al., 2009; Hiessl, 2020; Jeon & Hur, 2023).

2.6.1 Demographic Aging

First, due to higher life expectancies and lower birth rates than ever before, combined with decreasing social retirement supports, today's workforce comprises employees from various age groups (Kelliher et al., 2019; Hiessl, 2020). The age differences in the labor force have, therefore, increased. In general, people face different demands in their private lives and have individual Work-Life Balance needs, and therefore, require different actions to achieve a positive Work-life Balance (Sirgy and Lee, 2017). The more heterogeneous a population is, the more heterogeneous its Work-Life Balance needs can be (Haar, 2013; Klimack et al., 2019). According to Carstensen's (1995) socioemotional selectivity theory, an individual's demands, preferences, and goals change with age. For example, while younger employees prefer to balance work with studying or traveling, older colleagues use flexibility in their work schedules to fulfill family demands and childcare responsibilities. Hence, there is a wide variety of WLB needs among a demographically aging workforce due to an individual's evolving private

demands at various family-life stages. Furthermore, demographic aging also means that the number of older individuals in need of care is on the rise (Hiessl, 2020). The increased demand for elderly care raises concerns about who will provide for this growing need. The answer to this question will most likely be: relatives and family members of the affected people. This in turn highlights the importance of adequate Work-Life Balance practices to enable individuals to match increasing personal demands of care responsibilities (Colombo et al, 2011; Hiessl 2020).

The labor force consists of individuals from different generational cohorts. A generation is defined as a group of people that share similar birth years and lived through the same sociopolitical events (Kupperschmidt, 2000). Research has shown that individuals of the same generation have established common characteristics, potentially by experiencing the same socio-political events that shape their socialization at similar stages (Kupperschmidt, 2003; Noble & Schewe, 2003). Further, the research explains that these common characteristics among individuals of the same generation shape common attitudes toward work values and employers (Westerman & Yamamura, 2007; Applebaum et al., 2004). Consequently, the increased demand for diverse WLB practices through a demographically aging workforce is further increased by the fact that a workforce consists of multiple individuals from different generations with different characteristics and values influencing their WLB needs (D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008). For example, the “baby boomer” generation is known to have high organizational loyalty and a diligent work ethic, while the “Millennials” are known for their individualization and high appreciation for Work-Life Balance practices and leisure time (D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008; Kwon & Jeon, 2017).

2.6.2 Gender Roles in an Increasingly Diverse Labor Market

For a long time, research has observed that there are socially perceived gender roles allocating caregiving responsibilities to women and money-making responsibilities to men (Lachance-Grzela & Bouchard, 2010; Rocha, 2021). These conservative gender ideologies are still dominant in today's societies, shaping individuals' perceptions of their personal responsibilities and consequently impacting their subjective Work-Life Balance practice preferences (Foster et al., 2009). Fortunately, these outdated gender role perceptions decline progressively, distributing domestic work more equally and alleviating conservative gender role perceptions in the labor market, which makes gender roles more fluid than ever before

(Tso & Parikh, 2021). These trends draw attention to the need to provide men with Work-Life Balance policies that enable them to increase their share of domestic work and step closer towards achieving gender equality in the labor market (Rubery, 2015). Furthermore, in many societies, the amount of dual-earner households and non-traditional family structures is continuously increasing and has reached a level higher than ever before (Jeon & Hur, 2023). The number of women in the workforce has increased significantly over the past decades, and non-traditional family constellations, in which typical gender role expectations are simply not applicable, finally gain increasing acceptance and need to be taken into account when employers reconsider their offerings of Work-Life Balance practices.

Another factor for the heterogeneity of contemporary labor markets is the increased diversity of populations in developed countries, as they have been exposed to international migration for the last couple of decades (Suedekum et al., 2009). The increasing cultural diversity in the workforce is further enhanced through advanced information and communication technologies that enable employers to easily recruit labor from all over the world as working remotely is made easier and more accessible than ever before (Hsu & Tambe, 2022). Consequently, labor markets have become increasingly diverse linguistically and culturally (Suedekum et al., 2009). A diverse workforce has multiple advantages, as people from different cultural backgrounds may have complementary skills and problem-solving abilities, which enhances productivity and the level of performance within a group (Niebuhr, 2009; Sparber, 2010). However, in some cultures, the distribution of domestic work responsibilities among men and women is allocated differently than in others, posing different amounts of domestic burdens on individuals with different cultural backgrounds, requiring employers to be increasingly responsive to a wide range of individual WLB demands (Suedekum et al., 2009). Conclusively, the extensive heterogeneity in the contemporary labor markets emphasizes the importance of a diverse set of Work-Life Balance practices to respond to a highly diverse demand of individual Work-Life Balance needs.

2.7 Research Gap & Relevance

As previously described, the importance of Work-Life Balance for both employees and employers has grown significantly, compelling organizations to increasingly provide a growing variety of Work-Life Balance practices to their employees. These initiatives vary in their nature

and purpose, catering to different needs and circumstances of employees' personal lives. Given today's increasingly diverse workforce, it is only logical that some Work-Life Balance practices appeal more to certain socio-demographic groups than others. Reviewing the current literature field reveals that existing research lacks demographic-specific data, as most research examined the overall effectiveness of WLB practices on an organization's entire workforce. However, there is only little demographic-specific data that shows how different socio-demographic groups respond to certain Work-Life Balance practices. Hence, this semi-systematic literature review aims to address this research gap and provide a summary of valuable findings from the literature field to enhance more accurate and demographic-specific research in the future. Given the broad and multifaceted nature of the Work-Life Balance literature, which has influenced many different academic disciplines, an interdisciplinary approach was adopted deliberately. Accordingly, articles from multiple different academic backgrounds were considered and selected for the final research sample. These insights aim to provide an extensive and comprehensive overview of the literature and potentially facilitate an organization's employee acquisition and retention by adapting Work-Life Balance initiatives to better meet the preferences of an increasingly diverse workforce. The constantly evolving workplace and the increasing emphasis on mental health and employee well-being have made WLB a contemporary subject of interest in the past, and it is likely to continue to generate a rapidly growing amount of literature in the future. This research will not only facilitate the practical implementation of employee-friendly practices within organizations but it will also serve as a groundwork for knowledge development and enhance the quality of future scientific findings by enabling more accurate and comparable results.

2.8 Research Questions & Propositions

In this semi-systematic literature review, the author analyzes a sample of 70 papers from peer-reviewed journals and aims to summarize the current state of the art in the literature field related to the stated research question below. The research specifically focuses on the academic findings of the articles, their methodological differences, their disciplinary contexts, and their geographic backgrounds. By synthesizing this research, the review aims to identify common perspectives, existing contradictions, and potential gaps in the literature.

Research Question:

How does the literature depict people's preferences for Work-Life Balance practices or other employee-attracting job attributes - such as flexibility, parental leave policies, career development initiatives, or financial compensation - and how do they vary across different socio-demographic groups, specifically gender, age, family-life stages, and professions?

Research Propositions:

P1: The literature indicates gender differences in Work-Life Balance practice preferences.

P2: The literature indicates differences in Work-Life Balance practice preferences across employees of different ages.

P3: The literature indicates differences in Work-Life Balance practice preferences across employees in various family-life stages.

3. Methodology

This chapter presents the methodology employed for this semi-systematic literature review, which has been chosen deliberately under the consideration of Snyder's (2019) overview of the different types of literature reviews. Since frameworks for conducting systematic literature reviews are more prevalent than those for semi-systematic literature reviews, the author considered the guidelines published by Sauer et al. (2023) and Paul et al. (2021) for conducting a systematic literature review in management research as an orientation to ensure transparency and academic integrity in the process, acknowledging that systematic literature reviews require a higher level of academic rigor than semi-systematic literature reviews.

Introduction

The interdisciplinary literature on Work-Life Balance contains a huge number of research across various economic and societal fields. This is making it difficult to keep up with the state-of-the-art. A literature review serves as a research method to synthesize and evaluate collective evidence of an extensive literature field across multiple academic disciplines, enabling researchers to build their own research and relate it to the existing body of knowledge (Snyder, 2019). A semi-systematic literature review, in particular, aims to identify research gaps and establish an overview of the current state of knowledge. It seeks to comprehensively synthesize an intertwined and complex body of literature (Snyder, 2019). The research design of a semi-systematic literature review has been cautiously selected as, alternatively, a systematic literature review is better suited to a more narrowly picked topic, while an integrative literature review aims to create theoretical models of a broader literature field. These three literature review approaches differ in their purpose, as well as in their level of academic rigor and objectivity, particularly in regards to bias control and methodological transparency (Snyder, 2019). The semi-systematic literature review reveals itself as the most suitable type of literature review, as it is an appropriate type of research to synthesize the knowledge of an interdisciplinary and broad field of literature (Snyder, 2019).

Defining Search Terms & Selection of Database

First, to conduct the search for relevant literature, suitable and credible databases must be identified. Given its comprehensive coverage of scientific literature and its high-quality publications through peer-reviewed journals, the “Scopus” database was determined as the sole source of literature articles. Then, for the selection of the research sample, search terms were defined. The selected search terms included: “Work-life Balance”, “Work-family balance”, “Work-Non Work Balance”, “practices”, “policies”, “gender”, “age”, “family stages”, “flexiwork”, “flexible”, “remote”, “care support”, “career development support”, “financial compensation”, “leave policy”. These terms were used in various constellations, refined through a repetitive process of “trial-and-error”, until an adequate number of articles for the preliminary sample has been identified. Eventually, it resulted in the following final search query : "Work-life Balance" OR "Work-family balance" OR "Work-Non Work Balance" AND "practices" OR "policies" AND "gender " OR " age" OR "family stages" AND "*flexi*" OR "remote" OR "care support" OR "career *develop*" OR "financial compensation" OR "leave policy". With the constellation of these search terms, the terms were connected or substituted with the Mesh terms “OR” and “AND”, that enable various combinations within this pool of search terms. Additionally, the truncation method for the search terms were used (Example: measur* = measure, measurement, measuring, etc.). Applying this search strategy in Scopus yielded to a total of 278 papers.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The preliminary sample of 278 articles was then further refined through carefully determined inclusion and exclusion criteria, as recommended by Paul et al. (2021). Only articles written in the English language and were published between 2010 and 2024 were considered, excluding all literature published prior to 2010. Lastly, solely research articles were considered, while other literature such as books, book chapters, research protocols, dissertations, or other theses were disregarded. Eventually, after eliminating duplicates within the remaining articles, the preliminary sample resulted in 163 articles. It must be mentioned explicitly that the scanning of the database was conducted in August 2024. Hence, articles that met the selection criteria but were published after 15th of August 2024 could not have been considered in the preliminary sample.

Determining the Final Research Sample

The preliminary sample of 163 articles from the Scopus database was then screened by the author, who briefly examined the abstracts and results of each article to assess whether the article is relevant to the conducted semi-systematic literature review on demographic-specific differences in the preferences for Work-Life Balance practices. Here, the author specifically focused on germane data on employees of different ages, family-life stages, or gender differences. Articles on the Work-Life Balance practice preferences of the general workforce were disregarded as these articles do not provide relevant demographic-specific insights. Additionally, all articles published during the COVID-19 pandemic were excluded intentionally, as the temporary atypical circumstances impair the long-term applicability and comparability of these findings. Preferences expressed during times of the pandemic may not accurately reflect an individual's preferences under normal conditions. Including papers from times during the pandemic would limit the credibility and generalizability of the research for post-pandemic contexts. Nevertheless, it is acknowledged that the pandemic certainly has accelerated the academic research production in this field and has prompted a rapid adaptation of the workplaces to remote work conditions, which in turn facilitated further research. It is important to note that the years of the pandemic were not excluded in the preliminary search on the Scopus database, instead, all articles related to the pandemic were filtered out manually, which ensures the completeness of the relevant articles as it includes articles that are not related to the pandemic but were published during the years of the pandemic as well. Eventually, after screening the preliminary sample in Scopus, 55 articles were selected and assessed to be suitable for the conducted research. All 55 articles were then read in full length. Four of the 55 articles turned out to be less suitable for the research than initially assumed and were then eliminated consequently. For articles that suited the research question especially well, the author applied a backward snowballing method, which means additional articles were determined from the reference list of the 51 articles from the research sample. Consequently, 19 additional articles were incorporated in the final research sample, resulting in an overall number of 70 articles. The list of all 70 articles is linked here:

Table 1 – Authors & Publication Dates

Data Extraction

Subsequently, all 70 articles were carefully read in full length, and the relevant data was extracted systematically into Microsoft Excel tables, in which they were then thoughtfully

structured in order to best answer the previously formulated research question and provide insightful statistics of the research sample's methodologies. Multiple Microsoft Excel tables have been developed to summarize the methodology and variables used in the research, the articles' authors and publication dates, the articles' initial journals of publication, along with their respective journal impact metrics, and the articles' thematic focus on demographic cohorts or job attributes offered by the employer. All Microsoft Excel tables are displayed in the Appendix.

Table 1 – Authors & Publication Dates

Table 2 – Journals & Impact Factors

Table 3 – Methodology & Variables

Table 4 – Age/Gender & Job Attribute Focus

Ensuring the Credibility of the Research Sample

As noted at the beginning of this chapter, established procedures for conducting semi-systematic literature reviews are scarce. Therefore, the author has considered established procedures from more objective literature review approaches, namely a systematic and structured literature review, in order to ensure the validity and credibility of the literature included in this research. Specifically, the author has considered the guidelines proposed by Paul et al. (2021) for conducting systematic literature reviews and by Massaro et al. (2023) for structured literature reviews. Both sources recommend the use of journal impact metrics to indicate the academic credibility of the journals publishing the articles included in the final research sample – corresponding to Step 1b in Paul et al.'s guidelines for a systematic literature review and Step 4 in Massaro et al.'s structured literature review procedure.

The Scopus database was selected as the sole source of research. Scopus is a highly credible and widely recognized database that provides access to a large number of quality research literature, as it only publishes articles from peer-reviewed journals. This underpins the academic trustworthiness of the selected research sample. The Scopus database ensures the credibility of its sources by establishing and providing journal impact metrics for the journals it publishes articles from. The primary journal impact metric considered in this research is the impact factor, which has been established by Clarivate (Web of Science). The impact factor indicates the average number of citations an article from a specific journal receives within a

period of two years and serves as an indicator of a journal's influence in its respective literature field of focus. If no impact factor can be found, the CiteScore (CS) is used as a substitute. The CiteScore is an alternative journal impact metric that measures the average number of citations per article during a four-year period and has been established by Scopus (Elsevier). If neither the impact factor nor the CiteScore is available, the SCImago Journal Rank (SJR) value is considered alternatively. SJR is a weighted impact metric that considers both the number of citations as well as the popularity of the citing journal. This means that more prestigious journals carry more weight than lower-impact journals when assessing a journal's impact on the literature. Generally, the higher the score of a journal impact metric, the higher the commonly perceived credibility. This applies to all three journal impact metrics introduced. Therefore, these metrics serve as strong indicators for evaluating the reliability of academic sources.

Table 2 – Journals & Impact Factors

4. Analysis of the selected Research Sample

Through the interdisciplinary and holistic approach of our research, the selected research sample includes papers from a wide range of academic disciplines and geographic regions. The most frequently represented academic disciplines of the articles are Sociology, Human Resource Management, and Gender Studies. There are, of course, some outliers like Educational Studies or Psychology. Since WLB is a highly privileged concern, it is not surprising that most of the articles are from Western societies, primarily European countries, the US, the UK, Australia, or economically advanced Asian countries such as Japan or South Korea. Nevertheless, some unexpected outliers, namely India and Mexico, were included intentionally due to the holistic aim to incorporate diverse perspectives. The geographic focus and academic disciplinary background are captured in Table 5, Part 1. Part 2 of the table provides further information on the main research focus of the articles, their hypotheses, and key findings. Furthermore, this chapter presents the statistical and thematic characteristics of the sample analyzed in this literature review. The articles chosen through the selection process performed, which is described in detail in the methodology chapter, are presented in a structured and categorized form according to four main areas of focus: The date of publication of the articles, the publishing journals and their credibility, the methodology and variables used in the papers, and the demographic characteristics and the job attributes focused on. The aim

of this chapter is to offer a comprehensive statistical and thematic overview of the data used for this review.

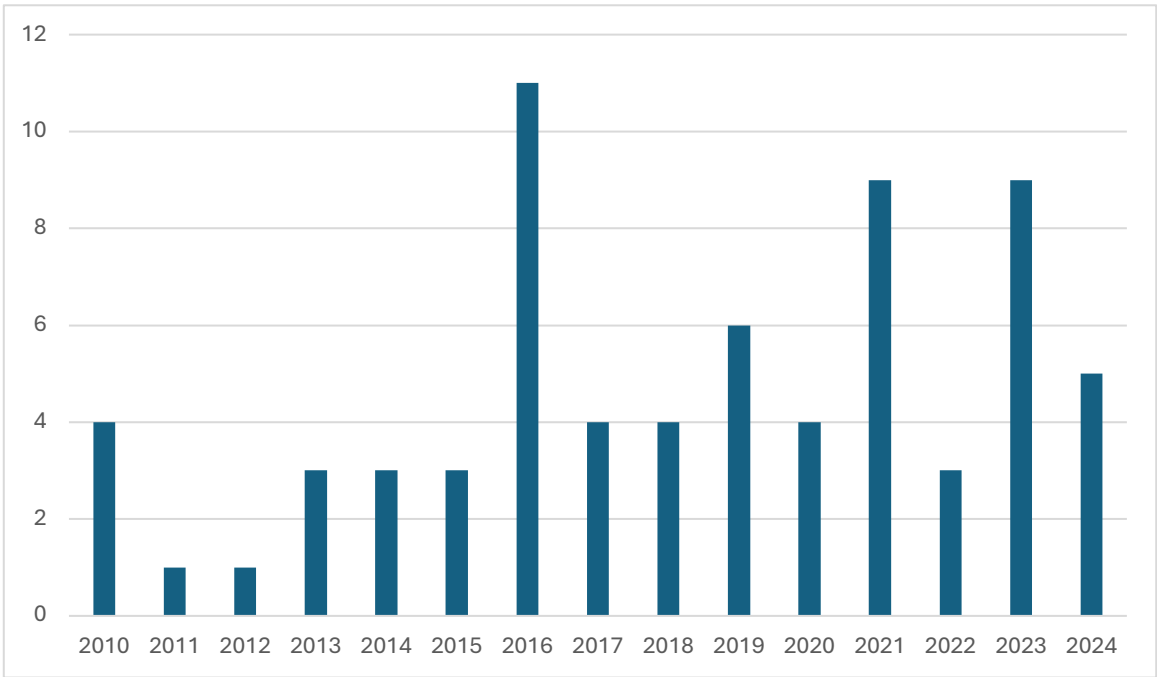
Table 5 – Final Summary Table Part 1

Table 6 – Final Summary Table Part 2

4.1 The Articles' Publication Dates from the Final Research Sample

All 70 articles from our sample were published between the years of 2010 and 2024 (Appendix, Table 1). The distribution of the publication for each year is presented in the graph below (Graph 1). The most dominant year with the highest number of publications included in the total sample, which contains articles added through the additional snowballing method, is the year 2016, with a total of eleven articles published. However, the most prominent years from the initial dataset retrieved from the Scopus database were 2023 and 2021, with eight research papers published each year. It is important to note that the scanning of the Scopus database was conducted in August 2024. Consequently, it is possible that additional relevant research was published during the time until the end of the year 2024. This limitation illustrates the dynamic nature of the academic literature field and its modern relevance. Further analysis of the publication trends suggests a growing academic interest over the years. It must be mentioned explicitly that the research field entailed a lot of COVID-19-related research, which was predominantly excluded in this sample and explains the lower number of articles included in the sample during the years around the pandemic and slightly after. However, as the pandemic forced many employees to work remotely, the extended literature field around remote work and FWA blossomed accordingly.

Graph 1: The Number of Publications per Year



4.2 Journals and Their Credibility

Table 2 in the Appendix presents all 70 articles, their authors, and the respective journal of publication. In total, the articles were published across 63 different peer-reviewed journals, since seven of these journals published two of the articles that are included in the final research sample. The journals mentioned in the sample list were all attached with a journal impact metric to express their level of credibility. Most journals were indicated with their impact factors. For those journals for which no impact factor could be found, the CS-Scores (CiteScore) or SJR-Scores (SCImago Journal Rank) were used. The impact factor is a widely used metric to evaluate a journal’s influence by quantifying the average number of citations a journal’s articles receive over a period of time. However, for those journals for which the impact factor could not be found, the Cite Score or SJR-Score was used instead. The CiteScore is another journal impact metric that measures the average amount of citations per document published from one journal within a four-year period. The SJR-Score is a metric that takes into account the number of articles cited from a Journal and the credibility of the Journals citing. Citations from highly ranked journals are more heavily valued compared to journals with less prestige. All journal impact metrics were retrieved from the “Scopus” database or, alternatively, from the “Web of Science” website. There is one exception, where the impact factor, the CS-Score or SJR-Score, could not be found, namely the “Indian Journal of Industrial Relations”. However, according

to JSTOR, this is a peer-reviewed journal. JSTOR is a journal storage and digital library that evaluates Journals and provides access to an extensive archive of articles from different peer-reviewed journals. Furthermore, the sample also includes one dissertation by Tatjana Schnell at the University of Innsbruck and one internal research report carried out and published by the prestigious accounting firm PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC).

As already mentioned, most of the journals were indicated with their respective impact factors, and another journal impact metric was only used if the impact factor could not have been found. To be more specific, 60 out of the 69 journals were portrayed with their respective impact factor. The average impact factor of these 60 journals was 2.84, which is not considered to be the highest quality average. As argued previously, this research has adopted an interdisciplinary and holistic approach, aiming to include a wide variety of diverse perspectives within the literature field. Hence, this included articles from lower academic standing, which may have limited the academic rigor of the final research sample. The highest impact factor was 7.5 by the “European Management Journal”, and the lowest impact factor was 0.3 by the Colombian Journal “Universitas Psychologica”. The alternative CS-Scores were used five times, whereas the highest-ranked journal has a CS-Score of 12.9 (Management Review Quarterly), and the lowest CS-Score in the table is 1.2 (Journal of Management Information and Decision Science). The SJR-Score was only used twice, with the highest score of 0.122 by the “Portuguese Journal of Social Science” and the lowest score of 0.107 by the “Public Administration and Management” Journal.

4.3 Methodology and Variables Used in the Sample

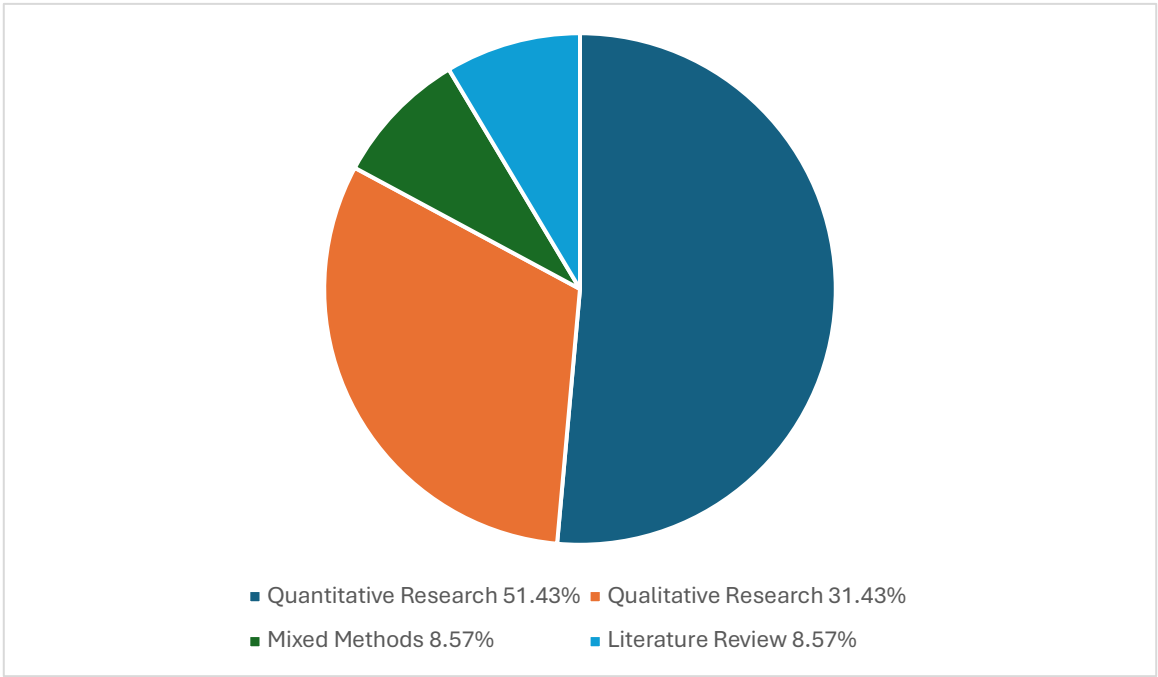
Table 3 in the Appendix summarizes the different methodologies that were employed across the sample of 70 research papers and are categorized into four main approaches: quantitative research, qualitative research, literature reviews, and mixed methods. The table reveals that the sample entails six literature reviews, six mixed methods approaches, 22 qualitative studies, and 36 quantitative studies. Consequently, as the chart below presents (Graph 2), 8.57% of the sample were literature reviews, another 8.57% used a mixed method approach, 31.43% of the sample conducted qualitative research, and 51.43% followed a quantitative approach. In general, the vast majority of the articles employed a quantitative approach, which typically observes and measures relationships between the examined

variables. In contrast, a qualitative approach aims to explore and understand the subjective experiences and thought processes of the respondents. A literature review aims to provide a snapshot of the current literature field, summarize the current state of the art, and highlight potential gaps in the literature.

Additionally, the variables focused on in the articles are presented in the table as well. For all quantitative studies, the independent and dependent variables are also provided and abbreviated with Ind. for independent variables and with Dep. for dependent variables. Furthermore, the mediating variable was added if applicable to the research. This aims to enhance the understanding of the research focus and the relationships explored in the studies in the sample. For qualitative studies, literature reviews, and mixed method approaches, the thematic focus of the research is also listed in the table for similar purposes.

Finally, in addition to the methodological classifications, the table also indicates the sample sizes of each study where applicable, except for the literature reviews, which solely consist of a set of secondary data.

Graph 2: Distribution of the Research Sample according to the Research Methodology



4.4 Thematic Statistics

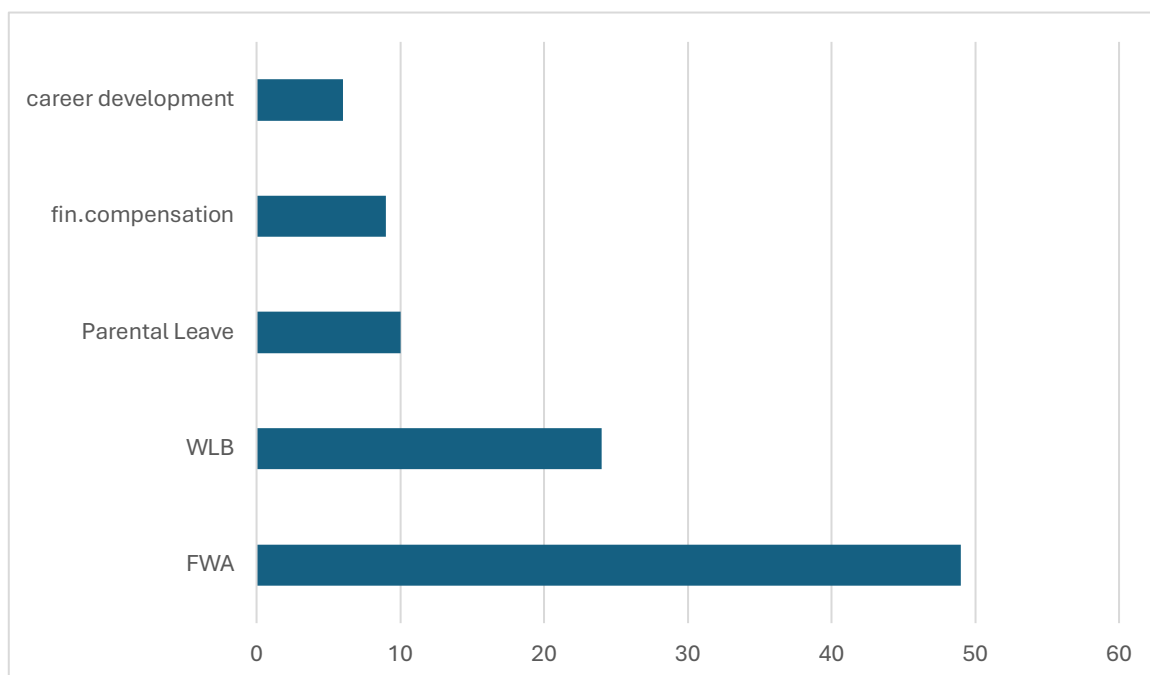
Lastly, another table was created (Table 4 in the Appendix) in which all articles were organized according to their primary content focus. The analysis revealed that in total, 49 articles from

the sample primarily focused on gender differences, while 21 articles concentrated mainly on age-related differences in the utilization and preferences for Work-Life Balance practices. Notably, some studies primarily addressing age-related differences also observed variations between the genders and vice versa. The disproportionate amount of gender-focused research in the sample reflects its dominance in the broader literature field as well, which goes beyond the scope of this literature review sample.

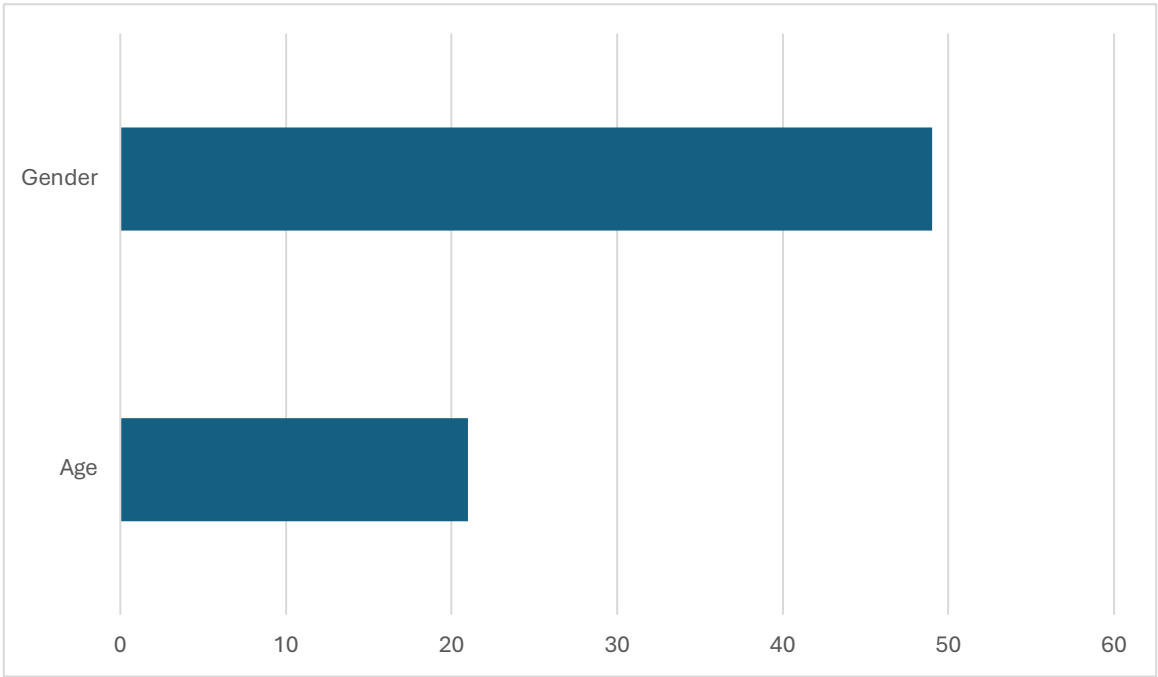
Further, Table 4 in the Appendix also presents the Human Resource practices that were examined in the respective articles. It is worth mentioning that often studies examine more than one Human Resource practice. Often, preferences for Flexible Work Arrangements have been compared with financial compensation. Among the reviewed research, 49 focused on Flexible Work Arrangements (FWA), making it the most commonly studied HR practice. Further, 24 articles investigated on Work-Life Balance (WLB), 10 research focused on parental leaves (PL), 9 papers examined financial compensation (fin. Comp.), and 6 research analyzed career development (Car. Dev.) initiatives offered by an employer to its employees.

The distribution of the thematic focus across the articles of the sample used for this literature review is again represented in the following two graphs (Graph 3 and Graph 4) to provide a clear and short overview:

Graph 3: Distribution of Articles in the Research Sample by Job Attribute/WLB-P Focus



Graph 4: Distribution of Articles in the Research Sample by Demographic Focus



5. Discussion

The findings of the literature considered in our research sample were, to some extent, heterogeneous. Therefore, it is necessary to thoroughly analyze them and discuss potential explanations for the partially inconsistent results.

5.1 Observed Trends in the Literature

The topic of Work-Life Balance has become increasingly more popular in recent decades, as discussed in the Introduction chapter. While the “Work-Life Balance” term has been extensively examined, this has led to various deviations from the term and the creation of alternative terminologies that differ only marginally in their focus from each other. In our research sample, however, the term Work-Life Balance has been by far the most represented term. Other terms, such as “Work-family Balance”, appeared significantly less often and can be regarded as exceptions. As already outlined in the previous chapter on “The Analysis of the selected Research Sample”, 49 out of 70 articles from the final research sample were focused on gender differences, while only 21 addressed age-related differences in preferences for Work-Life Balance practices. Considering that a research sample of 70 articles can be assumed

to reflect the thematic trends of the broader research field to some extent, it may be justified to state that gender differences receive significantly more attention in the literature on Work-Life Balance practice preferences compared to age-related differences. Furthermore, the author observes that especially Flexible Work Arrangements are given notably more attention in the literature than other Work-Life Balance practices. This trend becomes even more pronounced considering publications from recent years. In addition, parental leave practices have received increased academic focus in the literature field since 2018. As also mentioned previously, the concern of a positive Work-Life Balance is a highly privileged phenomenon that only people from predominantly Western or well-developed Asian countries long for. This is also reflected in the selected research sample, where mainly European Countries (including Italy, Iceland, Spain, Belgium, Turkey, Switzerland, Netherlands, Germany, United Kingdom), as well as other Western societies such as Australia, the United States of America, Canada, were the origin of performed research. Additionally, Asian countries such as China, Japan, Korea, and South Korea were also represented. Remarkably, articles from Korea and South Korea were represented surprisingly often. Another notable trend observed by the author was the high appearance of research focusing on the educational and medical sectors, suggesting a particular interest in these industries within the literature field.

5.2 Barriers to the Use of Family-Friendly Practices

To analyze the gender differences for the preferences of Work-Life Balance practices, it makes sense to illustrate the complexity of the underlying societal discrimination of women in the labor market, as well as their disproportionate burden of socially ascribed domestic work responsibilities. To better illustrate the intertwined relations in this context, the author has created a model for exemplification (Model 1). As previously described in the Introduction, early Work-Life Balance practices were first initiated to facilitate women's entrance into the labor market and enable them to combine their socially perceived domestic responsibilities with their professional aspirations (Greenhaus and Kossek, 2014). Thus, WLB initiatives were originally designed for women and originate from traditional gender role ideologies. According to these conservative gender role expectations, women were viewed as the primary caregivers responsible for the majority of domestic work, while men were perceived as the primary breadwinners and money-makers (Southworth, 2014). According to the literature, until today, people's perceptions continue to be shaped by these outdated gender role perceptions, which

lead to women still carrying the majority of domestic work responsibilities. Consequently, women often experience the so-called “double shift” of balancing professional and domestic work, so their desire for WLB often tends to be higher than that of men (Hari, 2017; Stirpe & Zarraga-Oberty, 2017). This imbalance is aimed to be displayed in Model 1. This is also the reason why family-friendly practices are more accessible to women than to men. Cook et al. (2021), for example, state that in their research, time reduction policies on the job are four times more often accessible to women than to their male counterparts and that 30% of men perceive FWA as not available, while only 10% of women feel the same way. Model 1 intends to illustrate this through the red barrier between men’s desire for WLB and their actual use of FWA, symbolizing the reduced accessibility of FWA to men.

The literature indicates that conservative gender views are still deeply rooted in our societies and influence how individuals who are using family-friendly practices are perceived. This is why men encounter a much lower level of social acceptance for using family-friendly practices. Research reveals that WLB practices such as Flexible Work Arrangements (FWA) are socially perceived as more acceptable for women than for men (Gregory, 2020; Cook et al., 2021). The lack of societal acceptance and encouragement deters many men from openly expressing interest in or utilizing family-friendly practices despite their genuine appreciation (Chandra, 2012). This is also intended to be illustrated in Model 1, where the thickness of the arrows indicate the intensity of the depicted relationship in the flow diagram. Research also observes significant cultural differences in the perception of gender-specific responsibilities (Rocha, 2021; Celebi, 2021). In more egalitarian societies, gender roles are perceived as more equal, and the distribution of perceived domestic responsibilities is more balanced. Consequently, men feel more encouraged to use family-friendly practices and to contribute to childcare and domestic responsibilities. On the other hand, in more conservative societies, women are expected to bear a disproportionate amount of domestic work, and the social acceptance of men using family-friendly practices is rather low (Ollier-Malaterre, 2023; Seo, 2022; Chandra, 2012). Consequently, men are avoiding family-friendly practices in conservative societies or in families with traditional gender role perceptions (McDonalds, 2005), which contributes to existing disparities in the utilization of family-friendly practices between men and women. Chandra (2012) underpins this by emphasizing that men would be more inclined to use WLB initiatives if they felt more supported using them. Additionally, four articles have highlighted gender-based differences in the acceptance of utilizing WLB initiatives, especially across industries. M. Thronton (2016), for instance, reports that among lawyers, women face greater acceptance for utilizing WLB practices, as they are often

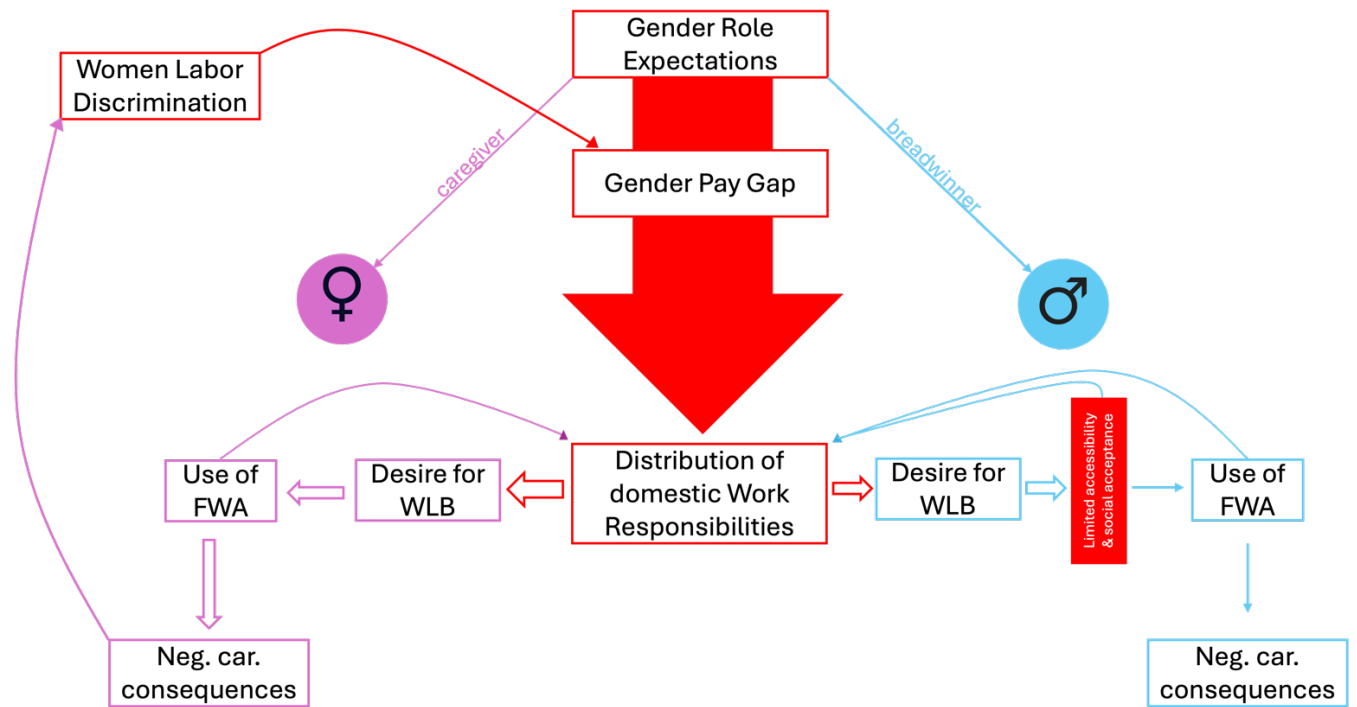
perceived as having more domestic work responsibilities. In contrast, men face less acceptance for WLB initiatives and are subjected to stricter career penalties for using WLB initiatives.

Employers often interpret their employees' use of family-friendly practices as a lack of commitment to their jobs and put them at a disadvantage when competing for professional promotions, which is in the literature often referred to as "negative career consequences" (Tanquerel & Grau-Grau, 2020; Southworth, 2014; Burnett et al., 2010) and shown as a consequence of using FWA in Model 1. As women commonly use family-friendly initiatives more, it affects them disproportionately more often. However, men who do use family-friendly practices often face harsher repercussions than women. Hari (2017) agrees and reports that in his semi-structured interviews with ten Human Resource Managers from Canadian ICT (Information and Communication Technology) companies, men encounter harsher negative career consequences because they are socially expected to better fit the traditional "ideal worker" conception. Their deviation from this "ideal-worker" expectation leads to greater disappointment by employers when expressing their interest in family-friendly practices.

On the other hand, women face career penalties before even utilizing family-friendly practices due to the employers' assumption that women end up using these practices eventually (Lambrianou et al., 2022). This leads to women being disadvantaged at the beginning of their careers already (Southworth, 2014) and reinforces women's labor market discrimination, which completes the vicious cycle of women's professional disadvantage and is intended to be illustrated in Model 1 as well. In the eyes of employers, being a woman, and being biologically capable of childbirth, and often being socially expected to carry out the majority of domestic responsibilities, is seen as a liability in the hiring process (Assiri et al., 2021). Consequently, women must prove their commitment to their employers first, whereas men are typically presumed to be more committed to their jobs due to their perceived money-making responsibilities (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Preemptive career penalties impose serious disadvantages to a woman's career and are examined in various research showing that career-oriented women face significantly bigger challenges to advance in their careers than men (Piltch-Loeb et al., 2020). As D'agostino (2011) reports, women in executive positions often underutilize or completely avoid WLB initiatives to achieve professional progress. Moreover, women in such positions are more likely to be single or childless compared to their male counterparts or tend to have children at an older age (Lambrianou et al., 2022; Kimia Sorouri et al., 2021).

According to the literature, the career penalties faced by men when utilizing family-friendly practices further intersect with another prevalent imbalance of gender inequality: the gender pay gap—the disparity in wages between men and women in equivalent employment. In Model 1, the gender pay gap is depicted as an amplifying factor that enhances the disproportional distribution of domestic work responsibilities. As men tend to earn significantly higher wages on average compared to women, the financial loss associated with career repercussions caused by a man's utilization of family-friendly practices often impacts a family's overall financial situation more detrimentally than the potential loss from a woman's reduced salary (Meil & Romero-Balsas, 2018; Rocha, 2021). Consequently, women consider sacrificing their career opportunities to protect their partners from negative career consequences, thereby securing a higher combined income for their family (Ioan Lazar et al., 2010; Hari, 2017; Thornton, 2016; Burnett et al., 2010). This dynamic exacerbates existing gender inequality and reinforces conservative gender role perceptions (Ioan Lazar et al., 2010; Hari, 2017; Thornton, 2016; Burnett et al., 2010). Yoon & Park's regression analysis utilizing data from the Korean Time Use Survey illustrates the centrality of financial considerations for parents, as they report that the more a woman contributes financially to the family, the more equal childcare responsibilities are distributed. The following model aims to facilitate the understanding of this complex and intertwined vicious circle of gender disparities:

Model I: Vicious Circle of the Disproportionate Distribution of Domestic Work



(Source: Created by Author)

Explanation of Model 1 Elements:

Use of FWA	With the Availability of FWA, women tend to increase their share of domestic work responsibilities and decrease their professional workload.	Use of FWA	Men tend to use FWA to increase their professional workload and facilitate career progress instead of increasing domestic work contribution.
Neg. car. consequences	Women are disadvantaged when, and even before, utilizing WLB-P, as Employers expect them to do so eventually -> Women Labor Discrimination	Neg. car. consequences	According to the literature, men face stricter career penalties for utilizing WLB-P than women, as employers expect them to comply with an ideal worker image.
Gender Role Expectations	Formed through conservative social and cultural perceptions.	Limited accessibility & social acceptance	WLB-P are less accessible to men, and due to socially perceived gender role expectations, men face less acceptance using them.

5.3 Perceived Importance of WLB

Gender:

Research suggests that there are fundamental differences in the perceived significance of Work-Life Balance among genders. To be exact, according to the majority of the research sample on gender differences, women seem to value WLB more compared to men (SH. Jeon & H. Hur, 2024; Aoyagi & Munro, 2024). For example, Ferdous et al. (2023) found that women have a higher willingness to pay to improve their current WLB situation, use WLB initiatives more often, and have a higher turnover intention when their WLB is unsatisfactory. Further research by Martinez (2024) contributes that women's WLB have a greater effect on their job happiness than men's. Women's greater desire for WLB may originate from them often being affected by its absence more heavily due to their disproportionate burden of domestic work (Aoyagi & Munro, 2024; Lambrianou et al., 2022; Lee Cooke & Xiao, 2014). It also appears that these practices are particularly effective for women as their WLB seems to improve more significantly following the utilization of WLB practices (Ferdous et al., 2023; Assiri et al., 2021). Another factor contributing to the differently perceived importance of WLB by men and women could be differing career motivations. Women do not strive for tangible success as much as men. Instead, women evaluate their career success predominantly by subjective criteria (Cho et al., 2017; Valet et al., 2021). Their personal growth and the meaning of their daily work are often significantly more important to women than money or professional advancements. Men, on the other hand, tend to be mainly motivated by objective measures, prioritizing money and career progression (Cho et al., 2017).

Surprisingly, the reviewed sample also consists of studies arguing that men report more positive outcomes from WLB practices than women, namely Wheatley (2016) and Macchioni & Prandini (2019). It seems that women often use WLB practices to better allocate their time between their professional and private responsibilities. However, since women often carry out the majority of domestic work, they face significantly higher private demands than men. As a result, women's time gained through employee-friendly practices is often directly reinvested in better fulfilling private demands rather than improving mental or physical well-being. Consequently, the positive effects of WLB practices are less pronounced for women than for men, according to Macchioni and Prandini (2019) and Wheatley (2016).

Age:

Regarding age-related differences in the appreciation of Work-life Balance, Gonzalez et al. (2021) suggest that WLB is generally valued highly among all age groups. However, the research sample contains inconsistent findings. Six articles from the selected research sample suggest that younger employees value WLB more compared to older employees (Petroulas et al., 2010; Castello & Westrover, 2016; Macchioni & Prandini, 2019; T. Ferdous et al., 2023). This may be generational characteristics as young individuals nowadays seem to have a more leisure-oriented attitude; they do not agree with a work-centered lifestyle and see work only as a means to finance a fulfilling life outside of work (Finn & Donovan, 2013; Petroulas et al., 2010). In contrast, previous generations shared a strong loyalty to their employers and tried to retain their employment with a hard-working work ethic (Hölter et al., 2023). However, research suggests that it is not the preference for WLB that has changed, instead, the circumstances of employment itself have evolved. The desire to enjoy life outside work has always been sought across generations. The difference today is a demographic shift that causes skill shortages and forces employers to compete for fewer well-qualified candidates in the labor market. Hence, the bargaining power shifts towards the employees' side, and applicants today are now in a stronger position to articulate their desire for better working conditions than individuals from previous generations were.

Work-Life Balance seems to be appreciated highly among all age groups (Gonzalez et al., 2021). However, several authors from research in the selected sample agree that younger people value WLB more than their older colleagues (T. Ferdous et al., 2023; Macchioni & Prandini, 2019; Petroulas et al., 2010; Finn & Donovan, 2013). Nonetheless, this view is not unanimously shared among all researchers from the sample. Younger people perceive WLB offerings by their employer as one of the most critical factors when assessing a job opportunity, and they have a higher turnover intention if they are unsatisfied with their current WLB situation, according to Ramirez et al. (2022). Younger employees perceive themselves as having higher employability than their older competitors, as they are seen as a longer-term solution with greater potential for development, which enables them to be more selective about their working conditions (Martinez et al., 2021)

Work-Life Balance is a highly subjective dynamic that varies from individual to individual, however, for many younger employees, a positive WLB consists of several key factors. One of them is the time spent outside of work. As mentioned, younger employees are reluctant to live a work-centered life and see work more as a means to afford a good life outside their working hours (Petroulas et al., 2010; Dokadia et al., 2015). Petroulas et al. (2010) report

that younger employees are significantly less inclined to work overtime and value their leisure time highly. Furthermore, it is much more important for younger employees of today's generation to work in a meaningful job compared to individuals from previous generations (Dokadia et al., 2015; Finn & Donovan, 2013). The psychologist Tatjana Schnell (2016) discovered that individuals who see meaning in their work and lives are physically and mentally healthier and, particularly younger people, are more likely to seek meaningfulness. Additionally, private demands are highest when children are young and in need of care. Hence, WLB practices are especially helpful for parents of young children. This is supported by Jeon & Hur (2023), who state that the importance of WLB and the appreciation of family-friendly practices increases for married employees.

On the other hand, there is also a considerable number of research in the sample that argue that WLB practices are equally appreciated by older employees (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Petroulas et al., 2010; Castello & Westrover, 2016), three articles from the sample even argue that WLB is more appreciated among employees of advanced age (Richert-Kazmierska, 2016; Bal & L. Dorenbusch, 2015; Cornwell et al., 2023). According to Kooij et al. (2016), older employees value all WLB initiatives aimed at maintaining their current performances or reducing work demands as they facilitate continued participation in the workforce without overstraining. Big parts of the literature sample further report that it is well-documented that older people have a significantly better WLB than younger employees (Martin et al., 2021) and that their work motivation has shifted from a more extrinsic to more intrinsic motivation, as older people value social relationships and meaningful work highly (Richert-Kazmierska, 2016; Bal & L. Dorenbusch, 2015; Cornwell et al., 2023). Therefore, previously prioritized objective ambitions recede while more attainable intrinsic motivations become prevalent, which leads to older employees achieving a higher job satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Petroulas et al., 2010). Further, private demands successively decrease when growing older as Wepfer et al. (2015) report that the family-life stage with the highest WLB is when children have left the house.

5.4 Flexible Work Arrangements:

Gender:

The literature agrees that both men and women significantly value Flexible Work Arrangements (FWA). While some studies indicate that there is no considerable difference in the preferences for FWA between both genders (Villablanca et al., 2013), the majority, 13 studies, suggest that women have a stronger preference for flexibility in their jobs (C. Aoyagi & A. Munro, 2024; T. Ferdous et al., 2023; Hari, 2017; Thornton, 2016; Lee Cooke & Xiao, 2014; Burnett et al., 2010; Valet et al., 2021; Bae & Kim, 2016; M. D'agostino, 2011; C. Brega, 2023; Smith et al., 2019; Villablanca et al., 2013; Chung & van der Lippe, 2018;). It is well-documented that women often carry out most of the domestic work and are disproportionately burdened by household duties and caregiving responsibilities (C. Aoyagi & A. Munro, 2024; Smidt et al., 2016; Martinez et al., 2011). As such, FWAs appear to be particularly beneficial for the average woman as they better address women's needs than men's (Tanquerel & Grau-Grau, 2020). Flexible and self-controlled schedules allow women to manage private and professional demands more effectively, making FWA a valuable support when participating in the labor market (Tanquerel & Grau-Grau, 2020; Bond & Galinsky, 2006; de Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). Smith et al. (2019) further argue that a certain level of flexibility is essential to enable a mother's maintenance and advancement in her career while managing the bulk of domestic work responsibilities. Coherently, the literature agrees that women have stronger preferences for FWA and states that women are more likely than men to use FWA when it is unconditionally available (D'agostino, 2011; Brega, 2023; Smith et al., 2019; Villablanca et al., 2013; Burnett et al., 2010; Chung & van der Lippe, 2018). The strong preference for FWA is further evident in the fact that women tend to be more unsatisfied when FWA is not available at their workplace (Bae & Kim, 2016). This need for flexibility increases in households with children, especially younger ones (Wepfer et al., 2015; SH. Jeon & H. Hur, 2023; Valet et al., 2021). Unlike men, women tend to feel more guilt when being at work, neglecting their perceived family responsibilities, which is an additional factor contributing to the imbalanced distribution of domestic work (Martinez et al., 2011). These findings are further underlined by Moran and Koslowski (2019), who found that flexibility is one of the most important, if not the most important, job attribute for women. Also, additional research states that women would select lower-paying jobs or jobs with fewer chances for career advancement but instead grant flexibility, enabling them to meet private demands (Kimia Sorouri et al., 2021; Tso & Parikh,

2021; Gregory, 2020). This is also confirmed by Valet et al. (2021), who state that women value FWA more than money.

However, five studies from the sample challenge the belief that women place more value on FWA than men, arguing that there is no significant difference in the preferences for FWA between men and women (Villablanca et al., 2013). Valet et al. (2021) even argue that FWA is of comparable importance to men as self-development opportunities and high financial compensation. Further, Wheatley (2016) states that men value flexibility and autonomy in their working schedules greatly as it increases their life and job satisfaction. Despite an arguably similar preference for FWA, it is well-documented that women use FWA practices considerably more often than men (M. D'agostino, 2011; C. Brega, 2023; Smith et al., 2019; Villablanca et al., 2013; Burnett et al., 2010; Chung & van der Lippe, 2018). According to the research, this has several reasons:

First, family-friendly practices are more accessible to women (Cook et al., 2021). As already mentioned, early WLB practices were initiated to facilitate women's entrance into the labor market and, therefore, were originally aimed at women (Greenhaus and Kossek, 2014). Nowadays, outdated gender role perceptions still influence the labor market, which is why FWA is still mainly aimed at women. Unfortunately, the societal views on gender role expectations in the labor market are only slowly being freed from their conservative chains. For example, Cook et al. (2021) state that FWA practices are perceived to be significantly less available to men.

Second, the social acceptance of men utilizing family-friendly practices remains low (Cook et al., 2021; Gregory, 2020). Men often hesitate to express their desire for FWA due to concerns about their employer's understanding and acceptance. This often results in negative career consequences and enhanced pressure to fulfill socially perceived gender role expectations (Tanquerel & Grau-Grau, 2020; Smith et al., 2019; Moran & Koslowski, 2019; Hari, 2017; Hiessl, 2020). Three studies even argue that men face stricter career penalties than women when taking advantage of FWA as it conflicts with employer's potential conservative societal expectations of men being the primary breadwinner of a family and the "ideal worker" (Ioan Lazar et al., 2010; Hari, 2017; Thornton, 2016; Burnett et al., 2010). The literature reports substantial differences between more egalitarian cultures and more traditional cultures. In egalitarian cultures, women are seen as equal to men, and men are even encouraged to use family-friendly practices to contribute to domestic work duties, whereas in more traditional

cultures, women are left alone with a disproportionate amount of domestic work, and the social acceptance for men taking advantage of family-friendly practices is rather low.

Both men and women place significant value on FWA, albeit with different intentions. When men decide to utilize FWA, they tend to work increased hours to enhance their career development and gain financial growth rather than increasing their contribution to domestic work (Lott, 2018; Cook et al., 2021; Meil & Romero-Balsas, 2018). This suggests that men's motivation for schedule autonomy is primarily career-oriented, unlike women's, who value FWA to better combat work-family conflicts (Smidt et al., 2017). Supporting this, Aoyagi and Munro (2024) report that men without children value FWA more than men with children, suggesting that career-advancing motivations outweigh the intention to increase their share of childcare responsibilities. Hiessl (2020) notes that increased autonomy in one's work schedule often raises the employer's expectations and amplifies the pressure on the respective employee. Among other reasons, this may explain men's increased working hours when using FWA. Further, Hari (2017) reports that often WLB policies, especially FWA, are framed to promote productivity rather than caregiving advantages. Additionally, the research often assumes and suggests that men often have a more ambitious work attitudes than women (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Arguably, conservative societal gender role perceptions cause men's perception of being responsible for providing for their family financially, which explains their greater fear of negative career consequences and why they decide to use FWA less or differently than women. As Yerkes et al. (2024) further indicate, while women relatively often choose to work from home, men prefer working on-site, even if they have the chance to work remotely, as being present enhances their chances to impress their supervisors and use the proximity of an office environment to create a network and make their work noticed. The different ways in which men and women use FWA reinforce traditional gender role expectations and perpetuate existing inequalities (Chung & van der Lippe, 2021; Lott & H. Chung, 2016)

In theory, Flexible Work Arrangements offer great benefits for an employee's Work-Life Balance, especially for women. However, research on the impact of FWA on the Work-Life Balance of men and women present heterogeneous results. Despite the great benefits of flexibly managing one's work schedule, research shows that FWA also entails threats to the WLB of men and women (Lott, 2018; Wheatley, 2017; Smidt et al., 2017). FWA appears to be particularly suitable for a woman's double burden of augmented domestic work responsibilities and professional duties as an employee (Martinez, 2024; Lambrianou et al., 2022; Elkhwesky

et al., 2023; Tanquerel & Grau-Grau, 2020; Chung & van der Lippe, 2020; Smidt et al., 2016; Villablanca et al, 2013; Valet et al., 2021; Piltch-Loeb et al., 2020; Chung & van der Lippe, 2018; Wheatley, 2016). Accordingly, 20 out of 70 studies from the sample argue that FWAs have a more positive impact on women's WLB than on men's (Lott, 2018). However, other studies state that FWAs are not as favorable as originally assumed. Instead, they argue that women's time gained through flexibility is simply reinvested in taking on even more household or caregiving responsibilities (Wheatley, 2017; Smidt et al., 2017). Hence, instead of relieving women from an augmented work burden, it often increases the total workload of women, exacerbating their Work-Life Balance (Macchioni & Prandini, 2019; Smidt et al., 2016; Wheatley, 2016). Nevertheless, research states that women still benefit from FWA (Feeney & Stritch, 2017; Lott, 2018; Chung & van der Lippe, 2020) as they gain better life satisfaction but limit the benefits of leisure time (Wheatley, 2016). Therefore, we must explicitly distinguish their desire to use FWA and its benefits on women's WLB.

A potential reason for the inconsistent findings of the impact of FWA on women's WLB may be that the adverse consequences of utilizing FWA only emerge after a certain period of time, while its advantages are assumed to be apparent and visible immediately. Studies such as Lott (2020) did not provide specific information about the time frame of the studies and how long FWA had been implemented before the survey data was collected. Others, like Hiessl (2020), are based on secondary data without further specific information on the length the respondents had used FWA before answering the questionnaires. Only Machioni and Prandini (2019) indicated that, according to the methodology of the paper, the FWAs were introduced in 2015, and the survey was conducted in 2016, which seems to be a sufficient period of time for the negative aspects of FWA to appear.

For men, working increased hours remotely also poses risks as it increasingly blurs the boundaries between work and private time (E. Han et al., 2024; Chung & van der Lippe, 2020; Lott, 2018; Chung & van der Lippe, 2018; Wheatley, 2016; C. Hiessl, 2020). It becomes increasingly more difficult to separate one's work from one's personal life when both roles are performed in the same environment. This induces individuals to answer work-related calls or messages outside their intended working hours, making it difficult to fully disconnect from work. In the literature, this is commonly referred to as an "always-on culture" (Atanasoff & Venable, 2017) and has severe impacts on one's Work-Life Balance as it increases cognitive work-to-home spillover (Lott, 2018; Hiessl, 2020). Further, Han et al. (2024) add that increased working hours and blurred boundaries between private and professional domains affect men's quality of sleep at night.

Age:

Besides gender differences in the preferences for FWA, there are also age-related or family-life-stage-related differences in the preferences for FWA. Family-life stages refer to different phases a family usually lives through that differ in their family constellations and contexts. As already mentioned, in general, younger employees tend to have a more ambitious motivation to work as they have not proven themselves to their employers and co-workers yet. Older employees, on the other hand, are usually further advanced in their professional careers and have experienced and achieved more - their motivation to impress and develop has decreased over time (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Petroulas et al., 2010). Based on these assumptions, one would expect younger employees to value FWA practices less to better impress and advance in their careers. Surprisingly, our research reveals contradicting yet inconsistent results.

Six papers from the selected sample indicate that younger employees value flexibility more than older people. According to the literature, this has different reasons: First, private and professional demands evolve throughout one's lifespan, especially when having a family. Usually, younger employees are motivated to impress the employer and other employees to prove they are promising candidates for potential promotions. Hence, the early years of an individual's career are dominated by intense and self-imposed workloads (Wepfer et al., 2015). Simultaneously, the years in which professional work demands are highest, are also the years in which people start families, and their private demands increase considerably as well. Therefore, in family-life stages in which kids are in primary school ages or younger, parents, especially women, experience a significantly high private demand (Wepfer et al., 2015; SH. Jeon & H. Hur, 2023; Valet et al., 2021). Hence, FWA appears to be a suitable WLB practice for parents. Of course, the domestic demand increases significantly if an individual is a single parent (Smith et al., 2019).

Despite valuing flexibility to manage caregiving responsibilities better, younger employees increasingly often appreciate flexibility and autonomy as they are reluctant to live a work-centered life, as comparisons between different generations have shown (Dokadia et al., 2015; Castello & Westrover, 2016; Chung & van der Lippe, 2020). According to Ramirez et al. (2020), for millennials flexibility is one of the main work motivations for a job. Contrary to this, Han et al. (2024) argue in their analysis of Korean working conditions surveys that younger men between the ages of 19 and 38 were slightly less likely to engage in FWA than

older age groups. In accordance with the previously mentioned ambitious work attitudes of younger employees, the research also indicates that they prefer working on-site to more easily impress their supervisors and make their work more likely to be seen and valued by their supervisors.

Furthermore, Bal and Dorenbusch (2015) state that older individuals also value FWA highly as they report that employees above the age of 45 benefit substantially from FWA as it helps them cope with physical and mental decline. Additionally, several studies perceive FWA as an important adjustment for older employees to facilitate sustainable working conditions for an aging workforce (Verbrugghe et al., 2016; J. Clendon & L. Walker, 2016). Further, Gutman et al. (2023) argue that the technological dependency on working remotely is a serious barrier for older employees to take advantage of FWA. Also, Aoyagi and Munro (2024) state that older employees prefer traditional working conditions as they enjoy personal interaction at the office and value social relationships. Then again there are studies arguing that no significant difference in the preference for FWA among employees of different ages can be noticed and that all age groups are willing to sacrifice parts of their salary for more flexibility (Martin et al., 2021; Dokadia et al., 2015; Finn & Donovan, 2013).

5.5 Parental Leave

Gender:

Another family-friendly initiative that has been focused on in the sample is parental leave, which allows employees to be absent from work for a period of time while being financially supported or guarantees employees to return to their jobs after their leave (Kamerman, 2000). The extent to which parents are financially supported during parental leave depends on the specific policies of the employer or the legal framework of the respective country (Heshmati et al., 2023, Tanaka, 2005). Parental leave is typically divided into maternity leave for mothers and paternity leave for fathers and is designed to assist parents in bonding with their child, managing early childcare responsibilities, and enabling mothers to take the time needed to physically recover from childbirth. Parental leave also promotes a healthy development of the child and contributes to a positive and stable family environment (Ruhm, 2000; Meil & Romero-Balsas, 2018). The specific legal situation of parental leave policies vary

strongly across countries and employers in terms of its duration, eligibility, and how the leave is distributed between the parents.

This research has shown that women value parental leave highly, and according to a considerable amount of researchers from the sample, they value it significantly more than men (Jeon & Hur, 2023; Goni-Legaz & Ollo-Lopez, 2016; Valarino et al., 2018). If parental leave is equally available for men and women, women choose to take advantage of it significantly more often and for a longer period of time (Moran & Koslowski, 2019; D'agostino, 2011; Romero-Balsas, 2023; Rocha, 2021). This may have several reasons: Firstly, maternity leave is a crucial time for mothers to recover from the physical demands of childbirth. Furthermore, the physical well-being of a newborn relies significantly more on the mother's presence than the father's, particularly due to the mother's role of breastfeeding in meeting the child's nutritional demands. Additionally, beyond the physical benefits for the child, maternity leave also facilitates a crucial emotional and psychological bond between the mother and her child, contributing to a healthy development (Meil & Romero-Balsas; 2018).

Secondly, as previously discussed in more detail, conservative gender role expectations still heavily influence contemporary societal perceptions on the distribution of childcare responsibilities (Lambrianou et al., 2022; Tso & Parikh, 2021; S. Yoon & N. Park, 2023). Therefore, these differences in gender role ideologies lead to notable discrepancies in the acceptance of parental leave utilization by individuals of different genders (Valarino et al., 2018). The research indicates that women are often socially perceived as more responsible for childcare than men and commonly experience greater feelings of guilt when neglecting childcare responsibilities due to professional obligations, according to Martinez et al. (2011). Interestingly, Martinez et al. (2011) also highlight substantial variations in the perceived guilt among fathers with different gender role ideologies. Fathers with more progressive views on gender roles experience similar levels of guilt compared to mothers when neglecting childcare responsibilities because of professional duties.

Thirdly, the centrality of the financial perspective of a family deciding to utilize parental leave should not be underestimated. The gender pay gap – the fact that men usually earn significantly more money than women in equivalent employment – is a common issue. Likewise is the observation that the use of family-friendly practices often leads to negative career consequences for the respective employee using such initiatives. Consequently, when men earn more money than women on average, the financial penalties associated with taking parental leave harm the overall financial situation of a family more when it affects the better-earning individual, which is the father most of the time (Celebi, 2021). This is strengthened by

Rocha et al. (2021), who explicitly state that usually, the partner with the lower salary is the one taking the leave and are women in most cases. These financial considerations also influence the length of the leave as the career penalties tend to exacerbate the longer the leave is taken (Meil & Romero-Balsas, 2018). Furthermore, the centrality of financial considerations in the parents' decision-making is further underlined by the fact that women in wealthier families take longer leaves and that fathers in dual-earner families more often claim paternity leave opportunities (Barcus et al., 2019). At the same time, this indicates that fathers also value paternity leave highly, which aligns with a substantial amount of the researchers' findings from the sample, who further state that many fathers explicitly title paternity leave as "desired" and express a willingness to take it if it was less stigmatized and frowned upon by employers (Leitao, 2019; Smith et al., 2019; Moran & Koslowski, 2019; Smidt et al., 2017).

As already mentioned, 11 studies from the selected sample argue that women value parental leave significantly more than men (D'agostino, 2011; Goni-Legaz & Ollo-Lopez, 2016; Rocha, 2021; Jeon & Hur, 2023; Romero-Balsas, 2023), while six others state men also highly appreciate these initiatives (Smidt et al., 2016; Leitao, 2019; Smith et al., 2019; Barcus et al., 2019; Moran & Koslowski, 2019; Moran & Koslowski, 2019). Potential explanations for these inconsistent findings can be methodological differences, as the sources suggesting that men similarly appreciate parental leave initiatives (Leitao, 2019; Smith et al., 2019; Moran & Koslowski, 2019; Smidt et al., 2017) are mainly qualitative research, which primarily focus on exploring individual's perceptions and motivations. In contrast, the literature that states that women value parental leave more than men (D'agostino, 2011; Goni-Legaz & Ollo-Lopez, 2016; Jeon & Hur, 2023; Romero-Balsas, 2023) is predominantly conducted by quantitative research, focusing on statistical patterns and trends.

Furthermore, in Valarino et al.'s research from 2018, which utilized secondary data from the 2012 International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) to explore individuals' preferences for parental leave policies among 4,108 respondents across Austria, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States of America—four countries that vary significantly in their welfare systems and economic structures—Valarino et al. (2018) argue that societal and legislative differences influence an individual's perception of parental leave utilization. For instance, Sweden, known for its social-democratic focus, provides fathers with non-transferable paternity leave, meaning their leave entitlements cannot be transferred to mothers, compelling men to support mothers more with domestic work and promoting fathers' involvement in childcare responsibilities (Rocha et al., 2021). This progressive and gender-equal attitude is reflected in Swedish society,

as Valarino et al. (2018) report that Sweden stands out as the country with the strongest support for the equal distribution of parental leave. In contrast, Austria, known for its relatively conservative views, showed the least appreciation for an equal distribution of parental leave between mothers and fathers (Valarino et al., 2018). Turkey, also a relatively conservative country like Austria, illustrates another example revealing causes for the imbalanced use of parental leave among parents, as its leave policies are predominantly designed for mothers and offer limited opportunities for fathers to engage in childcare responsibilities, further contributing to the lack of pioneering men who encourage and pave the way for potential imitators (Celebi, 2021). These obstacles are deeply rooted in societal norms and legislative frameworks that disadvantage women and reinforce existing gender inequalities. Moreover, Meil & Romero-Balsas (2018) emphasize that women are significantly more likely than men to fail to return to work after their parental leave ends, further exacerbating the persistent inequalities faced by women in the labor market.

Age:

Besides the differences in the utilization and preference of parental leave among men and women, there are also differences between younger and older employees' views on the importance and application of parental leave policies or among individuals from different life stages. Of course, married employees or employees with children value parental leave policies significantly more than single employees or employees without children (SH. Jeon & H. Hur, 2023; M. D'agostino, 2011). Valarino et al. (2018) found in their quantitative research that younger people between the ages of 18 and 44 preferred a gender-equal division of parental leave and preferred longer leaves compared to other age groups. Additionally, they report that people aged 65 or older prefer fully gendered leaves, where one parent, mostly mothers, occupies the full leave contingent available, and employees between the ages of 45 and 65 favor shorter absences (Valarino et al., 2018).

5.6 Financial Compensation & Personal Development

As mentioned previously, financial compensation and career development opportunities are not formally considered Work-Life Balance practices. Although financial compensation is often being reviewed as a trade-off factor in the literature, and thus, is only

assessed in relation to other non-monetary job attributes, its significant impact on people's overall job satisfaction is widely acknowledged (Judge et al., 2010; Rynes et al., 2004; Valet et al., 2017). In the past, a job's salary was commonly considered the most important job attribute when assessing a new professional opportunity (Jurgensen, 1978; Rynes et al., 2004), whereas Work-Life Balance practices started influencing the evaluations of job vacancies only in recent decades (Sacks et al., 2012; Kahneman & Deaton, 2010). Career development opportunities are closely linked to the level of financial compensation, as career progression into more prestigious positions is naturally compensated with higher pay (Valet et al., 2017). Research states that financial compensation and personal growth opportunities indirectly influence one's perceived Work-Life Balance and even enable employees to better utilize Work-Life Balance practices (Hoole & Hotz, 2016; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003). By including factors such as an individual's salary and career-enhancing opportunities, the research reflects a more holistic and realistic perspective on job attribute preferences. It considers how individuals assess entire job packages and make trade-offs based on their subjective preferences (Rynes et al., 2004; Beauregard & Henry, 2009). The inclusion of different job attributes and the recognition of varying combinations of these attributes acknowledges the growing complexity of the Work-Life Balance literature field, extending it beyond the usual focus on flexibility and autonomy (Cahill & Sedrak, 2012; Bustamante et al., 2021).

Age:

In recent Work-Life Balance trends, such as the proposal of the four-day workweek, which were publicly discussed and have encountered a lot of criticism, younger people's motivation to work has been questioned heavily, particularly by older generations. However, this does not imply a lack of professional ambitions to develop their skills and strive for professional achievements and financial wealth. As already mentioned, unlike previous generations, younger employees today refuse to live a work-centered life, instead, they perceive work more as a means to afford a good life outside their working hours. Thus, financial compensation remains an important factor for employees of all age groups when evaluating job opportunities. In particular, the research argues that younger employees value a high salary more than employees aged 40 or older (Petroulos et al., 2010). Ramirez et al. (2022) further emphasize that salary is one of the primary work motivators for young employees. Additionally, Gonzalez et al. (2010) substantiate this argument by identifying a significant relationship between pay satisfaction and the job satisfaction of employees younger than 40.

Bal and Dorenbusch (2015) report that younger employees are predominantly motivated by extrinsic rewards, such as financial and career-promoting incentives, as career progression is often accompanied by enhanced financial compensation. Accordingly, young employees appreciate personal development initiatives and generous salaries aligned with their professional and financial aspirations. Seven articles from the literature state that younger and middle-aged employees are more motivated and more inclined to utilize initiatives supporting their personal growth and career development compared to their older colleagues (Martin et al., 2021; Bal & Dorenbusch, 2015; Kooij et al., 2016; Petroulas et al., 2010; Dokadia et al., 2015; Castello & Westrover, 2016; Finn & Donovan, 2013). This should not be interpreted as a generational characteristic unique to today's younger employees; instead, it reflects a common intention of individuals to focus on professional development in the early stages of their careers, a motivation also shared by previous generations. Younger employees' strong commitment to advance in their careers is evident in their tendency to take significantly fewer vacation days compared to their older colleagues (Hilbrecht & Smale, 2016). Furthermore, younger employees, particularly those who are single, value self-actualization benefits highly, according to Jeon & H. Hur (2023). In their cross-sectional survey, Cornwell et al. (2023) examined the professional motivations and the well-being of 290 respondents of different ages and reported that as individuals age, their perceived importance of personal growth and professional advancements tends to decline. Instead, older individuals increasingly prioritize the security of maintaining their current living standards. This evolution of professional motivation aligns with the findings of, Cho et al. (2016) and Ng and Feldman (2010) who observed an evolution in men's motivators throughout their careers (Cho et al., 2016; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Early in their professional careers, men are mainly driven by extrinsic motivators, placing great value on their financial compensation and appreciating every opportunity to develop their professional skills and advance in their careers (Cho et al., 2016; Ng & Feldman, 2010). As they advance in their careers and become older, their priorities shift away from tangible incentives. Now, they find their motivation predominantly in subjective measures, like enjoying their day-to-day work, having stable social relationships, and a positive Work-Life Balance (Cho et al., 2016; Ng & Feldman, 2010). This shift reflects reduced financial cravings and an increased emphasis on personal fulfillment. However, as money is still an essential ingredient for a carefree life, older employees continue to place significant value on a comfortable level of income, yet its overall relevance and centrality tend to decline with age (Petroulas et al., 2010). Moreover, there are also research studies in the sample that

suggest that older employees strive for prestige and status, which may arguably be gained through financial wealth (Martin et al., 2022; Petroulas et al., 2010; Dokadia et al., 2015). Moreover, older individuals tend to place less value on development practices offered by their employers compared to their younger colleagues because this often entails technological change, which commonly poses challenges for older employees (Bal & L. Dorenbusch, 2015). Similarly, findings by Gutman et al. (2023) suggest that older employees often feel discouraged from taking advantage of home office opportunities and prefer traditional working conditions. Furthermore, older individuals often experience greater difficulty adapting to new procedures, which is evident in the increased amount of sick leave days following the implementation of new practices at the workplace, according to Bal & L. Dorenbusch (2015). Additionally, older employees question the reasonability of learning new practices due to their more constrained time left in their jobs (Martin et al., 2021).

The following model aims to summarize employees' preferences for Work-Life Balance practice throughout their professional careers according to the typical family-life stages, which concurrently reflect age-related differences among people in the workforce. The model reflects the findings derived from the selected literature sample as presented and discussed in the previous subchapters. The model further seeks to illustrate the typical motivations and constraints determining an individual's desire for Work-Life Balance practices at each family-life stage. As extensively elaborated previously, an individual's preferences for Work-Life Balance practices evolve over the course of a career. This model highlights both the evolution of their preferences and the distinction between employees of different age groups.

Model 2: Age-related Work-Life Balance Practices Preferences (Source: Created by Author)

Family Life Stages

Young Adult/no Kids

Young Parents/Young Kids

Parents/School Kids at Home

Empty Nest

Retirement

Entrance Labor Market

Retirement

Motivations & Constraints

- Career ambitions
- Desire for work Autonomy & Flexibility
- No Child Caregiving Responsibilities yet

- Highest Domestic Demand
- Dependent on Flexibility and Parental Leave
- Career Ambitions remain

- Career Aspirations slowly decline
- Domestic Demand slowly declines
- Importance of WLB increase

- Domestic Demand lowest
- Career Ambitions increasingly satisfied
- Desire for Social Status & Belonging

- Mental and Physical Abilities decline
- Work becomes increasingly draining
- Increasing Difficulties with Technology

WLB-Practice Preferences

- FWA/WLB
- Car. Dev. Opportunities appreciated
- Financial Compensation

- Parental Leave
- FWA
- Car. Dev. Opportunities valued
- Financial Compensation

- Financial Compensation
- Car. Dev. Opportunities are considered

- Desire for Fin. Comp. declines, shifts towards Power/Status & positive social Relationships

- FWA yet technological dependence poses problems

Work-Life Balance Importance

- WLB appreciated and better than in prev. Gen.

- WLB worst due to high professional & domestic demand

- WLB improves as dom. & prof. demand slowly decreases

- WLB highest, low dom. & prof. demand

- WLB decreases due to physical and mental decline with age

Gender:

Reviewing the literature sample also revealed differences in the preference for personal development initiatives and financial compensation between men and women. As men are often perceived as the primary breadwinners of a family and commonly identify themselves as such, they frequently value a high-paying job more than women (Tanquarel & Grau-Grau, 2020; Valet et al., 2021). According to Lambrianou et al. (2022), men even view a comfortable income as the single most important job attribute when assessing a new professional opportunity. Women, on the other hand, tend to evaluate their jobs more through subjective criteria, such as finding meaning in their daily work or the ability to combine work with their private life while maintaining a positive Work-Life Balance (Cho et al., 2017). Accordingly, a considerable portion of the research reviewed suggests that men place greater value on practices related to their professional progress and self-development compared to women (SH. Jeon & H. Hur, 2023; Ramirez et al., 2022; Lee Cooke & Xiao, 2014). Hilbrecht and Smale (2016) observe that, on average, men take significantly fewer vacation days than women. This may stem from men being more committed to their careers and from women needing additional

time to handle domestic work burdens they are disproportionately burdened with. Throughout their careers, Lee Cooke and Xiao (2014) argue that there are indeed differences in professional commitments between men and women. Specifically, they observed that women's ambitions often decline after marriage or the birth of their first child (Lee Cooke & Xiao, 2014). They often lower their professional expectations and shift their priorities more toward their families (Lee Cooke & Xiao, 2014).

6. Conclusion

This semi-systematic literature review presents the preferences for various job attributes across different demographic groups and focuses on age, family-life stages, and gender differences in a broad and interdisciplinary literature field. It further summarizes the literature on consistent barriers that prevent a gender-equal utilization of Work-Life Balance practices, which reinforces existing injustices among men and women. According to the literature, these outdated beliefs disproportionately disadvantage women in their professional careers and deter men from using family-friendly practices, and increase their domestic share of work.

Research suggest that women often value family-friendly practices such as FWA or parental leaves more than men. They often use these practices to better manage their disproportionate amount of domestic work with their professional obligations. Women's increased use of family-friendly practices is mainly caused by conservative gender role perceptions that expect women to be primarily responsible for childcare and household duties. These gender role ideologies also lead to women being inherently disadvantaged in the workforce as employers suppose them to use WLB practices sooner or later. Although women use family-friendly practices significantly more often than men, this research reports a similar desire for Work-Life Balance practices for men. However, men who want to use family-friendly practices fear upsetting their employers and face career penalties. Men are often expected to be the primary breadwinners of their families, which discourages them from increasing their participation in domestic work. Hence, deciding to utilize family-friendly practices leads to men facing significantly lower social acceptance for it. Individuals who utilize family-friendly practices often face negative career consequences, especially men, as they are expected to be more committed to their jobs, which is also a reason why WLB initiatives are often less accessible to men in the first place.

The study also found notable differences in WLB preferences among individuals of different age groups. Despite the stronger professional ambitions of younger employees, they

seem to value family-friendly practices highly. Work-life balance initiatives that enable increased flexibility and autonomy are especially appreciated among young employees, as they increasingly value their lives outside their working hours and refuse to live a work-centered life. This is a rather new observation and has not been the case in previous decades, where older generations represented the younger workforce. The research reveals that older employees also value WLB practices highly as they help cope with mental and physical decline and facilitate sustainable employment for an aging workforce. Further, the research has shown that the motivation to work and the preferences of “attraction and retention measures” offered by employers change throughout one’s career. Younger individuals are primarily motivated extrinsically and prioritize money or career progress, while older employees appreciate a positive Work-Life Balance and healthy social relationships.

According to the research sample, the preferences for family-friendly practices were found to vary according to people’s family-life stages. Parents are in greater need of flexibility in their work schedule as they face increased private demands compared to singles or couples without children. They also place significant value on parental leave policies to provide adequate care for their children’s healthy development while suspending professional demands when private demands are highest in order to preserve mental health. Research has indicated that employees experience the highest WLB when their children have moved out of their parents’ house.

6.1 Limitation

Conducting a literature review as a single author poses inherent limitations that can be minimized, yet not fully eliminated, by adhering to objective methodological procedures that ensure the credibility of the selected literature sample. The selection process of the research sample, performed by a single researcher, is indispensably subject to selection and researcher bias. Hence, another scholar might have chosen a different set of articles and would have analyzed the research sample differently due to minor divergences in the understanding and interpretation of the literature. To mitigate this risk, the author carefully documented each step diligently throughout the entire time of conducting this literature review to maintain a high standard of academic transparency. Additionally, guidelines from more objective literature review approaches, such as systematic and structured literature reviews, namely, Paul et al.’s (2021) recommended procedure for systematic literature reviews and Massaro et al.’s (2017)

guidelines for a structured literature review, were taken into account. Accordingly, the credibility of each article was indicated through diverse journal impact metrics of the respective publishing journals, as presented in Table 2 in the Appendix. It must be acknowledged that the final research sample includes articles published by mid-tier academic outlets. One contributing factor to this is the exclusive use of the Scopus database for identifying relevant literature. This practical constraint may have led to the inclusion of less prominent academic journals. Additionally, the interdisciplinary and holistic approach adopted by the author, which aims to include diverse perspectives in the literature and capture the interdisciplinary nature of the field, may be the predominant factor for the inclusion of journals of moderate academic standing. Given the extensive scope of the available literature on Work-Life Balance practices, not all influential research appears in traditionally top-ranked journals. As a result, although the wide thematic coverage of the literature field was intended to be reflected, it may have limited the academic rigor of the research sample, which may be addressed in future research by narrowing the scope to exclusively higher-impact journals within different disciplines. Furthermore, this research entails the usual limitations that authors who are working with secondary data face. The secondary data used in this research consists of different methodologies, which means that the findings of the papers may not be perfectly comparable due to different methodological approaches or the classification of demographic cohorts. However, the author has consciously included the methodological backgrounds of the papers in his analysis to address this limitation.

It is also very important to mention that in this literature review, multiple comparisons between employees of different age groups were conducted. However, the findings of these comparisons are not timelessly applicable because there is a difference between comparing individuals of different ages and comparing individuals from different generations, because every generation has been shaped by societal and political factors that distinguish them from other generations and have significantly shaped their socialization processes. Individuals from different generations, therefore, can have different and unique sets of morals and motivations to work, which should not be confused with the needs people of certain age groups or family-life stages long for and that are identically applicable among different generations. Furthermore, Work-Life Balance practices may also evolve over time, as they adapt to the evolving needs of an evolving workforce. Therefore, it can be argued that Work-Life Balance initiatives focused on in this research may be outdated eventually, making this research obsolete and in need of frequent updates. Additionally, one needs to mention that in this paper, when comparing

genders, only the binary sexes, males and females, were considered; any non-binary sex was not included. Also, only heterosexual family constellations or single individuals were regarded in this analysis.

6.2 Implication

This research summarizes the literature of its research sample and addresses imbalances between men and women in the labor market that substantially discriminate against women's chances for progress in their careers. To combat these inequalities, this research highlights different sources of these disadvantages. First, conservative gender role expectations must be addressed and catch up to contemporary and equality-promoting standards. Secondly, career penalties as a consequence of using family-friendly practices need to be tackled, and every employee must feel access and comfort using these practices. In some cases, like parental leave, stricter policies that force men to engage in childcare responsibilities are useful, as the Swedish example illustrates. Further, the financial disparities between men and women of similar employment call for action to reduce the financial pressure affecting women's careers disproportionately. As the workforce becomes increasingly diverse and employees are required to work to an increasingly older age before retiring, this research holds significant relevance in addressing the evolving needs of a demographically changing workforce. It should be in the interest of all employers to create accommodating working conditions for the diverse demographic needs of employees, fostering positive Work-Life Balance and well-being. This helps employees reach their highest level of productivity and stress resilience, which in turn contributes to enhancing organizational performance. Moreover, promoting WLB helps employers' ability to attract well-qualified personnel, which is especially important in the contemporary labor market conditions of skill shortages, and may create a competitive advantage in the market. Besides the positive effects on employee acquisition, it also helps employee retention and reduces employee turnover rates, which eventually reduces the costs of employee fluctuation. The scientific literature on Work-Life Balance and its impact on mental and physical health is of public interest. With this research, a groundwork for future, more demographically diverse research was built, which increases the quality and accuracy of further research success in a growing literature field.

6.3 Direction for Future Research

As already mentioned, the holistic approach of this semi-systematic literature review led to the inclusion of articles from journals of lower academic standing. While this broadens the scope of perspectives, it may constrain the academic rigor and be addressed in future research endeavors. The research also includes papers from different countries and industries. Future research could benefit from a more specific examination of cultural and national differences or employees from specific industries, especially since the attitudes towards work may vary across national borders. In an increasingly diverse world, the Work-Life Balance needs of individuals are likely to become increasingly more differentiated, hence, it requires constant updates on demographic-specific Work-Life Balance practice preferences to satisfy a varied workforce. Furthermore, individuals with non-heteronormative sexualities, non-binary gender identities, or unconventional family structures remain significantly underrepresented in the current literature and require more academic attention in the literature field. Finally, as noted previously in the subchapter about this paper's limitations, there is a difference between the characteristic distinctions of generations and the characteristic distinctions of specific age groups. Therefore, similar research could generate different findings in the future when the workforce consists of a new set of generations with different attitudes shaped by different societal and political events.

7. Appendix

Table 1: Author & Publication Dates

Title	Author	Year
Guilt, gender, and work-life balance: A choice experiment	Aoyagi & Munro	2024
Making hybrid work for diverse staff in higher education: A behaviour change approach	Gutman, L et al	2024
Association Between Flexible Work Arrangement and Sleep Problems Among Paid Workers: Using 6th Korean Working Conditions Survey	Han et al.	2024
Job happiness: influence of work flexibility through work-life balance and gender moderation	Martinez	2024
Gender inequality in work location, childcare and work-life balance: Phase-specific differences throughout the COVID-19 pandemic	Yerkes et al.	2024
Flexible work arrangements for work-life balance: a cross-national policy evaluation from a capabilities perspective	Brega et al.	2023
Talented women for senior positions across multi-regions: challenges, strategies, and future research agenda	Elkhwesky et al.	2023
Use of flexible work practices and employee outcomes: the role of work-life balance and employee age	Ferdous et al.	2023
Family Leave Policies and Employee Attitudinal Outcomes in Korea: The Moderating and Joint Moderating Effects of Gender and Marital Status	Jeon & Hur	2023
Work-life balance of academic parents: expectations and experiences of mothers and fathers	Kelling et al.	2023
Social contagion in employees' assessment of work-life practices: a framework of social contagion processes, assessment dimensions, and national context	Ollier-Malaterre	2023
Factors affecting the length of unpaid parental leave in Spain	Romero-Blasas	2023
Development of work-life/family policy and gendered division of childcare responsibility: the case of South Korea	Yoon & Park	2023
Motivation and well-being across the lifespan: A cross-sectional examination	Cornwell et al.	2023*
Gender differences in work-life balance of European neurosurgeons	Lambrianou	2022
Understanding undergraduates' work values as a tool to reduce organizational turnover	Ramirez	2022
Gendered labour market patterns across Europe: Does family policy mitigate feminization of outsiders?	Seo	2022
Women reclaiming Control: A Literature Analysis Paper	Assiri et al.	2021
Parental Equality in Turkey: Understanding Gender Roles through the Legal Treatment of Working and Divorced Mothers	Celebi	2021
Fathers' Perceptions of the Availability of Flexible Working Arrangements: Evidence from the UK	Cook	2021
The Influence of Total Compensation on Job Satisfaction	Gonzalez et al.	2021
The Glaring Gender Bias in the Operating Room: A Qualitative Study of Factors Influencing Career Selection for First-Year Medical Students	Kimia Sorouri et al	2021
Human resource practices, perceived employability and turnover intention: does age matter?	Martin et al.	2021
Promoting gender equality through regulation: the case of parental leave	Rocha	2021
Mitigating delayed academic promotion of female radiologists due to the COVID pandemic	Tso & Parikh	2021

Preferences for work arrangements: A discrete choice experiment	Valet et al.	2021*
Managing labour market re-entry following maternity leave among women in the Australian higher education sector	Gregory	2020
Caring for Balance? Legal Approaches to Those Who Struggle to Juggle Work and Adult Care	Hiessl	2020
Unmasking work-family balance barriers and strategies among working fathers in the workplace	Tanquerel & Grau-Grau	2020
Identifying Barriers and Facilitators of Success for Female Radiology Researchers: An Analysis of In-Depth Interviews With Nationally Recognized Leaders of the Field	Piltch-Loeb et al.	2020*
Time to care: socioeconomic, family, and workplace factors in men and women's parental leave use	Barcus et al.	2019
Time-sharing in parental leave: Why and how fathers assess their time to care home alone	Leitao	2019
Work-Life balance measures of working carers and well-being satisfaction within couple relationships: The result of an Italian Policy Looking through the Gender Lens	Macchioni & Prandini	2019
Making use of work-family balance entitlements: how to support fathers with combining employment and caregiving	Moran & Koslowski	2019
The importance of culture and support for workplace flexibility: An ecological framework for understanding flexibility support structures	Smith et al.	2019
Family-friendly policies, gender, and work life balance in the public sector	Feeney & Stritch	2019*
Flexible Working, Work-Life Balance, and Gender Equality: Introduction	Chung & von der Lippe	2018
Parental leave in Spain: Use, motivations and implications	Meil & Romero-Balsas	2018
Does Flexibility Help Employees Switch Off from Work? Flexible Working-Time Arrangements and Cognitive Work-to-Home Spillover for Women and Men in Germany	Lott	2018*
Exploring leave policy preferences: A comparison of Austria, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States	Valarino et al.	2018*
Who Gets to 'Work Hard, Play Hard'? Gendering the Work-Life Balance Rhetoric in Canadian Tech Companies	Hari	2017
How do you take time? Work-life balance policies versus neoliberal, social and cultural incentive mechanisms in Icelandic higher education	Smidt et al.	2017
Are High-Performance Work Systems always a valuable retention tool? The roles of workforce feminization and flexible work arrangements	Stirpe and Zarraga-Oberty	2017*
Employee satisfaction and use of flexible working arrangements.	Wheatley	2017*
How do South Korean female executives' definitions of career success differ from those of male executives?	Cho et al.	2016
Nurses aged over 50 and their perceptions of flexible working	Clendon & Walker	2016
The Impact of Family-Friendly Practices on Work-Family Balance in Spain	Goni-Legaz	2016
The contribution of paid vacation time to wellbeing among employed Canadians	Hilbrecht & Smale	2016
Work-life balance: Does age matter?	Richert-Kazmierska	2016
Work/life or work/work? Corporate legal practice in the twenty-first century	Thronton	2016
Sustainable employability for older workers: An explorative survey of belgian companies	Verbrugge et al.	2016
Engaging Millennials: Leadership of the Global Millennial Generation in the Workplace	Costello & Westerover	2016*

The impact of decoupling of telework on job satisfaction in US federal agencies: Does gender matter	Bae & Kim	2016*
Managing aging workers: a mixed methods study on bundles of HR practices for aging workers	Kooij et al.	2016*
Gender discrepancies in the outcomes of schedule control on overtime hours and income in Germany	Lott and Chung	2016*
The experience of work-life balance across family-life stages in Switzerland: a crosssectional questionnaire-based study	Wepfer et al	2015
Age-related differences in the relations between individualised HRM and organisational performance: a large-scale employer survey	Bal and Dorenbosch	2015*
Multigenerational Differences in Work Attributes & Motivation: An Empirical Study	Dokadia et al.	2015*
Gender roles and organizational HR practices: The case of women's careers in accountancy and consultancy firms in China	Lee Cooke & Xiao	2014
Shedding gender stigmas: Work-life balance equity in the 21st century	Southworth	2014
Family Gender Role and Guilt in Spanish Dual-Earner Families	Martinez	2014*
Improving knowledge, awareness, and use of flexible career policies through an accelerator intervention at the university of California, Davis, school of medicine	Villablanca et al	2013
An Existential Turn in Psychology - Meaning in Life Operationalized	Tatjana Schnell	2013
PwC's NextGen: A global generational study. Evolving talent strategy to match the new workforce reality	Finn and Donovan	2013*
Work-life balance: eastern and western perspectives	Chandra	2012*
Making sense of women's career progression: Utilization of work/life practices in state government agencies	D'agostino	2011
Well-balanced families?: A gendered analysis of work-life balance policies and work family practices	Burnett et al	2010
The Role of Work-Life Balance Practices in Order to Improve Organizational Performance	Lazar	2010
The Relationships of Age with Job Attitudes: A Meta-Analysis	Ng and Feldman	2010*
Generational Characteristics and Their Impact on Preference for Management Control Systems	Petroulas et al..	2010*
Publication dates indicated with "*" were added through the backwards snowballing method		

Table 2: Journals & Impact Factor

Title	Author	Journal	Impact factor
Are High-Performance Work Systems always a valuable retention tool? The roles of workforce feminization and flexible work arrangements	Stirpe & Zarraga-Oberty	European Management Journal	7.5
Gender roles and organizational HR practices: The case of women's careers in accountancy and consultancy firms in China	Lee Cooke & Xiao	Human Resource Management	6
The importance of culture and support for workplace flexibility: An ecological framework for understanding flexibility support structures	Smith et al.	Business Horizons	5.8
Shedding gender stigmas: Work-life balance equity in the 21st century	Southworth	Business Horizons	5.8
Age-related differences in the relations between individualised HRM and organisational performance: a large-scale employer survey	Bal and Dorenbosch	Human Resource Management Journal	5.4
Improving knowledge, awareness, and use of flexible career policies through an accelerator intervention at the university of California, Davis, school of medicine	Villablanca et al	Academic Medicine	5.3
Work-life balance: eastern and western perspectives	Chandra	International Journal of Human Resource Management	4.9
Managing aging workers: a mixed methods study on bundles of HR practices for aging workers	Kooij et al.	International Journal of Human Resource Management	4.9
The Relationships of Age with Job Attitudes: A Meta-Analysis	Ng and Feldman	Personnel Psychology	4.7
"Family-friendly policies, gender, and work life balance in the public sector	Feeney & Stritch	Review of Public Personnel Administration	4.2
Identifying Barriers and Facilitators of Success for Female Radiology Researchers: An Analysis of In-Depth Interviews With Nationally Recognized Leaders of the Field	Piltch-Loeb et al.	Journal of the American College of Radiology	4
Who Gets to 'Work Hard, Play Hard'? Gendering the Work-Life Balance Rhetoric in Canadian Tech Companies	Hari	Gender Work and Organization	3.9
Nurses aged over 50 and their perceptions of flexible working	Clendon & Walker	Journal of Nursing Management	3.7
The experience of work-life balance across family-life stages in Switzerland: a crosssectional questionnaire-based study	Wepfer et al	BMC Public Health	3.5
Association Between Flexible Work Arrangement and Sleep Problems Among Paid Workers: Using 6th Korean Working Conditions Survey	Han et al.	Safety and Health at Work	3.5
Motivation and well-being across the lifespan: A cross-sectional examination	Cornwell et al.	Journal of Positive Psychology	3.4
Unmasking work-family balance barriers and strategies among working fathers in the workplace	Tanquerel & Grau-Grau	Organization	3.3

Sustainable employability for older workers: An explorative survey of belgian companies	Verbrugge et al	Archives of Public Health	3.2
Understanding undergraduates' work values as a tool to reduce organizational turnover	Ramirez	Education and Training	3.2
"Generational Characteristics and Their Impact on Preference for Management Control Systems"	Petroulas et al.	Australian Accounting Review	3.1
Gender discrepancies in the outcomes of schedule control on overtime hours and income in Germany	Lott & Chung	European Sociological Review	3.1
Use of flexible work practices and employee outcomes: the role of work-life balance and employee age	Ferdous et al.	Journal of Management & Organization	3.1
Family Gender Role and Guilt in Spanish Dual-Earner Families	Martinez	Sex Roles	3
Gender inequality in work location, childcare and work-life balance: Phase-specific differences throughout the COVID-19 pandemic	Yerkes et al.	PLoS ONE	2.9
Preferences for work arrangements: A discrete choice experiment	Valet et al	PLoS ONE	2.9
The Impact of Family-Friendly Practices on Work-Family Balance in Spain	Goni-Legaz	Applied Research in Quality of Life	2.8
Making hybrid work for diverse staff in higher education: A behaviour change approach	Gutman et al	Higher Education Quarterly	2.8
Guilt, gender, and work-life balance: A choice experiment	Aoyagi & Munro	Journal of Choice Modelling	2.8
Flexible Working, Work-Life Balance, and Gender Equality: Introduction	Chung & von der Lippe	Social Indicators Research	2.8
Does Flexibility Help Employees Switch Off from Work? Flexible Working-Time Arrangements and Cognitive Work-to-Home Spillover for Women and Men in Germany	Lott	Social Indicators Research	2.8
Gendered labour market patterns across Europe: Does family policy mitigate feminization of outsiders?	Seo	Journal of European Social Policy	2.7
Fathers' Perceptions of the Availability of Flexible Working Arrangements: Evidence from the UK	Cook	Work, Employment and Society	2.7
Employee satisfaction and use of flexible working arrangements.	Wheatley	Work, Employment and Society	2.7
The Glaring Gender Bias in the Operating Room: A Qualitative Study of Factors Influencing Career Selection for First-Year Medical Students	Kimia Sorouri et al	Journal of Surgical Education	2.6
The impact of decoupling of telework on job satisfaction in US federal agencies: Does gender matter	Bae & Kim	American Review of Public Administration	2.5
Job happiness: influence of work flexibility through work-life balance and gender moderation	Martinez	Journal of Management Development	2.5
Engaging Millennials: Leadership of the Global Millennial Generation in the Workplace	Costello & Westerover	Management Education	2.5
How do you take time? Work-life balance policies versus neoliberal, social and cultural	Smidt et al.	European Educational Research Journal	2.4

incentive mechanisms in Icelandic higher education			
How do South Korean female executives' definitions of career success differ from those of male executives?	Cho et al	European Journal of Training and Development	2.3
Well-balanced families?: A gendered analysis of work-life balance policies and work family practices	Burnett et al	Gender in Management: An International Journal	2.3
Gender differences in work-life balance of European neurosurgeons	Lambrianou	Brain and Spine	1.9
Time to care: socioeconomic, family, and workplace factors in men and women's parental leave use	Barcus et al.	Community, Work and Family	1.9
Making use of work-family balance entitlements: how to support fathers with combining employment and caregiving	Moran & Koslowski	Community, Work and Family	1.9
Work-life balance of academic parents: expectations and experiences of mothers and fathers	Kelling et al.	Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education	1.9
Human resource practices, perceived employability and turnover intention: does age matter?	Martin et al.	Applied Economics	1.8
Mitigating delayed academic promotion of female radiologists due to the COVID pandemic	Tso & Parikh	Clinical Imaging	1.8
Exploring leave policy preferences: A comparison of Austria, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States	Valarino et al.	Social Politics	1.7
Work-Life balance measures of working carers and well-being satisfaction within couple relationships: The result of an Italian Policy Looking through the Gender Lens	Macchioni & Prandini	Social Sciences ISSN: 2076-0760	1.7
Work-life balance: Does age matter?	Richert-Kazmierska	Work	1.7
Promoting gender equality through regulation: the case of parental leave	Rocha	Theory and Practice of Legislation	1.5
Factors affecting the length of unpaid parental leave in Spain	Romero-Blasas	Journal of Family Studies	1.4
Managing labour market re-entry following maternity leave among women in the Australian higher education sector	Gregory	Journal of Sociology	1.4
Development of work-life/family policy and gendered division of childcare responsibility: the case of South Korea	Yoon & Park	International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy	1.2
Flexible work arrangements for work-life balance: a cross-national policy evaluation from a capabilities perspective	Brega et al.	International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy	1.2
Parental Equality in Turkey: Understanding Gender Roles through the Legal Treatment of Working and Divorced Mothers	Celebi	International Journal of Law, Policy and the Family	0.9
Caring for Balance? Legal Approaches to Those Who Struggle to Juggle Work and Adult Care	HieSSL	International Journal of comparative Labour Law and Industrial Relations	0.8

Work/life or work/work? Corporate legal practice in the twenty-first century	Thronton	International Journal of the Legal Profession	0.7
Parental leave in Spain: Use, motivations and implications	Meil & Romero-Balsas	Revista Espanola de Sociologia	0.7
Family Leave Policies and Employee Attitudinal Outcomes in Korea: The Moderating and Joint Moderating Effects of Gender and Marital Status	Jeon & Hur	Korea Observer	0.3
The Influence of Total Compensation on Job Satisfaction	Gonzalez et al.	Universitas Psychologica	0.3
Social contagion in employees' assessment of work-life practices: a framework of social contagion processes, assessment dimensions, and national context	Ollier-Malaterre	COMMUNITY, WORK & FAMILY	CS 5.1
The Role of Work-Life Balance Practices in Order to Improve Organizational Performance	Lazar	European Research Studies	CS 2.6
The contribution of paid vacation time to wellbeing among employed Canadians	Hilbrecht & Smale	Leisure/ Loisir	CS 2.0
Talented women for senior positions across multi-regions: challenges, strategies, and future research agenda	Elkhwesky et al.	Management Review Quarterly	CS 12.9
Women reclaiming Control: A Literature Analysis Paper	Assiri et al	Journal of Management Information and Decision Sciences	CS 1.2
Time-sharing in parental leave: Why and how fathers assess their time to care home alone	Leitao	Portuguese Journal of Social Science	SJR 0.122
Making sense of women's career progression: Utilization of work/life practices in state government agencies	D'agostino	Public Administration and Management	SJR 0.107
Multigenerational Differences in Work Attributes & Motivation: An Empirical Study	Dokadia et al.	Indian Journal of Industrial Relations	peer reviewed acc. to JSTOR
PwC's NextGen: A global generational study. Evolving talent strategy to match the new workforce reality	Finn & Donovan	PWC	Peer reviewed acc. to AICPA
An Existential Turn in Psychology - Meaning in Life Operationalized	Schnell	Disseration	-

Table 3: Methodology & Variables

Title	Author	Methodology	Variables
Social contagion in employees' assessment of work-life practices: a framework of social contagion processes, assessment dimensions, and national context	Ollier-Malaterre	Conceptual research	How employees evaluate HRP, what influences their perception
Talented women for senior positions across multi-regions: challenges, strategies, and future research agenda	Elkhwesky et al.	Literature review	Barriers/challenges for women to achieve leadership position
Mitigating delayed academic promotion of female radiologists due to the COVID pandemic	Tso & Parikh	Literature review	How pandemic exacerbated pre-existing gender disparities
Women reclaiming Control: A Literature Analysis Paper	Assiri et al	Literature review	Strategies for better WLB among women
Shedding gender stigmas: Work-life balance equity in the 21st century	Southworth	Literature review	Explore gender biases attached to WLB practices
Work-life balance: eastern and western perspectives	Chandra	Literature review	How WLB is perceived/implemented in eastern / western societies
The Role of Work-Life Balance Practices in Order to Improve Organizational Performance	Lazar	Literature review	WLB-P on organizational performance (mediated by ind. performance)
Understanding undergraduates' work values as a tool to reduce organizational turnover	Ramirez	Mixed Method: 30 semi-structured interviews, 293 survey	Explore undergrad's work values and turnover intention
Work/life or work/work? Corporate legal practice in the twenty-first century	Thronton	Mixed Method: 424 surveys and 54 interviews	WLB for lawyers of different sex
PwC's NextGen: A global generational study. Evolving talent strategy to match the new workforce reality	Finn & Donovan	Mixed Method: 44,000 surveys & 300 interviews	Generational work attitude comparison between Millenials and old. Gen.
An Existential Turn in Psychology - Meaning in Life Operationalized	Schnell	Mixed method: 74 interviews, 231 survey respondents	Age on perceived meaning in life/work
Managing aging workers: a mixed methods study on bundles of HR practices for aging workers	Kooij et al.	Mixed Method: case study, 944 surveys	Preferences in WLB-P for aging employees
Flexible Working, Work-Life Balance, and Gender Equality: Introduction	Chung & von der Lippe	Mixed method: secondary data surveys & policy analysis	FWA on gender's WLB, employee well-being, labor market participation
Work-life balance of academic parents: expectations and experiences of mothers and fathers	Kelling et al.	Qualitative thematic analysis, focus groups	WLB expectation/experience's influence on ind. productivity & org. commitment
Managing labour market re-entry following maternity leave among	Gregory	Qualitative: 15 longitudinal	Gender's labor market re-entry after parental leave

women in the Australian higher education sector		interviews (3 each)	
Time-sharing in parental leave: Why and how fathers assess their time to care home alone	Leitao	Qualitative: 24 semi-structured interviews	Income of parents on paternity leave duration
Unmasking work-family balance barriers and strategies among working fathers in the workplace	Tanquerel & Grau-Grau	Qualitative: 29 interviews	Barriers and strategies for WLB across gender
"Generational Characteristics and Their Impact on Preference for Management Control Systems"	Petroulas et al.	Qualitative: 30 interviews	Generational preferences for employee management
How do South Korean female executives' definitions of career success differ from those of male executives?	Cho et al.	Qualitative: 30 semi-structured interviews	Dif. career motivations across gender
How do you take time? Work-life balance policies versus neoliberal, social and cultural incentive mechanisms in Icelandic higher education	Smidt et al.	Qualitative: 32 semi-structured interviews	Neoliberalism on WLB-P preference & Utilization across gender
Making hybrid work for diverse staff in higher education: A behaviour change approach	Gutman et al.	Qualitative: 36 open-ended Questionnaire & 20 Interview	Barriers and enablers for remote work
Gender roles and organizational HR practices: The case of women's careers in accountancy and consultancy firms in China	Lee Cooke & Xiao	Qualitative: 69 semi-structured interviews	How gender roles/WLB-P shape women's chances for prof. success
Flexible work arrangements for work-life balance: a cross-national policy evaluation from a capabilities perspective	Brega et al.	Qualitative: Capability approach	Accessability & Availability of FWA
Promoting gender equality through regulation: the case of parental leave	Rocha	Qualitative: comparative legal analysis	Legal framework's influence on gendered division of childcare
Caring for Balance? Legal Approaches to Those Who Struggle to Juggle Work and Adult Care	Hiesl	Qualitative: comparative legal analysis	Dif. WLB legal frameworks influence distrib. of careg. resp. & labor mrkt partic.
Well-balanced families?: A gendered analysis of work-life balance policies and work family practices	Burnett et al.	Qualitative: conceptual study	Effectiveness WLB-P on gender and gendered division of family responsibilities
Engaging Millennials: Leadership of the Global Millennial Generation in the Workplace	Costello & Westover	Qualitative: content analysis	Millennials job attribute preferences
The importance of culture and support for workplace flexibility: An ecological framework for understanding flexibility support structures	Smith et al.	Qualitative: ecological framework	Factors that influence/encourage utilization of FWA
Making use of work-family balance entitlements: how to support fathers with combining employment and caregiving	Moran & Koslowski	Qualitative: focus group	Financial stability's influence on WLB-P utilization

Nurses aged over 50 and their perceptions of flexible working	Clendon & Walker	Qualitative: focus group, exploratory design	Nurses (aged 50+) FWA needs
The Glaring Gender Bias in the Operating Room: A Qualitative Study of Factors Influencing Career Selection for First-Year Medical Students	Kimia Sorouri et al.	Qualitative: focus groups, longitudinal interviews (2week)	Different career aspiration, family plans and WLB across gender
Parental Equality in Turkey: Understanding Gender Roles through the Legal Treatment of Working and Divorced Mothers	Celebi	Qualitative: legal framework analysis	How legal frameworks influence gendered division of domestic work
Who Gets to 'Work Hard, Play Hard'? Gendering the Work–Life Balance Rhetoric in Canadian Tech Companies	Hari	Qualitative: semi-structured interviews	How framing of WLB-P influence use and domestic imbalances of gender
Identifying Barriers and Facilitators of Success for Female Radiology Researchers: An Analysis of In-Depth Interviews With Nationally Recognized Leaders of the Field	Piltch-Loeb et al.	Qualitative: semi-structured interviews	Barriers and Facilitators for females' prof. success
Motivation and well-being across the lifespan: A cross-sectional examination	Cornwell et al.	Quantitative: 249 cross-sectional study surveys	Ind: Age; Dep: Employees' work motivation
The Relationships of Age with Job Attitudes: A Meta-Analysis	Ng & Feldman	Quantitative: Meta-analysis of 802 empirical articles	Ind: Age; Dep: Job attribute preferences
Human resource practices, perceived employability and turnover intention: does age matter?	Martin et al.	Quantitative: 16,896 surveys, secondary data	Ind: Age; Dep: Turnover int./perc. employability, mod. by satisf. with WLB-P
Work-life balance: Does age matter?	Richert-Kazmierska	Quantitative: 500 survey	Ind: Age; Dep: Utilization of WLB-P & preference of WLB-P
Multigenerational Differences in Work Attributes & Motivation: An Empirical Study	Dokadia et al.	Quantitative: 653 surveys	Ind: Age/generational cohort belonging; Dep: work motivations
Improving knowledge, awareness, and use of flexible career policies through an accelerator intervention at the university of California, Davis, school of medicine	Villablanca et al.	Quantitative: longitudinal surveys	Ind: Awareness for FWA; Dep: Gendered use of FWA & perc. barriers for FWA
Making sense of women's career progression: Utilization of work/life practices in state government agencies	D'agostino	Quantitative: 779 surveys	Ind: Degree of WLB-P use; Dep: Chances career progress/prof. penalties
Factors affecting the length of unpaid parental leave in Spain	Romero-Blasas	Quantitative: 4,000 surveys, secondary data	Ind: Fam. constellation, social backgr., work cult.; Dep: Length of par.leave

Time to care: socioeconomic, family, and workplace factors in men and women's parental leave use	Barcus et al.	Quantitative: 305 respondents	Ind: Fam. constellation, socioeconomic background; Dep: Par. leave duration
"Family-friendly policies, gender, and work life balance in the public sector	Feeney & Stritch	Quantitative: 268 respondents	Ind: FF-P & Org. culture; Dep: Gendered WLB utilization
Gender discrepancies in the outcomes of schedule control on overtime hours and income in Germany	Lott & Chung	Quantitative: longitudinal survey, secondary data	Ind: FWA availability; Dep: Overtime hours and income
Does Flexibility Help Employees Switch Off from Work? Flexible Working-Time Arrangements and Cognitive Work-to-Home Spillover for Women and Men in Germany	Lott	Quantitative: 8,960 respondents, secondary data	Ind: FWA; Dep: Cognitive work-to-home spillover
Employee satisfaction and use of flexible working arrangements.	Wheatley	Quantitative: 268 longitudinal surveys	Ind: FWA; Dep: Employee satisfaction
Job happiness: influence of work flexibility through work-life balance and gender moderation	Martinez	Quantitative: 200 Survey	Ind: FWA; Dep: Employee satisfaction & WLB
Family Leave Policies and Employee Attitudinal Outcomes in Korea: The Moderating and Joint Moderating Effects of Gender and Marital Status	Jeon & Hur	Quantitative: 4,409 surveys	Ind: FWA; Dep: Employee well-being/turnover intention (med. by WLB)
Association Between Flexible Work Arrangement and Sleep Problems Among Paid Workers: Using 6th Korean Working Conditions Survey	Han et al.	Quantitative: 31,489 respondents, secondary data	Ind: FWA; Dep: Sleep quality
Use of flexible work practices and employee outcomes: the role of work-life balance and employee age	Ferdous et al.	Quantitative: 293 surveys	Ind: FWA; Dep: WLB & employee satisfaction/turnover intention
Fathers' Perceptions of the Availability of Flexible Working Arrangements: Evidence from the UK	Cook	Quantitative: longitudinal survey 2015 UK households	Ind: Gender; Dep: Perceived FWA availability
Gender inequality in work location, childcare and work-life balance: Phase-specific differences throughout the COVID-19 pandemic	Yerkes et al.	Quantitative: descriptive method, longitudinal and cross-sectional design	Ind: Gender; Dep: Childcare responsibilities & WLB
The Impact of Family-Friendly Practices on Work-Family Balance in Spain	Goni-Legaz	Quantitative: 8,062 surveys	Ind: Gender; Dep: Effectiveness of WLB practices
Preferences for work arrangements: A discrete choice experiment	Valet et al.	Quantitative: discrete choice experiment	Ind: Gender; Dep: Employees' job attribute preference

		(5,337 respondents from 2 C)	
Family Gender Role and Guilt in Spanish Dual-Earner Families	Martinez	Quantitative: 251 respondents	Ind: Gender; Dep: Feeling of guilt (mediated by perceived gender role ideol.)
Guilt, gender, and work-life balance: A choice experiment	Aoyagi & Munro	Quantitative: discrete choice-experiment (1046 respondents)	Ind: Gender; Dep: Job characteristics pref. & influenced by perc. fam. guilt
Gender differences in work-life balance of European neurosurgeons	Lambrianou	Quantitative: 205 respondents	Ind: Gender; Dep: WLB, distribution of household & childcare resp.
The experience of work-life balance across family-life stages in Switzerland: a crosssectional questionnaire-based study	Wepfer et al	Quantitative: 3,664 crosssectional surveys	Ind: Gender/Family-life stage/Employment level; Dep: WLB
Parental leave in Spain: Use, motivations and implications	Meil & Romero-Balsas	Quantitative: 4,000 surveys, secondary data	Ind: Legal framework; Dep: Parental leave taking (length & gendered division)
Sustainable employability for older workers: An explorative survey of belgian companies	Verbrugge et al.	Quantitative: 790 respondents	Ind: Org's size/awareness/sust. empl. policy; Dep: Retention of old. employee
The contribution of paid vacation time to wellbeing among employed Canadians	Hilbrecht & Smale	Quantitative: 3451 surveys	Ind: Paid vacation days; Dep: WLB/life satisfaction
The impact of decoupling of telework on job satisfaction in US federal agencies: Does gender matter	Bae & Kim	Quantitative: 219,450 respondents, secondary data	Ind: Remote work & gender; Dep: Job satisfaction
Exploring leave policy preferences: A comparison of Austria, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States	Valarino et al.	Quantitative: 4,108 respondents from 3 countries	Ind: Sociocultural & legal frameowrk, Dep: Parental leave duration
Development of work-life/family policy and gendered division of childcare responsibility: the case of South Korea	Yoon & N. Park	Quantitative: longitudinal surveys; 1,071 (2009); 1,174 (2019)	Ind: Use WLB-P; Dep: Gendered division of childcare
Are High-Performance Work Systems always a valuable retention tool? The roles of workforce feminization and flexible work arrangements	Stirpe & Zarraga-Oberty	Quantitative: 537 surveys, secondary data	Ind: WLB-P (esp. FWA); Dep: Employee retention
Work-Life balance measures of working carers and well-being satisfaction within couple relationships: The result of an Italian Policy Looking through the Gender Lens	Macchioni & Prandini	Quantitative: 846 surveys	Ind: WLB-P; Dep: Couple well-being

Age-related differences in the relations between individualised HRM and organisational performance: a large-scale employer survey	Bal & Dorenbosch	Quantitative: 4591 surveys	Ind: WLB-P; Dep: Organizational performance
Gendered labour market patterns across Europe: Does family policy mitigate feminization of outsiders?	Seo	Quantitative: using secondary data Surveys	Ind: WLB-P; Dep: Women re-entry in workforce
The Influence of Total Compensation on Job Satisfaction	Gonzalez et al.	Quantitative: 246 surveys	Ind: WLB-P/Salary/Career develop, Dep: WLB of employees different age

Table 4: Age/Gender & Job Attribute Focus

Title	Author	HR-Practice	Age/Gender
Managing aging workers: a mixed methods study on bundles of HR practices for aging workers	Kooij et al.	Car.Dev./WLB	AGE
Human resource practices, perceived employability and turnover intention: does age matter?	Martin et al.	Car.Dev./FWA.	AGE
The Influence of Total Compensation on Job Satisfaction	Gonzalez et al.	Fin. Comp./WLB	AGE
“Generational Characteristics and Their Impact on Preference for Management Control Systems”	Petroulas et al.	Fin.Comp./FWA	AGE
Making hybrid work for diverse staff in higher education: A behaviour change approach	Gutman et al.	FWA	AGE
Nurses aged over 50 and their perceptions of flexible working	Clendon & Walker	FWA	AGE
Gender differences in work-life balance of European neurosurgeons	Lambrianou	FWA	AGE
The impact of decoupling of telework on job satisfaction in US federal agencies: Does gender matter	Bae & Kim	FWA	AGE
Employee satisfaction and use of flexible working arrangements.	Wheatley	FWA	AGE
Gender inequality in work location, childcare and work-life balance: Phase-specific differences throughout the COVID-19 pandemic	Yerkes et al.	FWA	AGE
Guilt, gender, and work-life balance: A choice experiment	Aoyagi & Munro	FWA	AGE
Exploring leave policy preferences: A comparison of Austria, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States	Valarino et al.	PL	AGE
Gendered labour market patterns across Europe: Does family policy mitigate feminization of outsiders?	Seo	PL	AGE
The Impact of Family-Friendly Practices on Work–Family Balance in Spain	Goni-Legaz	PL/FWA	AGE
The Role of Work-Life Balance Practices in Order to Improve Organizational Performance	Lazar	WLB	AGE
An Existential Turn in Psychology - Meaning in Life Operationalized	Schnell	WLB	AGE
Work-Life balance measures of working carers and well-being satisfaction within couple relationships: The result of an Italian Policy Looking through the Gender Lens	Macchioni & Prandini	WLB	AGE
Development of work-life/family policy and gendered division of childcare responsibility: the case of South Korea	Yoon & Park	WLB	AGE
Job happiness: influence of work flexibility through work-life balance and gender moderation	Martinez	WLB/FWA	AGE
PwC’s NextGen: A global generational study. Evolving talent strategy to match the new workforce reality	Finn & Donovan	WLB/FWA	AGE
Engaging Millennials: Leadership of the Global Millennial Generation in the Workplace	Costello & Westerover	WLB/FWA	AGE

Understanding undergraduates' work values as a tool to reduce organizational turnover	Ramirez	Car.Dev.	GENDER
Age-related differences in the relations between individualised HRM and organisational performance: a large-scale employer survey	Bal & Dorenbosch	Car.Dev./Finc.Comp./FWA	GENDER
Gender roles and organizational HR practices: The case of women's careers in accountancy and consultancy firms in China	Lee Cooke & Xiao	Car.Dev./FWA	GENDER
Motivation and well-being across the lifespan: A cross-sectional examination	Cornwell et al.	Car.Dev./WLB	GENDER
How do South Korean female executives' definitions of career success differ from those of male executives?	Cho et al.	Fin.Comp./WLB	GENDER
Parental Equality in Turkey: Understanding Gender Roles through the Legal Treatment of Working and Divorced Mothers	Celebi	Fin.Comp./FWA	GENDER
Are High-Performance Work Systems always a valuable retention tool? The roles of workforce feminization and flexible work arrangements	Stirpe & Zarraga-Oberty	Fin.Comp./FWA	GENDER
Multigenerational Differences in Work Attributes & Motivation: An Empirical Study	Dokadia et al.	Fin.Comp./FWA	GENDER
Preferences for work arrangements: A discrete choice experiment	Valet et al.	Fin.Comp./FWA	GENDER
The Relationships of Age with Job Attitudes: A Meta-Analysis	Ng & Feldman	Fin.Comp./WLB	GENDER
Talented women for senior positions across multi-regions: challenges, strategies, and future research agenda	Elkhwesky et al.	FWA	GENDER
Mitigating delayed academic promotion of female radiologists due to the COVID pandemic	Tso & Parikh	FWA	GENDER
WOMEN RECLAIMING CONTROL: A LITERATURE ANALYSIS PAPER	Assiri et al.	FWA	GENDER
Work/life or work/work? Corporate legal practice in the twenty-first century	Thronton	FWA	GENDER
Flexible Working, Work–Life Balance, and Gender Equality: Introduction	Chung & von der Lippe	FWA	GENDER
Work-life balance of academic parents: expectations and experiences of mothers and fathers	Kelling et al.	FWA	GENDER
Managing labour market re-entry following maternity leave among women in the Australian higher education sector	Gregory	FWA	GENDER
Unmasking work-family balance barriers and strategies among working fathers in the workplace	Tanquerel & Grau-Grau	FWA	GENDER
How do you take time? Work–life balance policies versus neoliberal, social and cultural incentive mechanisms in Icelandic higher education	Smidt et al.	FWA	GENDER
Flexible work arrangements for work-life balance: a cross-national policy evaluation from a capabilities perspective	Brega et al.	FWA	GENDER
Caring for Balance? Legal Approaches to Those Who Struggle to Juggle Work and Adult Care	Hiesl	FWA	GENDER
Well-balanced families?: A gendered analysis of work-life balance policies and work family practices	Burnett et al.	FWA	GENDER

The importance of culture and support for workplace flexibility: An ecological framework for understanding flexibility support structures	Smith et al.	FWA	GENDER
Who Gets to 'Work Hard, Play Hard'? Gendering the Work-Life Balance Rhetoric in Canadian Tech Companies	Hari	FWA	GENDER
"Family-friendly policies, gender, and work life balance in the public sector	Feeney & Stritch	FWA	GENDER
Use of flexible work practices and employee outcomes: the role of work-life balance and employee age	Ferdous et al.	FWA	GENDER
Association Between Flexible Work Arrangement and Sleep Problems Among Paid Workers: Using 6th Korean Working Conditions Survey	Han et al.	FWA	GENDER
Does Flexibility Help Employees Switch Off from Work? Flexible Working-Time Arrangements and Cognitive Work-to-Home Spillover for Women and Men in Germany	Lott	FWA	GENDER
Fathers' Perceptions of the Availability of Flexible Working Arrangements: Evidence from the UK	Cook	FWA	GENDER
Improving knowledge, awareness, and use of flexible career policies through an accelerator intervention at the university of California, Davis, school of medicine	Villablanca et al.	FWA	GENDER
Identifying Barriers and Facilitators of Success for Female Radiology Researchers: An Analysis of In-Depth Interviews With Nationally Recognized Leaders of the Field	Piltch-Loeb et al.	FWA	GENDER
Time-sharing in parental leave: Why and how fathers assess their time to care home alone	Leitao	PL	GENDER
Promoting gender equality through regulation: the case of parental leave	Rocha	PL	GENDER
Time to care: socioeconomic, family, and workplace factors in men and women's parental leave use	Barcus et al.	PL	GENDER
Factors affecting the length of unpaid parental leave in Spain	Romero-Blasas	PL	GENDER
Parental leave in Spain: Use, motivations and implications	Meil & Romero-Balsas	PL	GENDER
Family Leave Policies and Employee Attitudinal Outcomes in Korea: The Moderating and Joint Moderating Effects of Gender and Marital Status	Jeon & Hur	PL	GENDER
The Glaring Gender Bias in the Operating Room: A Qualitative Study of Factors Influencing Career Selection for First-Year Medical Students	Kimia Sorouri et al.	PL/WLB	GENDER
Shedding gender stigmas: Work-life balance equity in the 21st century	Southworth	WLB	GENDER
Work-life balance: eastern and western perspectives	Chandra	WLB	GENDER
Social contagion in employees' assessment of work-life practices: a framework of social contagion processes, assessment dimensions, and national context	Ollier-Malaterre	WLB	GENDER

Making use of work–family balance entitlements: how to support fathers with combining employment and caregiving	Moran & Koslowski	WLB	GENDER
Family Gender Role and Guilt in Spanish Dual-Earner Families	Martinez	WLB	GENDER
The experience of work-life balance across family-life stages in Switzerland: a crosssectional questionnaire-based study	Wepfer et al.	WLB	GENDER
The contribution of paid vacation time to wellbeing among employed Canadians	Hilbrecht & Smale	WLB	GENDER
Work-life balance: Does age matter?	Richert-Kazmierska	WLB	GENDER
Gender discrepancies in the outcomes of schedule control on overtime hours and income in Germany	Lott & Chung	WLB/FWA	GENDER
Making sense of women's career progression: Utilization of work/life practices in state government agencies	D'agostino	WLB/FWA	GENDER
Sustainable employability for older workers: An explorative survey of belgian companies	Verbrugge et al.	WLB/FWA	GENDER

Table 5: Final Summary Table Part 1:

	Title	Author	Date publ.	Journal	Impact factor	Theoretical Background	WLB-P	Geographic Focus	Sample
1	Making hybrid work for diverse staff in higher education: A behaviour change approach	Gutman et al.	2024	Higher Education Quarterly	2.8	Educational studies	FWA	UK	36 questionnaire, 20 interviews
2	Gender inequality in work location, childcare and work-life balance: Phase-specific differences throughout the COVID-19 pandemic	Yerkes et al.	2024	PLoS ONE	2.9	Sociology	FWA	Netherlands	645 to 819 respondents
3	Job happiness: influence of work flexibility through work-life balance and gender moderation	Martinez	2024	Journal of Management Development	2.5	HRM	FWA/WLB	Mexico	questionnaire applied to 200 employees from SME in Mexico, 5-Point Likert-Scale
4	Guilt, gender, and work-life balance: A choice experiment	Aoyagi & A. Munro	2024	Journal of Choice Modelling	2.8	HRM	FWA	Japan	choice experiment
5	Association Between Flexible Work Arrangement and Sleep Problems Among Paid Workers: Using 6th Korean Working Conditions Survey	Han et al.	2024	Safety and Health at Work	3.5	Public Health	FWA	Korea	use of secondary data in korea, 31,489 paid workers

6	Social contagion in employees' assessment of work-life practices: a framework of social contagion processes, assessment dimensions, and national context	Ollier-Malaterre	2023	COMMUNITY, WORK & FAMILY	CS 5.1	HRM, Organizational Behavior	WLB	USA/India	establishes new concepts (social contagion)
7	Development of work-life/family policy and gendered division of childcare responsibility: the case of South Korea	Yoon & Park	2023	International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy	1.2	Sociology	WLB	South Korea	secondary data, employed couples under 60,
8	Use of flexible work practices and employee outcomes: the role of work-life balance and employee age	Ferdous et al.	2023	Journal of Management & Organization	3.1	HRM	FWA	Australia	293 surveys on Australian employees for FPO's, age 36-55

9	Family Leave Policies and Employee Attitudinal Outcomes in Korea: The Moderating and Joint Moderating Effects of Gender and Marital Status	Jeon & Hur	2023	Korea Observer	0.3	HRM	PL	Korea	4409 employees under age of 60, survey
10	Talented women for senior positions across multi-regions: challenges, strategies, and future research agenda	Elkhwesky et al.	2023	Management Review Quarterly	CS 12.9	HRM, Organizational Behavior	FWA	-	65 paper
11	Flexible work arrangements for work-life balance: a cross-national policy evaluation from a capabilities perspective	Brega et al.	2023	International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy	1.2	Social Policy, Sociology	FWA	Netherlands Spain Slovenia	comparative policy analysis
12	Work-life balance of academic parents: expectations and experiences of mothers and fathers	Kelling et al.	2023	Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education	1.9	Educational studies	FWA	USA	our groups included early-career mothers (n = 5), early-career fathers (n = 4), mid-career mothers (n = 4), and mid-career fathers (n = 7).
13	Factors affecting the length of unpaid parental leave in Spain	Romero-Blasas	2023	Journal of Family Studies	1.4	Sociology	PL	Spain	secondary data; 4000 parents

14	Motivation and well-being across the lifespan: A cross-sectional examination	Cornwell et al.	2023*	Journal of Positive Psychology	3.4	Organizational Behavior	car.dev. / WLB	US	the cross-sectional survey, 290 respondents in two studies
15	Gendered labour market patterns across Europe: Does family policy mitigate feminization of outsiders?	Seo	2022	Journal of European Social Policy	2.7	Sociology, Social Policy	PL	30 european countries	Data from European working conditions survey 2015
16	Understanding undergraduates' work values as a tool to reduce organizational turnover	Ramirez	2022	Education and Training	3.2	HRM, Organizational Behavior	car.dev.	Spain	mixed method, 30 semi-structured interview HR from big hotel brands and 293 quantitative surveys employees tourist sector (in the hospital)
17	Gender differences in work-life balance of European neurosurgeons	Lambrianou	2022	Brain and Spine	1.9	Sociology	FWA	Europe	survey across several EU countries neurosurgeons, 205 eligible responses
18	Fathers' Perceptions of the Availability of Flexible Working Arrangements: Evidence from the UK	Cook	2021	Work, Employment and Society	2.7	Sociology, HRM	FWA	UK	logistic regression models

19	The Glaring Gender Bias in the Operating Room: A Qualitative Study of Factors Influencing Career Selection for First-Year Medical Students	Kimia Sorouri et al.	2021	Journal of Surgical Education	2.6	Medical Education, Sociology	WLB /PL	Canada	qualitative study, two focus groups, longitudinal interview (2weeks)
20	Mitigating delayed academic promotion of female radiologists due to the COVID pandemic	Tso & Parikh	2021	Clinical Imaging	1.8	Gender Studies, Health policy	FWA	US	
21	WOMEN RECLAIMING CONTROL: A LITERATURE ANALYSIS PAPER	Assiri et al	2021	Journal of Management Information and Decision Sciences	CS 1.2	Gender studies, Sociology	FWA	Kuwait, GCC	
22	The Influence of Total Compensation on Job Satisfaction	Gonzalez et al.	2021	Universitas Psychologica	0.3	HRM, Organizational Behavior	fin. comp. / WLB	Spain	sample of 246 employees from SME, Likert scale
23	Parental Equality in Turkey: Understanding Gender Roles through the Legal Treatment of Working and Divorced Mothers	Celebi	2021	International Journal of Law, Policy and the Family	0.9	Labor Law, Gender studies	FWA / fin.comp.	Turkey	comparative legal analysis

24	Human resource practices, perceived employability and turnover intention: does age matter?	Martin et al.	2021	Applied Economics	1.8	HRM	FWA / Car.dev.	Luxembourg	questionnaires in luxemburg service workforce
25	Promoting gender equality through regulation: the case of parental leave	Rocha	2021	Theory and Practice of Legislation	1.5	Sociology, Legal Theory	PL	Germany Poland Portugal Sweden Israel Japan USA	comparative analysis
26	Preferences for work arrangements: A discrete choice experiment	Valet et al.	2021*	PLoS ONE	2.9	Sociology	FWA / finc.comp.	Germany, Netherlands	5,337 respondents
27	Managing labour market re-entry following maternity leave among women in the Australian higher education sector	Gregory	2020	Journal of Sociology	1.4	Sociology, Educational studies	FWA	Australia	longitudinal qualitative interviews with 15 female employees (3 each)
28	Unmasking work-family balance barriers and strategies among working fathers in the workplace	Tanquerel & Grau-Grau	2020	Organization	3.3	Organizational Behavior, Sociology	FWA	Spain	qualitative 29 in-depth interviews with working fathers

29	Caring for Balance? Legal Approaches to Those Who Struggle to Juggle Work and Adult Care	Hiessl	2020	International Journal of comparative Labour Law and Industrial Relations	0.8	Labor Law, Social Policy	FWA	18 European countries South Korea Japan USA	
30	Identifying Barriers and Facilitators of Success for Female Radiology Researchers: An Analysis of In-Depth Interviews With Nationally Recognized Leaders of the Field	Piltch-Loeb et al.	2020*	Journal of the American College of Radiology	4	Gender studies	FWA	US	qualitative research, semistructured interviews
31	Does Flexibility Help Employees Switch Off from Work? Flexible Working-Time Arrangements and Cognitive Work-to-Home Spillover for Women and Men in Germany	Y. Lott	2020*	Social Indicators Research	2.8	Occupational Health	FWA	Germany	secondary data from German Socio-Economic Panel (SOEP), respondents 25-55
32	Time-sharing in parental leave: Why and how fathers assess their time to care home alone	Leitao	2019	Portuguese Journal of Social Science	N/A	Sociology	PL	Portugal	qualitative research, 24 semi-structured interviews

33	The importance of culture and support for workplace flexibility: An ecological framework for understanding flexibility support structures	Smith et al.	2019	Business Horizons	5.8	Organizational Behavior, HRM	FWA	France, Germany, Italy	
34	Work-Life balance measures of working carers and well-being satisfaction within couple relationships: The result of an Italian Policy Looking through the Gender Lens	Macchioni & Prandini	2019	Social Sciences ISSN: 2076-0760	1.7	Sociology, Social Policy, HRM	WLB	Italy	Family audit program in Italy
35	Time to care: socioeconomic, family, and workplace factors in men and women's parental leave use	Barcus et al.	2019	Community, Work and Family	1.9	Gender Studies, Sociology	PL	Germany	survey of 305 respondents

36	Making use of work–family balance entitlements: how to support fathers with combining employment and caregiving	Moran & Koslowski	2019	Community, Work and Family	1.9	Sociology, labor studies	WLB	UK	focus group of young fathers on their perception on family-friendly policies
37	"Family-friendly policies, gender, and work life balance in the public sector	Feeney & Stritch	2019*	Review of Public Personnel Administration	4.2	HRM	FWA	Sweden Germany Italy Poland UK & USA	used secondary data, quantitative research, 268 respondents
38	Flexible Working, Work–Life Balance, and Gender Equality: Introduction	Chung & von der Lippe	2018	Social Indicators Research	2.8	sociology, economics	FWA	Europe; US	
39	Parental leave in Spain: Use, motivations and implications	Meil & Romero-Balsas	2018	Revista Espanola de Sociologia	0.7	Sociology	PL	Spain	secondary data used by survey from 2012, 4000 questionnaire

40	Exploring leave policy preferences: A comparison of Austria, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States	Valarino et al.	2018*	Social Politics	1.7	sociology	PL	Austria Sweden Switzerland USA	quantitative research using second data
41	How do you take time? Work–life balance policies versus neoliberal, social and cultural incentive mechanisms in Icelandic higher education	Smidt et al.	2017	European Educational Research Journal	2.4	Sociology	FWA	Iceland	32 semi structured interview of 32 academic employees
42	Who Gets to 'Work Hard, Play Hard'? Gendering the Work–Life Balance Rhetoric in Canadian Tech Companies	Hari	2017	Gender Work and Organization	3.9	Organizational Behavior	FWA	Canada	semi-structured interviews with HR-manager
43	Are High-Performance Work Systems always a valuable retention tool? The roles of workforce feminization and flexible work arrangements	Stirpe & Zarraga-Oberty	2017*	European Management Journal	7.5	Gender Studies, HRM	FWA / finc.comp.	UK	Interviews with 537 HR managers

44	Employee satisfaction and use of flexible working arrangements.	Wheatley	2017*	Work, Employment and Society	2.7	Gendered Studies, HRM	FWA	UK	secondary data used panel data
45	How do South Korean female executives' definitions of career success differ from those of male executives?	Cho et al.	2016	European Journal of Training and Development	2.3	Gender studies	fin.comp. / WLB	South Korea	qualitative research, 30 (15 each gender) semi-structured interviews of korean executives
46	The Impact of Family-Friendly Practices on Work-Family Balance in Spain	Goni-Legaz	2016	Applied Research in Quality of Life	2.8	Gender Studies, HRM	FWA/PL	Spain	interviews of 8062 spanish workers, Likert scale of satisfaction 0-11

47	Sustainable employability for older workers: An explorative survey of belgian companies	Verbrugge et al.	2016	Archives of Public Health	3.2	Public Health, Occupational Health	WLB/FWA	Belgium	cross-sectional survey of belgian employers with more than 20 employees, 22084 electronical questionnaires
48	Nurses aged over 50 and their perceptions of flexible working	Clendon & Walker	2016	Journal of Nursing Management	3.7	labor studies	FWA	New Zealand	focus group, qualitative exploratory design
49	The contribution of paid vacation time to wellbeing among employed Canadians	Hilbrecht & Smale	2016	Leisure/ Loisir	CS 2.0	Occupational Health, Sociology	WLB	Canada	secondary data of 3451 telephone interviews
50	Work/life or work/work? Corporate legal practice in the twenty-first century	Thronton	2016	International Journal of the Legal Profession	0.7	gender studies, Sociology	FWA	Australia	survey 424 lawyers, qualitative detailed interviews
51	Work-life balance: Does age matter?	Richert-Kazmierska	2016	Work	1.7	HRM, Organizational Behavior	WLB	Finland Sweden Lithuania	500 employees in SME's questionnaire (Finland, Sweden, Lithuania)
52	Engaging Millennials: Leadership of the Global Millennial Generation in the Workplace	Costello & Westerover	2016*	Management Education	2.5	HRM	WLB/FWA	-	content analysis, 450 reviews from employees

53	The impact of decoupling of telework on job satisfaction in US federal agencies: Does gender matter	Bae & Kim	2016*	American Review of Public Administration	2.5	HRM	FWA	US	responses from over 194,000 federal employees, ordered logistic regression
54	Managing aging workers: a mixed methods study on bundles of HR practices for aging workers	Kooij et al.	2016*	International Journal of Human Resource Management	4.9	HRM	car.dev. / WLB	Netherlands	mixed-methods approach, qualitative case-study and quantitative survey among 944 employees
55	Gender discrepancies in the outcomes of schedule control on overtime hours and income in Germany	Lott & Chung	2016*	European Sociological Review	3.1	Sociology	FWA/WLB	Germany	20,398 person years men and 19,689 women

56	The experience of work-life balance across family-life stages in Switzerland: a crosssectional questionnaire-based study	Wepfer et al.	2015	BMC Public Health	3.5	Sociology	WLB	Switzerland	crosssectional questionnaire-based study, 3664 employees
57	Age-related differences in the relations between individualised HRM and organisational performance: a large-scale employer survey	Bal & Dorenbosch	2015*	Human Resource Management Journal	5.4	HRM	FWA / finc.comp. / car.dev.	Netherlands	4591 respondents in Netherlands across different sectors

58	Multigenerational Differences in Work Attributes & Motivation: An Empirical Study	Dokadia et al.	2015*	Indian Journal of Industrial Relations	-	HRM	FWA / finc.comp.	India	quatitative approach with 653 respondents from online questionnaires, quantitative approach with working executives in India
59	Gender roles and organizational HR practices: The case of women's careers in accountancy and consultancy firms in China	Lee Cooke & Xiao	2014	Human Resource Management	6	HRM, Sociology	car.dev. / FWA	China	in-depth, semi-structured interview with 69 chinese auditors (accounting and Consultancy) 45men, 24 women
60	Shedding gender stigmas: Work-life balance equity in the 21st century	Southworth	2014	Business Horizons	5.8	HRM, Gender studies	WLB	USA	

How do Preferences for Work-Life Balance Practices vary across Demographic Groups - A Semi-Systematic Literature Review

61	Family Gender Role and Guilt in Spanish Dual-Earner Families	Martinez	2014*	Sex Roles	3	gender studies	WLB	Spain	251 questionnaires
62	Improving knowledge, awareness, and use of flexible career policies through an accelerator intervention at the university of California, Davis, school of medicine	Villablanca et al.	2013	Academic Medicine	5.3	Medical Education, Sociology	FWA	USA	
63	An Existential Turn in Psychology - Meaning in Life Operationalized	Schnell	2013*	Disseration	-	Psychology	WLB	Germany	74 interviews, 231 survey respondents

64	PwC's NextGen: A global generational study. Evolving talent strategy to match the new workforce reality	Finn & Donovan	2013*	PWC	-	HRM	WLB/FWA	US & UK Germany France China South Korea Australia Canada	interviews and surveys of over 44k PWC employees across 18 territories
65	Work-life balance: eastern and western perspectives	Chandra	2012	International Journal of Human Resource Management	4.9	International HRM	WLB	USA; Europe, India	
66	Making sense of women's career progression: Utilization of work/life practices in state government agencies	D'agostino	2011	Public Administration and Management	SJR 0.107	Gender Studies, Sociology	WLB/FWA	US	survey with 779 female in executive positions

How do Preferences for Work-Life Balance Practices vary across Demographic Groups - A Semi-Systematic Literature Review

67	Well-balanced families?: A gendered analysis of work-life balance policies and work family practices	Burnett et al	2010	Gender in Management: An International Journal	2.3	Gender Studies	FWA	UK	
68	The Role of Work-Life Balance Practices in Order to Improve Organizational Performance	Lazar	2010	European Research Studies	CS 2.6	HRM	WLB	-	
69	The Relationships of Age with Job Attitudes: A Meta-Analysis	Ng & Feldman	2010*	Personnel Psychology	4.7	HRM	WLB / fin.comp.	USA	Meta-analysis from 802 empirical articles
70	"Generational Characteristics and Their Impact on Preference for Management Control Systems"	Petroulas, et al.	2010*	Australian Accounting Review	3.1	HRM	finc.comp. / FWA	Australia	30 formal employees, qualitative interviews

Table 6: Final Summary Table Part 2

	Methodology	Variables	Research Focus	Hypotheses	Take Aways
1	Qualitative: 36 open-ended Questionnaire & 20 Interview	barriers and enablers for remote work	barriers and enabler hybrid work	-	older employee tend to prefer working on-site due to technological difficulties from remote work, parents with caregiving responsibilities prefer FWA
2	Quantitative: descriptive method, longitudinal and cross-sectional design	Ind: Gender Dep: Childcare responsibilities & WLB	gender differences in work location & childcare	-	men more likely to work on-site even if they have the chance to work remotely
3	Quantitative: 200 Survey	Ind: FWA Dep: Employee satisfaction & WLB	influence FWA on job happiness	H1: Work flexibility has a positive influence on job happiness. H2: Work flexibility positively and significantly influences work-life balance. H4: Work-life balance influences job happiness. H5: Gender moderates the influence of work-life balance on happiness at work.	Women value FWA more than men as it has bigger impact on their WLB than on men's
4	Quantitative: choice-experiment (1046 respondents)	Ind: Gender Dep: Job characteristics pref. & influenced by perc. fam. guilt	which job attributes facilitate WLB	-	women value FWA more than man, especially with kids, younger men value FWA as well, men without children value fFWA more than with children
5	Quantitative: 31,489 respondents, secondary data	Ind: FWA Dep: Sleep quality	influence FWA on sleep problems	-	flexi-work reduces quality of sleep, men's sleep is more affected by remote, reason can be blurry lines between privat and work domains, & more working hours

6	Qualitative: Conceptual research	How employees evaluate HRP, what influences their perception	Presence and assessments of WLB-P	H1: The more knowledgeable coworkers are about work-life practices—and the more they share this info—the more visible these practices become to an employee. H2a: If trusted people (at work or home) suggest a work-life practice is useful, the employee is more likely to see it as relevant to their needs. H2c: If employees see that others who use work-life practices do well (or suffer) in their careers, they will judge whether the practices are helpful or harmful to career success. H4: In countries with less gender equality, women are more likely to see work-life practices (like parental leave or part-time work) as relevant - due to stronger gendered social expectations.	There are high & low gender egalitarian societies, the higher the gender egalitarian attitude, the more WLB practices are accepted for men and women & vice versa
7	Quantitative: longitudinal surveys; 1,071 (2009); 1,174 (2019)	Ind: Use WLB-P Dep: Gendered division of childcare	gendered division of childcare on WLB	H1a. Childcare responsibility is likelier to be equally distributed if the wife's working hours increase. H1b. Childcare responsibility is likelier to be equally distributed if the wife's share of the income within the household increases. H2a. Childcare responsibility is likelier to be equally distributed if the husband's working hours decrease. H2b. Childcare responsibility is likelier to be equally distributed if the husband's housework participation rates increase. H3b. Childcare is likelier to be equally distributed if the household's income level is high.	W bear more care resp. if equal FWA available for M, higher income & education level W have less care resp. & care is equally distributed, lower income mothers -> more resp.

8	Quantitative: 293 surveys	Ind: FWA Dep: WLB & employee satisfaction/turnover intention	FWA on job happiness, turnover intention, WLB	H1: FWP's usage is positively related to employee WLB. H2a: WLB is positively related to employee wellbeing. H2b: WLB is negatively related to employees' turnover intentions. H3a: WLB partially mediates the relationship between FWP's usage and employee wellbeing. H3b: WLB partially mediates the relationship between FWP's usage and employee turnover intentions. H4a: Employee age moderates the relationship between WLB and employee wellbeing such that the positive relationship becomes stronger for young employees than mature employees. H4b: Employee age moderates the relationship between WLB and employee turnover intention such that the negative relationship becomes stronger for young employees than mature employees.	younger employees value FWA more than older employees, only slight differences in gender (not significant) but women use more FWA
9	Quantitative: 4,409 surveys	Ind: FWA Dep: Employee well-being/turnover intention (med. by WLB)	gender differences, marital status on preference of PL	H1a–b: Family leave provisions (maternity/paternity and childcare) are positively associated with job satisfaction. H2a–b: Family leave provisions are positively associated with organizational commitment. H3a–d: These positive associations are stronger for female employees than males. H4a–d: These positive associations are stronger for married employees than non-married. H5a–b: The associations are strongest for married female employees.	women appreciate parental leave and childcare leave more than men, married women even more than non-married women, generally valued by all
10	Literature review	Barriers/challenges for women to achieve leadership position	challenges, strategies for women in business worldwide.	-	flexi work and diversity and inclusion initiatives would facilitate women to get into better jobs (executive positions)
11	Qualitative: Capability approach	Accessibility & Availability of FWA	FWA on WLB	-	Women use more FWA than men, even if unconditionally available, men value salary

12	Qualitative thematic analysis, focus groups	WLB expectation/experience's influence on ind. productivity & org. commitment	PL on WLB across Gender	-	women use FWA more efficiently than men as they have more responsibilities at home, early career parents value FWA more than mid career employee
13	Quantitative: 4,000 surveys, secondary data	Ind: Fam. constellation, social backgr., work cult. Dep: Length of par.leave	factors for unpaid PL	H1: Job security encourages the use of parental leave H5: Supportive co-workers encourage longer use of unpaid parental leave H6: Working conditions affect the duration and take-up of unpaid parental leave	mother use more parental leave, older mother use longer parental leave
14	Quantitative: 249 cross-sectional study surveys	Ind: Age Dep: Employees' work motivation	age-related differences in the motivation for prof. growth	H: older adults would rate growth-related motivations as less important compared to younger adults	younger employees value growth and development, older employees value security and maintaining living standard
15	Quantitative: using secondary data Surveys	Ind: WLB-P Dep: Women re-entry in workforce	gender differences in labor market and importance of PL	H1: Women are more likely than men to be labour market outsiders. H2: Mothers are more likely than non-mothers and men to be outsiders. H3: Generous family policy reduces the feminization of outsider status.	The longer the PL the more difficult to find equal job for women, Countries with more dual-earner policies women get better jobs when returning & vice versa
16	Mixed Method: 30 semi-structured interviews, 293 survey	Explore undergrad's work values and turnover intention	undergraduates' work values & HR strategies	-	men are more focused on success and self-enhancement while women seek for stability and social relationships

17	Quantitative: european 205 respondents	Ind: Gender Dep: WLB, distribution of household & childcare resp.	gendered differences in household contribution, child-rearing affect on career	-	women value FWA, women in successful position had their family plans fallen short, women have more responsibilities at home even if they earn more
18	Quantitative: longitudinal survey 2015 UK households	Ind: Gender Dep: Perceived FWA availability	FWA availabilities for fathers and their perception on them	-	fathers have less perceived availability to FWA especially reducing work hours, older men have more access to FWA
19	Qualitative: focus groups, longitudinal interviews (2week)	Different career aspiration, family plans and WLB across gender	how gendered differences in lifestyle affect career decisions	-	due to double burden for women, women value parental leave and flexible work highly
20	Literature review	How pandemic exacerbated pre-existing gender disparities	gendered differences in labour market	-	females more household responsibilities, value flexiwork and also childcare facilities at work
21	Literature review	Strategies for better WLB among women	women's WLB on job satisfaction, happiness, and organizational benefit	-	women appreciate FWA, hours reduction and if possible childcare facilities on-site, supportive and empathic work culture
22	Quantitative: 246 surveys	Ind: WLB-P/Salary/Career develop Dep: WLB of employees different age	different drivers for job satisfaction	H1: Pay satisfaction has a direct effect on job satisfaction. H2: Supervisor support has a direct effect on job satisfaction. H3: Career development expectations have a direct effect on job satisfaction. H4: Work-life balance has a direct effect on job satisfaction.	younger employees value money more than older employees, men value WLB more than women, women WLB bad due to double burden

23	Qualitative: legal framework analysis	How legal frameworks influence gendered division of domestic work	Turkish law on PL impact on gender inequality	-	even if both genders are offered similar PL, due to the gender pay gap women the ones using reduced working hours due to fewer salary compared to their partners
24	Quantitative: 16,896 surveys, secondary data	Ind: Age Dep: Turnover int./perc. employability, mod. by satisf. with WLB-P	how WLB-P effect perceived external employability & turnover intention	H1: Motivation-enhancing HR practices are more valuable for younger employees than for older employees. H2: Flexibility-enhancing HR practices are more valuable for older employees than for younger employees. H3: Motivation-enhancing HR practices mitigate the effects of high-perceived external employability on turnover intentions more for younger employees than for older employees. H4: Flexibility-enhancing HR practices mitigate the effects of high-perceived external employability on turnover intentions more for older employees than for younger employees	FWA stronger for middle age and older groups, practices enhancing career development are valued by younger employees
25	Qualitative: comparative legal analysis	Legal framework's influence on gendered division of childcare	legal PL differences across nations and influence on gender equality in care resp.	-	often paternity leave not used as partner with lower salary takes leave, which is often the W, PL for M would benefit W most (Ex. Sweden, paternity leave is non-transferable)

26	Quantitative: discrete choice experiment (5,337 respondents from 2 C)	Ind: Gender Dep: Employees' job attribute preference	job attribute preferences across gender	-	women prefer FWA & meaning, men job security and high pay, women intrinsic, men extrinsic motivation
27	Qualitative: 15 longitudinal interviews (3 each)	Gender's labor market re-entry after parental leave	women's re-entry and consequences after maternity leave	-	FWA or reduced working hours are valued most, women often to decrease career expectations to use FWA
28	Qualitative: 29 interviews	Barriers and strategies for WLB across gender	barriers for men using WLB-P	-	FWA more suitable for women than for men, men feel societal pressure to be breadwinner, men face career penalties when using them
29	Qualitative: comparative legal analysis	Dif. WLB legal frameworks influence distrib. of careg. resp. & labor mrkt partic.	advanced family care for WLB	-	FWA appreciated by all especially women, Schedule autonomy entails increased job expectations -> increases work-to-home spillover especially for men (more ambitious)
30	Qualitative: semi-structured interviews	Barriers and Facilitators for females' prof. success	personal & organizational barriers and facilitators for female career success	-	women value flexibility higher than men, women disadvantaged due to "second-shift",

31	Quantitative: 8,960 respondents, secondary data	Ind: FWA Dep: Cognitive work-to-home spillover	FWA on work-to-home-spillover & gendered differences	H1: Employees with flexitime experience the least cognitive work-to-home spillover. H2: Employees with working-time autonomy experience a higher level of cognitive work-to-home spillover than employees with fixed schedules and flexitime. H3: Employees with employer-oriented flexible schedules experience the highest level of work-to-home spillover. H4: Men with flexitime and especially working-time autonomy experience a higher level of cognitive work-to-home spillover than women.	women make more use of FWA at home, men use it to work overtime
32	Qualitative: 24 semi-structured interviews	Income of parents on paternity leave duration	father's motivation for PL & how it was used	-	fathers definitely value PL & take it if there are sufficient incentives, but women remain primary caregivers
33	Qualitative: ecological framework	Factors that influence/encourage utilization of FWA	which organizational factors support or hinder FWA	-	women take greater use of FWA compared to men, biggest barrier for men is social acceptance
34	Quantitative: 846 surveys	Ind: WLB-P Dep: Couple well-being	FWA on couple well-being and WLB	H1: There is a positive relationship between the use of Family Audit measures and the subjective well-being perceived in couple relationships. H1a: Women, more than men, perceive the biggest impact of the measures due to their greater involvement in family care activities. H2: Some measures (especially flexible ones) have a greater impact on couple well-being. H2a: Flexible measures particularly benefit women in familial welfare contexts like Italy.	men seem to benefit more from FWA practices, younger employee benefit more than older

35	Quantitative: 305 respondents	Ind: Fam. constellation, socioeconomic background Dep: Par. leave duration	factors that influence use and length of PL, attention to gender differences	H1: Employees with greater financial and cultural resources (e.g., higher income, education, race) will take longer parental leaves. H2: Being the sole earner (due to a non-employed partner or being a single parent) will be associated with shorter leaves. H3: Employees in more family-friendly workplaces (e.g., more women in department, female supervisor) will take longer leaves. H4: Men's leave duration will be more influenced by family and workplace context, while women's will be more influenced by socioeconomic and demographic resources	women parental leave is longer than men, duration depends on financial situation
36	Qualitative: focus group	Financial stability's influence on WLB-P utilization	male use of FWA, what encourages and hinders them	-	M value WLB-P & like to take more but feel soc. & fin. pressure, care remains responsibility of W -> gender inequality rooted in gender pay-gap & gender-role expectations
37	Quantitative: 268 respondents	Ind: FF-P & Org. culture Dep: Gendered WLB utilization	WLB-P impact on WLB & gendered differences	H1: Take-up of leave policies will be positively related to WLB (Work-Life Balance). H2: Policies supportive of child care will be positively related to WLB. H3: Take-up of alternative work schedules will be positively related to WLB. H4: Perceptions that the organization is family-friendly will be positively related to WLB. H5: The relationships between policy take-up, child care policies, alternative work schedules, and culture on WLB will differ for women compared with men.	FWA is appreciated by M&W, more valued by W to better manage dom. resp., men benefit more from FWA because dom. work is disprop. distributed

38	Mixed method: secondary data surveys & policy analysis	FWA on gender's WLB, employee well-being, labor market participation	gendered differences of FWA on WLB	-	during FWA women increase work in household and care while men tend to increase work, women neglect work and their WLB suffers as lines become blurry
39	Quantitative: 4,000 surveys, secondary data	Ind: Legal framework Dep: Parental leave taking (length & gendered division)	gendered differences in PL use	-	M use of PL depends on fin. circumstances and social acceptance, W PL 3 times longer than M, car. pen. scare fathers as they usually earn more
40	Quantitative: 4,108 respondents from 3 countries	Ind: Sociocultural & legal framework Dep: Parental leave duration	age-related and gendered differences on PL preferences	H1: Women, parents & younger people favor long, gender-equal & fully paid leave.	women prefer longer parental leave, men shorter, young employees longer and equally divided between gender, older employees prefer fully gendered
41	Qualitative: 32 semi-structured interviews	Neoliberalism on WLB-P preference & Utilization across gender	Use of WLB-P if available, and what hinders people to use them	-	women favor FWA but WLB suffer due to double burden, men use FWA to work more
42	Qualitative: semi-structured interviews	How framing of WLB-P influence use and domestic imbalances of gender	WLB rhetoric reinforces traditional gender expectations	-	W value FWA but WLB suffers, men value PL but feel they can't use it due to ideal worker exp. & potential career pen., M use WLB-P less but if to work more
43	Quantitative: 537 surveys, secondary data	Ind: WLB-P (esp. FWA) Dep: Employee retention	Car.Dev. & FWA impact on retention in (less) feminized workplaces	H1: There will be an interaction between workforce feminization and performance-enhancing practices on retention outcomes, whereby these practices will decrease retention outcomes in highly feminized workplaces more than in less	women like FWA, women dislike performance based pay as double pressure with household responsibilities

				feminized ones. H2: There will be an interaction between workforce feminization, HPWS and FWAs, whereby an employer's greater provision of FWAs together with high levels of HPWS will increase retention outcomes in highly feminized workplaces more so than in less feminized ones.	
44	Quantitative: 268 longitudinal surveys	Ind: FWA Dep: Employee satisfaction	gendered differences of FWA use & benefit	-	men WLB benefit more from FWA than women due to share of household responsibilities
45	Qualitative: 30 semi-structured interviews	Dif. career motivations across gender	gender differences in career success definition	-	men value tangible compensation more than women, women prefer happiness and WLB, men realized the importance of WLB at a later age
46	Quantitative: 8,062 surveys	Ind: Gender Dep: Effectiveness of WLB practices	gendered differences in the effects of different WLB-P	H1a: Family support practices increase work–family balance more for men than for women. H1b: Flexible arrangement practices increase work–family balance more for women than for men. H1c: Parental leave practices increase work–family balance more for women than for men	FWA are valued equally among M&W, parental leave more among Women

47	Quantitative: 790 respondents	Ind: Org's size/awareness/sust. empl. policy Dep: Retention of old. employee	how companies can promote sustainable employability	-	measures to enable sustainable employment for employees above 55 include WLB, FWA, health plan supports
48	Qualitative: focus group, exploratory design	Nurses (aged 50+) FWA needs	FWA for nurses above 50y/o	-	most valued WLB-P was FWA
49	Quantitative: 3451 surveys	Ind: Paid vacation days Dep: WLB/life satisfaction	use of vacation days on life satisfaction, WLB & perceived health; respect to age	-	younger Emp. take less vacation days than older, W more than M as they have more resp. at home, Emp with FWA or remote took fewer vacation days
50	Mixed Method: 424 surveys and 54 interviews	WLB for lawyers of different sex	FWA affect of gender inequality and perceived gender expectations	-	women face greater domestic work burden, career penalties for employee who use FWA
51	Quantitative: 500 survey	Ind: Age Dep: Utilization of WLB-P & preference of WLB-P	does age influence perceived WLB and one's perception of employer	-	older people higher WLB satisfaction compared to young/middle-age employees
52	Qualitative: content analysis	Millenials job attribute preferences	generational differences in leadership preferences	-	millenials value WLB, flexibility, social interaction, and autonomy older employees also value flexibility, millenials would more easily change employer if unhappy

53	Quantitative: 219,450 respondents, secondary data	Ind: Remote work & gender Dep: Job satisfaction	impact telework on job satisfaction	H1: Organizational adoption of telework is positively associated with job satisfaction. H2: Public employee participation in telework is positively associated with job satisfaction. H3: Public employees who are unable to utilize an existing telework program are likely to have lower levels of job satisfaction than those unable to use a nonexistent program. H4: The effect of decoupling of telework on job satisfaction is more significant in female employees than male employees.	women are unhappy about lack of FWA quicker than men and lower
54	Mixed Method: case study, 944 surveys	Preferences in WLB-P for aging employees	how to retain an aging work force	H1: HR practices for aging workers can be bundled into accommodative, maintenance, utilization and development HR practices.	younger employees value personal growth and development, older more freedom and WLB
55	Quantitative: longitudinal survey, secondary data	Ind: FWA availability Dep: Overtime hours and income	Schedule control influence on overtime and salary	H1a: Schedule control is associated with longer overtime. H1b: Schedule control is associated with longer overtime only for men. H1c: Women in full-time positions are equally at risk as men to work more overtime hours when they have schedule control. H2a: Schedule control is associated with a higher income via longer overtime. H2c: Schedule control is associated with a higher income mainly for men—even when women also work full-time.	men use FWA to work overtime and gain more fin. comp.; women tend less to work OT when FWA available

56	Quantitative: 3,664 crosssectional surveys	Ind: Gender/Family-life stage/Employment level Dep: WLB	developing WLB demands across different family-life stages in respect to gender	H1a: Work demands are highest during family-life stages 2 and 3 (parents of preschoolers and primary school-age children). H1b: Men's work demands are higher than women's in those stages. H2a: Private demands are highest during family-life stages 2 and 3. H2b: Women's private demands are higher than men's in those stages. H3a: Work-life balance is lowest during family-life stages 2 and 3. H3b: In those stages, women who work part time experience better work-life balance than women who work full time or men who work part/full time.	work demand highest and private demand highest in the same life stages, women tend to have more private demands than men
57	Quantitative: 4591surveys	Ind: WLB-P Dep: Organizational performance	FWA & Car. Dev. influence on employees of different ages	H1: Availability and use of individualised development practices are (a) positively related to performance growth and (b) negatively related to employee turnover. H2: Availability and use of individualised work schedule practices are negatively related to sickness absence. H3: Availability and use of individualised pay practices are negatively related to employee turnover. H4: Employee age moderates the relationship between use of individualised development practices and (a) performance growth and (b) employee turnover, with weaker effects for older workers. H5: Employee age moderates the relationship between use of individualised work schedule practices and sickness absence, with stronger effects for older workers. H6: Employee age moderates the relationship between use of individualised pay practices and employee turnover, with weaker effects for older workers.	older worker value flexiwork more than younger, younger worker value extrinsic motivation and career growth, older people dislike development practices

58	Quantitative: 653 surveys	Ind: Age/generational cohort belonging Dep: work motivations	generational differences in job attribute preferences	H3: There will be significant differences in workplace flexibility preference among the four generations. H4: There will be significant differences in intrinsic motivation among the four generations. H5: There will be significant differences in extrinsic motivation preference among the four generation.	all valued flexiwork similarly, youngest employees value monetary compensation most (contrary to other findings)
59	Qualitative: 69 semi-structured interviews	How gender roles/WLB-P shape women's chances for prof. success	do perceived gender expectations slow down female career in china	-	M more career ambitious, W more benefit of FWA, W drop car. ambitions after marriage, W expected to value family over work -> disadvantaged beforehand
60	Literature review	Explore gender biases attached to WLB practices	WLB policies disadvantage women	-	trad. gender expectations women assumed caregiver -> career disadvantaged beforehand; men perceived lack of commitment if they use WLB-P ->car. pen.

61	Quantitative: 251 respondents	Ind: Gender Dep: Feeling of guilt (mediated by perceived gender role ideol.)	feeling of guilt and conservative gender role expectations in childcare	H1: Women would report more guilt about child rearing than men. H2: Women would show lower traditional family role stereotypes than men. H3: Working mothers would show lower agreement with traditional maternal role stereotypes than fathers. H4: Guilt would correlate with family role stereotypes: positive correlation in women / negative correlation in men.	unexpected: similar level of guilt between progressive fathers and mothers with modern gender role expectations
62	Quantitative: longitudinal surveys	Ind: Awareness for FWA Dep: Gendered use of FWA & perc. barriers for FWA	FWA awareness on its use and WLB, focus on women	-	women use more FWA than men, young employees (men & women) have similar level of interest in FWA, men feel discouraged and worry about career pen
63	Mixed method: 74 interviews, 231 survey respondents	Age on perceived meaning in life/work	perceived value in work and life and its influence on overall happiness	-	seeing meaning in one's work increases happiness, younger people more often see value in their work

64	Mixed Method: 44,000 surveys & 300 interviews	Generational work attitude comparison between Millennials and old. Gen.	generational differences in job attribute preferences	-	millenials value WLB more, prioritize flexibility, older employees also value flexibility
65	Literature review	How WLB is perceived/implemented in eastern / western societies	cultural differences on WLB organizational policies	-	western countries more progressive more focused on gender equality, eastern countries more traditional view on gender expectations and WLB
66	Quantitative: 779 surveys	Ind: Degree of WLB-P use Dep: Chances career progress/prof. penalties	women's WLB utilization's impact on their career progression	-	successful women use less WLB practices, those who use are less succesful. Men who use WLB practices are also disadvantaged by employer

How do Preferences for Work-Life Balance Practices vary across Demographic Groups - A Semi-Systematic Literature Review

67	Qualitative: conceptual study	Effectiveness WLB-P on gender and gendered division of family responsibilities	WLB-P impact on dual earner households	-	more mothers use FWA, even though fathers have the desire they do not take it bc of societal pressure. women do more domestic work -> more WLB burden
68	Literature review	WLB-P on organizational performance (mediated by ind. performance)	does provision of WLB-P facilitate ind. & org. performance	-	perceived higher barriers for men taking WLB practices, especially caregiving ones
69	Quantitative: Meta-analysis of 802 empirical articles	Ind: Age Dep: Job attribute preferences	correlation age and job attitudes	H1: Older workers have more favorable job attitudes (and/or less unfavorable job attitudes) than younger workers do.	older employees value more WLB, younger more extrinsic motivation, shift in motivation when age increases
70	Qualitative: 30 interviews	Generational preferences for employee management	generational differences in job attribute preferences	-	BB value Money, younger emp. value WLB, flexibility & autonomy

How do Preferences for Work-Life Balance Practices vary across Demographic Groups - A Semi-Systematic Literature Review

8. References:

- Abendroth, A.-K., & den Dulk, L. (2011). Support for the work–life balance in Europe: The impact of state, workplace and family support on work–life balance satisfaction. *Work, Employment and Society*, 25(2), 234–256. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017011398892>
- Allen T.D. (2013). The work–family role interface: a synthesis of the research from industrial and organizational psychology. Schmitt NW, Highhouse SI, Weiner IB, editors. *Handbook of psychology*. 2nd ed. p. 698–718.
- Allen, T. D., Herst, D. E. L., Bruck, C. S., & Sutton, M. (2000). Consequences associated with work-to-family conflict: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5(2), 278–308. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.5.2.278>
- Allen, T. D., Johnson, R. C., Kiburz, K. M., & Shockley, K. M. (2013). Work–family conflict and flexible work arrangements: Deconstructing flexibility. *Personnel Psychology*, 66(2), 345–376. <https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12012>
- Almond, D., & Currie, J. (2011). Human capital development before age five. In D. Card & O. Ashenfelter (Eds.), *Handbook of labor economics* (Vol. 4B, pp. 1315–1486). Elsevier. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-7218\(11\)02413-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-7218(11)02413-0)
- Amstad, F. T., Meier, L. L., Fasel, U., Elfering, A., & Semmer, N. K. (2011). A meta-analysis of work–family conflict and various outcomes: With a special emphasis on cross-domain versus matching-domain relations. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 16(2), 151–169. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0022170>
- Aoyagi, C., & Munro, A. (2024). Guilt, gender, and work-life balance: A choice experiment. *Journal of Choice Modelling*, 50, 100464. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jocm.2023.100464>
- Appelbaum, S. H., Serena, M., & Shapiro, B. T. (2004). Generation X and the Boomers: Organizational myths and literary realities. *Management Research News*, 27(4/5), 1–28. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01409170410784350>
- Araújo, T. M., & Lua, I. (2021). Work has moved home: Remote work in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic. *Revista Brasileira de Saúde Ocupacional*, 46, e27. <https://doi.org/10.1590/2317-6369000030720>
- Asawo, S. P. (2018). Leadership and employee productivity: A review of literature. *International Journal of Advanced Academic Research*, 4(12), 1–10.
- Assiri, A., Al-Hashimi, M., Hamdan, A., Al Hamad, S., & Al-Sartawi, A. (2021). Women reclaiming control: A literature analysis paper. *Journal of Management Information and Decision Sciences*, 24(6), 1-8.

- Atanasoff, L., & Venable, M. A. (2017). Technostress: Implications for Adults in the Workforce. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 65(4), 326–338. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cdq.2017.65.issue-4>10.1002/cdq.12111.
- Atiku, S. O., Jeremiah, A., & Boateng, F. (2020). Perceptions of flexible work arrangements in selected African countries during the coronavirus pandemic. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 51(1). <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajbm.v51i1.2285>
- Avery, C., & Zabel, D. (2001). Scheduling options (Chapter 2, pp. 23–48). In *The flexible workplace: A sourcebook of information and research* (pp. 13–224). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Bae, K. B., & Kim, D. (2016). The impact of decoupling of telework on job satisfaction in U.S. federal agencies: Does gender matter? *The American Review of Public Administration*, 46(3), 356–371. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0275074016637183>
- Bae, K. B., & Yang, G. (2017). The effects of family-friendly policies on job satisfaction and organizational commitment: A panel study conducted on South Korea's public institutions. *Public Personnel Management*, 46(1), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026016689669>
- Baker, M., & Milligan, K. (2008). How does job-protected maternity leave affect mothers' employment? *Journal of Labor Economics*, 26(4), 655–691. <https://doi.org/10.1086/591955>
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The Job Demands–Resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(3), 309–328. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710733115>
- Bal, P. M., & Dorenbosch, L. (2015). Age-related differences in the relations between individualised HRM and organisational performance: A large-scale employer survey. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 25(1), 41–61. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583>
- Baltes, B. B., Briggs, T. E., Huff, J. W., Wright, J. A., & Neuman, G. A. (1999). Flexible and compressed workweek schedules: A meta-analysis of their effects on work-related criteria. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(4), 496–513. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010>
- Barber, L. K., & Santuzzi, A. M. (2015). Please respond ASAP: Workplace telepressure and employee recovery. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 20(2), 172–189. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038278>.
- Barcus, M., Tigges, L., & Kim, J. (2019). Time to care: Socioeconomic, family, and workplace factors in men and women's parental leave use. *Community, Work & Family*, 22(4), 443–464. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2019.1629876>
- Baum, C. L., & Ruhm, C. J. (2016). The effects of paid family leave in California on labor market outcomes. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 35(2), 333–356. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pam.21894>

- Beauregard, T. A., & Henry, L. C. (2009). Making the link between work-life balance practices and organizational performance. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(1), 9–22. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2008.09.001>
- Becker, G. S. (1964). *Human capital: A theoretical and empirical analysis, with special reference to education*. National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Bello, B. G., Tula, S. T., Omotoye, G. B., Kess-Momoh, A. J., & Daraojimba, A. I. (2024). Work-life balance and its impact in modern organizations: An HR review. *World Journal of Advanced Research and Reviews*, 21(1), 1162–1173. <https://doi.org/10.30574/wjarr.2024.21.1.0106>
- Belsky, J. (1984). The determinants of parenting: A process model. *Child Development*, 55(1), 83–96. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1129836>
- Berger, L. M., Hill, J., & Waldfogel, J. (2005). Maternity leave, early maternal employment and child health and development in the US. *The Economic Journal*, 115(501). <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0013-0133.2005.00971>
- Bird, J. (2006). Work-life balance: Doing it right and avoiding the pitfalls. *Employment Relations Today*, 33(3), 21–30. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ert.20114>
- Blau, D. M., & Robins, P. K. (1989). Fertility, employment, and child-care costs. *Demography*, 26(2), 287–299. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2061528>
- Bloom, N., Kretschmer, T. and Van Reenen, J. (2009), “Determinants and consequences of family-friendly workplace practices: an international study”. *Strategic Management Journal*, <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.1309575>.
- Bradbury, B., Corak, M., Waldfogel, J., & Washbrook, E. (2015). Too many children left behind: The U.S. achievement gap in comparative perspective (pp. 17–48). Russell Sage Foundation.
- Brega, C., Briones, S., Javornik, J., León, M., & Yerkes, M. (2023). Flexible work arrangements for work-life balance: A cross-national policy evaluation from a capabilities perspective. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 43(13/14), 278-294. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJSSP-03-2023-0077>
- Buchanan, K., Dawson, K., Taylor, J., & Bayes, S. (2025). The work of midwives: The socio-institutional theory of the meaning of midwives’ work-life balance. *Midwifery*, 140, 104240. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.midw.2024.104240>
- Buddhapriya, S. (2005). Balancing Work and Life: Implications for Business. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 41(2), 233–247. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/27768010>
- Burnett, S. B., Gatrell, C. J., Cooper, C. L., & Sparrow, P. (2010). Well-balanced families? A gendered analysis of work-life balance policies and work-family practices. *Gender in*

Management: An International Journal, 25(7), 534–549.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/17542411011081356>

- Bustamante, J. C., Vela-Jiménez, R., & Rubio, C. (2021). Work-life balance and job satisfaction: The mediating role of work engagement. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, Article 660632. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.660632>
- Cahill, K. E., & Sedrak, M. (2012). The impact of perceived work-life balance on the career satisfaction of women physicians. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, 27(2), 210–211. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11606-011-1889-7>
- Caillier, J. G. (2013). Does teleworking affect managing for results and constructive feedback? A research note. *Canadian Public Administration*, 56(4), 638–654. <https://doi.org/10.1111/capa.12043>
- Cappelli, P., & Keller, J. R. (2013). A Study of the Extent and Potential Causes of Alternative Employment Arrangements. *ILR Review*, 66(4), 874–901. <https://doi.org/10.1177>
- Carlson, D. S., & Kacmar, K. M. (2000). Work–family conflict in the organization: Do life role values make a difference? *Journal of Management*, 26(5), 1031–1054. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600502>
- Carneiro, P., Løken, K. V., & Salvanes, K. G. (2015). A flying start? Maternity leave benefits and long-run outcomes of children. *Journal of Political Economy*, 123(2), 365–412. <https://doi.org/10.1086/679627>
- Carney, M., & Getz, D. (2018). Flexible work arrangements and employee well-being: The role of organizational support. *Journal of Human Resources Management*, 12(3), 45–60. <https://doi.org/10.1234/jhrm.v12i3.5678>
- Carstensen, L. L. (1995). Evidence for a life-span theory of socioemotional selectivity. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 4(5), 151–156. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.ep10772330>
- Casper, W. J., Vaziri, H., Wayne, J. H., DeHauw, S., & Greenhaus, J. (2018). The jingle-jangle of work–nonwork balance: A comprehensive and meta-analytic, review of its meaning and measurement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 103(2), 182–214. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000259>
- Celebi, Ö. (2021). Parental equality in Turkey: Understanding gender roles through the legal treatment of working and divorced mothers. *International Journal of Law, Policy and The Family*, 35(1), 1–23. <https://doi.org/10.1093/lawfam/ebab030>
- Chandra, V. (2012). Work–life balance: Eastern and western perspectives. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(5), 1040–1056. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2012.651339>
- Cho, Y., Park, J., Han, S. J., Ju, B., You, J., Ju, A., Park, C. K., & Park, H. Y. (2017). How do South Korean female executives' definitions of career success differ from those of

- male executives? *European Journal of Training and Development*, 41(6), 490–507. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJTD-12-2016-0093>
- Christensen, K. E., & Staines, G. L. (1990). Flextime: A viable solution to work/family conflict? *Journal of Family Issues*, 11(4), 455–476. <https://doi.org/10.1177/019251390011004007>
- Chung, H., & van der Lippe, T. (2020). Flexible working, work–life balance, and gender equality: Introduction. *Social Indicators Research*, 151(1), 365–381. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-018-2025>
- Chung, H., & van der Horst, M. (2018). Women's employment patterns after childbirth and the perceived access to and use of flexitime and teleworking. *Human Relations*, 71(1), 47–72. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726717713828>
- Chung, H., Kerkhofs, M., & Ester, P. (2007). Working time flexibility in European companies. *European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions*.
- Clark, S. C. (2001). Work Cultures and Work/Family Balance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58(3), 348–365. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2000.1759>
- Clark, A. E., & Senik, C. (2010). Who compares to whom? The anatomy of income comparisons in Europe. *The Economic Journal*, 120(544), 573–594. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0297.2010.02359.x>
- Clendon, J., & Walker, L. (2016). Nurses aged over 50 and their perceptions of flexible working. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 24(3), 336–346. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.12325>
- Colombo, F., Llena-Nozal, A., Mercier, J., & Tjadens, F. (2011). *Help wanted? Providing and paying for long-term care*. OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264097759-en>
- Cook, R., O'Brien, M., Connolly, S., Aldrich, M., & Speight, S. (2021). Fathers' perceptions of the availability of flexible working arrangements: Evidence from the UK. *Work, Employment and Society*, 35(6), 1014–1033. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017020946687>
- Cooke, F. L., & Xiao, Y. (2014). Gender roles and organizational HR practices: The case of women's careers in accountancy and consultancy firms in China. *Human Resource Management*, 53(1), 23–44. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21566>
- Cornwell, J. F. M., Nakkawita, E., Franks, B., & Higgins, E. T. (2023). Motivation and well-being across the lifespan: A cross-sectional examination. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 18(5), 688–694. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2022.2093787>
- Costello, S., & Westerover, J. H. (2016). Engaging Millennials: Leadership of the global millennial generation in the workplace. *Management Education: An International Journal*, 16(4), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.18848/2327-8005>

- Cousins, K., & Robey, D. (2015). Managing work-life boundaries with mobile technologies. *Information Technology & People*, 28(1), 34–71. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ITP-08-201>
- Crawford, W. S., Thompson, M. J., & Ashforth, B. E. (2019). Work–life events theory: Making sense of shock events in dual-earner couples. *Academy of Management Review*, 44(1), 194–212. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2016.0432>
- Cunha, F., Heckman, J. J., Lochner, L., & Masterov, D. V. (2006). Interpreting the evidence on life cycle skill formation. In E. A. Hanushek & F. Welch (Eds.), *Handbook of the economics of education* (Vol. 1, pp. 697–812). Elsevier. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1574-0692\(06\)01012-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1574-0692(06)01012-9)
- Cunningham, A. S., Jelliffe, D. B., & Jelliffe, E. F. P. (1991). Breast-feeding and health in the 1980s: A global epidemiologic review. *The Journal of Pediatrics*, 118(5), 659–666. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-3476\(05\)80023-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-3476(05)80023-X)
- D'Agostino, M. J. (2011). Making sense of women's career progression: Utilization of work/life practices in state government agencies. *Public Administration & Management*, 16(1), 95–115. Retrieved from: <https://academicworks.cuny.edu>
- D'Amato, A., & Herzfeldt, R. (2008). Learning orientation, organizational commitment and talent retention across generations: A study of European managers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 23(8), 929–953. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940810904402>
- de Menezes, L. M., & Kelliher, C. (2011). Flexible working and performance: A systematic review of the evidence for a business case. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 13(4), 452–474. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2011.00301>
- Diaz, I., Chiaburu, D. S., Zimmerman, R. D., & Boswell, W. R. (2012). Communication technology: Pros and cons of constant connection to work. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(2), 500–508. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.08.007>
- Dokadia, A., Rai, S., & Chawla, D. (2015). Multigenerational Differences in Work Attributes & Motivation: An Empirical Study. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 51(1), 81–96. Retrieved from: <http://www.jstor.org>
- Dearing, H. (2016). Designing gender-equalizing parental leave schemes: What can we learn from recent empirical evidence from Europe? *Journal of Family Research*, 28(1), 39–64. <https://doi.org/10.3224/zff.v28i1.22920>
- Dries, N. (2013). The psychology of talent management: A review and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), 272–285. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2013.05.001>
- Elkhwesky, Z., Salem, I. E., & El Manzani, Y. (2024). Talented women for senior positions across multi-regions: Challenges, strategies, and future research agenda. *Management Review Quarterly*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11301-023-00383>
- England, P., & Farkas, G. (1986). *Households, employment, and gender: A social, economic, and demographic view*. Aldine Publishing.

- Feeney, M. K., & Stritch, J. M. (2017). Family-friendly policies, gender, and work–life balance in the public sector. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 37(2), 149–170. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X>
- Ferdous, T., Ali, M., & French, E. (2023). Use of flexible work practices and employee outcomes: The role of work-life balance and employee age. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 29, 833–853. <https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2020.44>
- Foster, M. D., Herzog, J. R., & Hausenblas, H. A. (2009). Gender role ideologies, work–family conflict, and perceived work–family balance: A study of working parents. *Sex Roles*, 60(3–4), 236–248. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-008-9537-0>
- Freund, A., & Carmeli, A. (2003). The relationship between work commitment and organizational citizenship behavior among lawyers in the private sector. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 5(2), 93–113
- Frone, M. R. (2003). Work–family balance. *Handbook of occupational health psychology (Eds. 1st)*, (pp. 143–162). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/10474-007>
- Gerhart, B., & Milkovich, G. T. (1994). Organizational differences in managerial compensation and financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(4), 1152–1178. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256671>
- Goñi-Legaz, S., & Ollo-López, A. (2016). The impact of family-friendly practices on work–family balance in Spain. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 11, 983–1007. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-015-9417>
- González, F., Selva, C., & Sunyer, A. (2021). The influence of total compensation on job satisfaction. *Universitas Psychologica*, 20, 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.11144/Javeriana.upsy20.itcj>
- González, M. J., Cortina, C., & Rodríguez, J. (2017). The role of work–life balance practices in the context of family-friendly policies. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 37(1/2), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJSSP-04-2016-0048>
- Gragnano, A., Simbula, S., & Miglioretti, M. (2020). Work–life balance: Weighing the importance of work–family and work–health balance. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(3), 907. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17030907>
- Grant, C. A., Wallace, L. M., & Spurgeon, P. C. (2013). An exploration of the psychological factors affecting remote e-worker's job effectiveness, well-being and work-life balance. *Employee Relations*, 35(5), 527–546. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ER-08-2012-0059>
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Allen, T. D. (2011). Work–Life Balance: A Review and Extension of the Literature. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(2), 164–181. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.02.007>

- Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2006). When work and family are allies: A theory of work-family enrichment. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(1), 72–92. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2006.19379625>
- Gregory, S. K. (2021). Managing labour market re-entry following maternity leave among women in the Australian higher education sector. *Journal of Sociology*, 57(3), 577–594. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1440783320927089>
- Gutman, L. M., Perowne, R., Younas, F., & O'Hanrachaigh, E. (2024). Making hybrid work for diverse staff in higher education: A behaviour change approach. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 78(3), 784–806. <https://doi.org/10.1111/hequ.12487>
- Haar J. M. (2013). Testing a new measure of work-life balance: a study of parent and non-parent employees from New Zealand. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management* 24(17):3305-3324. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.775175>
- Haar, J. M., Russo, M., Suñe, A., & Ollier-Malaterre, A. (2014). Outcomes of work-life balance on job satisfaction, life satisfaction and mental health: A study across seven cultures. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 85(3), 361–373 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.08.010>
- Hagger, M. S., Smith, S. R., Keech, J. J., Moyers, S. A., & Hamilton, K. (2020). Predicting social distancing intention and behavior during the COVID-19 pandemic: An integrated social cognition model. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine*. <https://doi.org/10.1093/abm/kaaa073>
- Hammer, L. B., Cullen, J. C., Neal, M. B., Sinclair, R. R., & Shafiro, M. V. (2005). The longitudinal effects of work-family conflict and positive spillover on depressive symptoms among dual-earner couples. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 10(2), 138–154. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.10.2.138>
- Han, E., Lee, Y., Lee, S., Kim, S., Ham, S., Lee, W., Choi, W.-J., & Kang, S.-K. (2024). Association between flexible work arrangement and sleep problems among paid workers: Using the 6th Korean Working Conditions Survey. *Safety and Health at Work*, 15, 53–58. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.shaw.2023.12.005>
- Hari, A. (2017). Who gets to 'work hard, play hard'? Gendering the work-life balance rhetoric in Canadian tech companies. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 24(2), 121–146. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gwao.12146>
- Heshmati, A., Honkaniemi, H., & Juárez, S. P. (2023). The effect of parental leave on parents' mental health: a systematic review. *The Lancet Public Health*, 8(1), e57–e75. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667\(22\)00311-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667(22)00311-5)
- Hernández Martínez, L. E., & Chunga-Liu, Z. E. (2024). Job happiness: Influence of work flexibility through work-life balance and gender moderation. *Journal of Management Development*, 43(2), 187–199. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-04-2023-0118>
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. B. (1959). *The motivation to work* (2nd ed.). John Wiley & Sons.

- Hiessl, C. (2020). Caring for balance? Legal approaches to those who struggle to juggle work and adult care. *International Journal of Comparative Labour Law and Industrial Relations*, 36(1), 107–138. <https://doi.org/10.54648/IJCL2020006>
- Hilbrecht, M., & Smale, B. (2016). The contribution of paid vacation time to well-being among employed Canadians. *Leisure/Loisir*, 40(1), 31–54. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14927713.2016.1144964>
- Hildebrandt, E. (2006). Balance between work and life—New corporate impositions through flexible working time or opportunity for time sovereignty? *European Societies*, 8(2), 251–271. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616690600645001>
- Hoole, C., & Hotz, G. (2016). The impact of talent management on employee engagement: The role of job satisfaction. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 42(1), Article a1329. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v42i1.1329>
- Howard LM, Khalifeh H. (2020). Perinatal mental health: a review of progress and challenges. *World Psychiatry*, 19: 313–27. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wps.20769>
- Hsu, D. H., & Tambe, P. (2024). Remote work and job applicant diversity: Evidence from technology startups. *Management Science*. <https://doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.2022.03391>
- Huebener, M., Kuehnle, D., Spieß, C. K., & Schmitz, S. (2017). Parental leave policies and socio-economic gaps in child development: Evidence from a German parental leave reform. *Labour Economics*, 47, 91–107. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.labeco.2017.05.008>
- Hölter, K., Kullman, K., Quecke, F., Schirmer, S., Schmergal, C., Sutura, M. (2023), „Warum die Generation Z anders arbeiten will – und damit jetzt alle ansteckt“, *Spiegel Online*, <https://www.spiegel.de>
- Inanc H. (2016). Unemployment, Temporary Work, and Subjective Well-Being: The Gendered Effect of Spousal Labor Market Insecurity. *OECD Statistics Working Papers*, 2016/04. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0003122418772061>
- Ismail, A., Madrah, H., Amin, S. M., & Rahman, N. A. (2014). Effect of workplace career programme, perceived career development support and career satisfaction on employees' job satisfaction. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(9), 688–699. <https://doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n9p688>
- Jackson, L. T. B., & Fransman, E. I. (2018). Flexi work, financial well-being, work–life balance and their effects on subjective experiences of productivity and job satisfaction of females in an institution of higher learning. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 21(1). <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajems.v21i1.1487>
- Jeon, S. H., & Hur, H. (2023). Family leave policies and employee attitudinal outcomes in Korea: The moderating and joint moderating effects of gender and marital status. *Korea Observer*, 54(3), 465–493. <https://doi.org/10.29152/KOIKS.2023.54.3.465>

- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., Podsakoff, N. P., Shaw, J. C., & Rich, B. L. (2010). The relationship between pay and job satisfaction: A meta-analysis of the literature. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 77(2), 157-167. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.04.002>
- Jurgensen, C. E. (1978). Job preferences (what makes a job good or bad?). *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 63(3), 267-276. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.63.3.267>
- Kahneman D. & Deaton A. (2010). High income improves evaluation of life but not emotional well-being. *Psychol Cogn Sci.*; 107: 16489-16493. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1011492107> PMID: 20823223
- Kalliath, T. and Brough, P. (2008), “ Work-life balance: a review of the meaning of the balance construct ”, *Journal of Management & Organization*, Vol. 14 No. 3, pp. 323-327. <https://doi.org/10.5172/jmo.837.14.3.323>
- Kamerman, S. B. (2000). *Parental leave policies: An essential ingredient in early childhood education and care policies*. *Social Policy Report*, 14(2), 3-15. <https://srcd.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/j.2379-3988.2000.tb00061.x>
- Kelliher, C., Richardson, J., & Boiarintseva, G. (2019). All of work? All of life? Reconceptualising work-life balance for the 21st century. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 29(2), 97-112. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12215>
- Kelling, A. S., Bartsch, R. A., Walther, C. A. P., Lucas, A., & Santiago-Vázquez, L. Z. (2024). Work-life balance of academic parents: Expectations and experiences of mothers and fathers. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*, 16(5), 1614-1626. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JARHE-03-2023-0128>
- Kerksieck, P., Kujanpää, M., de Bloom, J., Brauchli, R., & Bauer, G. F. (2024). A new perspective on balancing life domains: Work-nonwork balance crafting. *BMC Public Health*, 24, 1099. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-024-18646-z>
- Kim, H.-Y., Hong, Y.-C., Lee, N., Park, J., Lee, K.-S., Yun, J.-Y., & Lee, D.-W. (2023). Working from home, work-life balance, and depression/anxiety among Korean workers in the COVID-19 pandemic period: A mediation analysis. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 65(2), 98-103. <https://doi.org/10.1097/JOM.0000000000002726>
- Klimack, W., Klimack, W., & Klimack, W. (2019). Diversity in the workplace: Work-life balance and job satisfaction. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, Article 1937. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01937>
- Kluve, J., & Tamm, M. (2013). Parental leave regulations, mothers' labor force attachment and fathers' childcare involvement: Evidence from a natural experiment. *Journal of Population Economics*, 26(3), 983-1005. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00148-012-0448-4>
- Kooij, D. T. A. M., Jansen, P. G. W., Dijkers, J. S. E., & de Lange, A. H. (2014). Managing aging workers: A mixed methods study on bundles of HR practices for aging workers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(15), 2192-2212. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.872169>

- Kossek, E. E., & Lautsch, B. A. (2018). Work-life flexibility for whom? Occupational status and work-life inequality in upper, middle, and lower level jobs. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 12(1), 5–36. <https://doi.org/10.5465/annals.2016.0059>
- Kossek, E. E., & Michel, J. S. (2011). Flexible work schedules. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Vol. 1: Building and developing the organization* (pp. 535–572). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/12169-017>
- Kupperschmidt, B. R. (2000). Multigeneration employees: Strategies for effective management. *The Health Care Manager*, 19(1), 65–76. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00126450-200019010-00011>
- Kupperschmidt, B. R. (2003). Addressing multigenerational conflict: Mutual respect and carefronting as strategy. *Online Journal of Issues in Nursing*, 8(2), Manuscript 6. <https://doi.org/10.3912/OJIN.Vol8No02Man06>
- Kwon, M., & Jeon, S. H. (2017). Why permit telework? Exploring the determinants of California city governments' decisions to permit telework. *Public Personnel Management*, 46(3), 239–262. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026017717240>
- Lachance-Grzela, M., & Bouchard, G. (2010). Why do women do the lion's share of housework? A decade of research. *Sex Roles*, 63(11–12), 767–780. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-010-9797-z>
- Lambrianou, X., Tzerefos, C., Janssen, I. K., Mihaylova, S., Aydin, A. E. E., Al-Ahmad, S., Broekman, M. L. D., Gazioglu, N., Hernandez Duran, S., Ivan, D. L., Karampouga, M., Magnadottir, H. B., Pajaj, E., Rodríguez-Hernández, A., Rosseau, G., Salokorpi, N., Tsianaka, E., Vayssiere, P., Murphy, M., & Tasiou, A. (2022). Gender differences in work-life balance of European neurosurgeons. *Brain and Spine*, 2, 101100. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bas.2022.101100>
- Lewis, S. (2001). Restructuring workplace cultures: The ultimate work-family challenge? *Women in Management Review*, 16(1), 21–29. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09649420110380256>
- Lockwood, N. R. (2006). Work/life balance: Challenges and solutions. *SHRM Research Quarterly*, 2006(2), 1–12. <https://www.shrm.org/hr-today/trends-and-forecasting/special-reports-and-expert-views/Documents/Work-Life-Balance.pdf>
- Lazăr, I., Osoian, C., & Rațiu, P. (2010). The role of work-life balance practices in order to improve organizational performance. *European Research Studies Journal*, 13(1), 201–214. <https://doi.org/10.35808/ersj/267>
- Leitão, M. (2019). Time-sharing in parental leave: Why and how fathers assess their time to care home alone. *Portuguese Journal of Social Science*, 18(3), 265–282. https://doi.org/10.1386/pjss_00010_1
- Leoni, T. (2019). Absence from Work Report 2019. Absences due to Sickness and Accidents in Austria. *Working Time and Health. Austrian Institute of Economic*

Research. Retrieved

from: <https://www.wifo.ac.at/publikationen/publikationssuche?detail-view>

Linde K, Lehnig F, Nagl M, Kersting A. (2020). The association between breastfeeding and attachment: a systematic review. *Midwifery*; 81: 102592. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.midw.2019.102592>

Lockwood, N. R. (2003). *Work/life balance: Challenges and solutions*. SHRM Research Quarterly. Society for Human Resource Management. Retrieved from <https://www.shrm.org/>

Lott, Y. (2020). Does flexibility help employees switch off from work? Flexible working-time arrangements and cognitive work-to-home spillover for women and men in Germany. *Social Indicators Research*, 151, 471–494. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-018-2031>

Lott, Y., & Chung, H. (2016). Gender discrepancies in the outcomes of schedule control on overtime hours and income in Germany. *European Sociological Review*, 32(6), 752–765. <https://doi.org/10.1093/esr/jcw032>

Macchioni, E., & Prandini, R. (2019). Work–life balance measures of working carers and well-being satisfaction within couple relationships: The result of an Italian policy looking through the gender lens. *Social Sciences*, 8(4), 109. <https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci8040109>

Maertz, C. P., & Boyar, S. L. (2010). Work-Family Conflict, Enrichment, and Balance under “Levels” and “Episodes” Approaches. *Journal of Management*, 37(1), 68-69 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310382455>

Marinho, M. M., de Souza, C. R. B., & da Silva, F. Q. B. (2021). The importance of software team behaviour during the COVID-19 pandemic: A survey of software engineers. *Journal of Systems and Software*, 181, 111061. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jss.2021.111061>

Martin, L., Nguyen-Thi, U. T., & Mothe, C. (2021). Human resource practices, perceived employability and turnover intention: Does age matter? *Applied Economics*, 53(28), 3306–3320. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00036846.2021.1886238>

Martínez, P., Carrasco, M. J., Aza, G., Blanco, A., & Espinar, I. (2011). Family gender role and guilt in Spanish dual-earner families. *Sex Roles*, 65(11–12), 813–826. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-011-0031>

Massaro, M., Dumay, J., & Guthrie, J. (2016). On the shoulders of giants: Undertaking a structured literature review in accounting. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, 29(5), 767–801. <https://doi.org/10.1108/AAAJ-01-2015-1939>

McNall, L.A.; Nicklin, J.M.; Masuda, A.D. (2010). A meta-analytic review of the consequences associated with work–family enrichment. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25, 381–396. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-009-9141-1>

- Meil, G., Romero-Balsas, P., & Rogero-García, J. (2018). Parental leave in Spain: Use, motivations, and implications. *Revista Española de Sociología*, 27(3 Suppl.), 27–43. <https://doi.org/10.22325/fes/res.2018.32>
- Melchior, M., Caspi, A., Milne, B. J., Danese, A., Poulton, R., & Moffitt, T. E. (2007). Work stress precipitates depression and anxiety in young, working women and men. *Psychological Medicine*, 37(8), 1119–1129. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291707000414>
- Melo, P.C., Ge, J., Craig, T., Brewer, M.J. and Thronicker, I. (2018), “Does WLB affect pro-environmental behaviour? Evidence for the UK using longitudinal microdata”, *Ecological Economics*, Vol. 145, pp. 170-181. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2017.09.006>
- Mondy, R. W. (2008). *Human resource management* (10th ed., pp. 246–249). Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Moran, J., & Koslowski, A. (2019). Making use of work–family balance entitlements: How to support fathers with combining employment and caregiving. *Community, Work & Family*, 22(1), 111–128. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2018.1470966>
- Nadeem, S., & Henry, C. (2003). Power dynamics in the long-term development of employee-friendly flexible working. *Women in Management Review*, 18(1/2), 32–49. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09649420310462315>
- Naithani, P. (2010). Overview of work-life balance discourse and its relevance in current economic scenario. *Asian Social Science*, 6(6), 148–155. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v6n6p148>
- Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2010). The relationships of age with job attitudes: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 63(3), 677–718. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570>
- Ninaus, K., Diehl, S., & Terlutter, R. (2021). Employee perceptions of information and communication technologies in work life, perceived burnout, job satisfaction and the role of work-family balance. *Journal of Business Research*, 136, 652–666. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2021.08.007>
- Niebuhr, A. (2010). Migration and innovation: Does cultural diversity matter for regional R&D activity? *Papers in Regional Science*, 89(3), 563–585. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1435-5957.2009.00271.x>
- Noble, S. M., & Schewe, C. D. (2003). Cohort segmentation: An exploration of its validity. *Journal of Business Research*, 56(12), 979–987. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963\(02\)00268-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963(02)00268-0)
- Oakman, J., Kinsman, N., Stuckey, R., Graham, M., & Weale, V. (2020). A rapid review of mental and physical health effects of working at home: how do we optimize health? *BMC Public Health*, 20, Article 1825. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-020-09875-z>

- Obina, W. F., Ndibazza, J., Kabanda, R., Musana, J., & Nanyingi, M. (2024). Factors associated with perceived work–life balance among health workers in Gulu District, Northern Uganda: A health facility-based cross-sectional study. *BMC Public Health*, 24, 278. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-024-17776-8>
- O'Brien, M., & Moss, P. (2022). Parental leave policies in Europe: Progress and prospects for fathers. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 42(1/2), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJSSP-02-2021-0043>
- Ollier-Malaterre, A., & Foucreault, A. (2017). Cross-national work–life research: Cultural and structural impacts for individuals and organizations. *Journal of Management*, 43(1), 111–136. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316655873>
- Ollier-Malaterre, A. (2023). Social contagion in employees' assessment of work-life practices: A framework of social contagion processes, assessment dimensions, and national context. *Community, Work & Family*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2023.2244656>
- Oludayo, O. A., Falola, H. O., Obianuju, A., & Demilade, F. (2018). Work-Life Balance Initiative as a Predictor of Employee's Behavioural Outcomes. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, 17(1), 1-17.
- Omondi, A. A., & K'Obonyo, P. (2018). Flexible work schedules: A critical review of literature. *The Strategic Journal of Business & Change Management*, 5(4), 2069-2086. Retrieved from: <https://www.researchgate.net/>
- Paul, J., Lim, W. M., O'Cass, A., Hao, A. W., & Bresciani, S. (2021). Scientific procedures and rationales for systematic literature reviews (SPAR-4-SLR). *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 00, 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12695>
- Petroulas, E., Brown, D., & Sundin, H. (2010). Generational characteristics and their impact on preference for management control systems. *Australian Accounting Review*, 20(3), 221–231. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1835-2561.2010.00099>
- Piltch-Loeb, R., Rosenkrantz, A. B., & Merdjanoff, A. A. (2020). Identifying barriers and facilitators of success for female radiology researchers: An analysis of in-depth interviews with nationally recognized leaders of the field. *Journal of the American College of Radiology*, 17(8), 1042–1050. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacr.2020.03.020>
- Powell, G. N., Greenhaus, J. H., Allen, T. D., & Johnson, R. E. (2019). Introduction to Special Topic Forum: Advancing and Expanding Work-Life Theory from Multiple Perspectives, *Academy of Management Review* 44(1), 54–71. <https://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2018.0310>
- PwC, University of Southern California, & London Business School. (2013). *PwC's NextGen: A global generational study – Evolving talent strategy to match the new workforce reality*. PwC. Retrieved from: <https://www.pwc.com>

- Raja, S., & Stein, S. L. (2014). Work–life balance: History, costs, and budgeting for balance. *Clinics in Colon and Rectal Surgery*, 27(2), 71–74. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0034-1376172>
- Rapoport, R., Bailyn, L., Fletcher, J. K., & Pruitt, B. H. (2002). *Beyond work-family balance: Advancing gender equity and workplace performance*. Jossey-Bass.
- Ramírez, I., Fornells, A., & Del Cerro, S. (2022). Understanding undergraduates' work values as a tool to reduce organizational turnover. *Education + Training*, 64(3), 445-459. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ET-07-2021-0254>
- Richert-Kaźmierska, A., & Stankiewicz, K. (2016). Work–life balance: Does age matter? *Work*, 55(4), 679–688. <https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-162435>
- Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. A. (2010). *Organizational behavior* (14th ed., pp. 38–41). Pearson Education.
- Rocha, M. (2021). Promoting gender equality through regulation: The case of parental leave. *The Theory and Practice of Legislation*, 9(1), 35–57. <https://doi.org/10.1080/20508840.2020.1830565>
- Roe, B., Whittington, L. A., Fein, S. B., & Teisl, M. F. (1999). Is there competition between breastfeeding and maternal employment? *Demography*, 36(2), 157–171. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2648104>
- Romero-Balsas, P. (2023). Factors affecting the length of unpaid parental leave in Spain. *Journal of Family Studies*, 29(3), 1117-1133. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13229400.2022.203227>
- Rosen, S. (1986). The theory of equalizing differences. In O. Ashenfelter & R. Layard (Eds.), *Handbook of Labor Economics* (Vol. 1, pp. 641–692). Elsevier. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1573-4463\(86\)01015-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1573-4463(86)01015-6)
- Rubery, J. (2015). Austerity and the future for gender equality in Europe. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 68(4), 715–741. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0019793915580186>
- Ruhm, C. J. (2000). Parental leave and child health. *Journal of Health Economics*, 19(6), 931-960. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-6296\(00\)00047-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-6296(00)00047-3)
- Rynes, S. L., Gerhart, B., & Minette, K. A. (2004). The importance of pay in employee motivation: Discrepancies between what people say and what they do. *Human Resource Management*, 43(4), 381–394. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20031>
- Sacks DW, Stevenson B, Wolfers J. (2012). The new stylized facts about income and subjective well-being. *Emotion* 12(6):1181-7. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029873> PMID: 23231724
- Schnell, T. (2016). Meaning in life operationalized. *MF Norwegian School of Theology, Religion and Society*. <https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.1.3005.7363>

- Seo, H. (2023). Gendered labour market patterns across Europe: Does family policy mitigate feminization of outsiders? *Journal of European Social Policy*, 33(1), 3-16.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/09589287221148916>
- Sharafizad, F., Paull, M., & Omari, M. (2011). Flexible Work Arrangements: Accessibility in a University Environment. *The Australian Universities' Review*, 53(2), 43-49.
<https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/informit.388082820789676>
- Shockley, K. M., & Allen, T. D. (2007). When flexibility helps: Another look at the availability of flexible work arrangements and work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 71(3), 479-493. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2007.08.006>
- Sirgy, M. & Lee, DJ. (2018). Work-Life Balance: an Integrative Review. *Applied Research Quality Life* 13, 229-254. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-017-9509-8>
- Smidt, T. B. & Pétursdóttir, G. M.. (2017). How do you take time? Work-life balance policies versus neoliberal, social, and cultural incentive mechanisms in Icelandic higher education. *European Educational Research Journal*, 16(2-3), 123-140.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1474904116673075>
- Smith, E. F., Gilmer, D. O., & Stockdale, M. S. (2019). The importance of culture and support for workplace flexibility: An ecological framework for understanding flexibility support structures. *Business Horizons*, 62(5), 557-566.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2019.04.002>
- Snyder, H. (2019). Literature review as a research methodology: An overview and guidelines. *Journal of Business Research*, 104, 333-339.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.07.039>
- Sorouri, K., Khan, S., Bowden, S., Searle, S., Carr, L., & Simpson, J. S. (2021). The glaring gender bias in the operating room: A qualitative study of factors influencing career selection for first-year medical students. *Journal of Surgical Education*, 78(5), 1516-1523. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsurg.2021.01.014>
- Southworth, E. M. (2014). Shedding gender stigmas: Work-life balance equity in the 21st century. *Business Horizons*, 57(1), 97-106. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2013.10.003>
- Sparber, C. (2010). Racial diversity and macroeconomic productivity across US states and sectors. *Regional Studies*, 44(1), 71-85. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00343400802360431>
- Spence NJ. (2008). The long-term consequences of childbearing: physical and psychological well-being of mothers in later life. *Research on Aging*; 30: 722-51.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0164027508322575>
- Stirpe, L., & Zárraga-Oberty, C. (2017). Are high-performance work systems always a valuable retention tool? The roles of workforce feminization and flexible work arrangements. *European Management Journal*, 35(2), 128-136.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2016>

- Stringer, C., Didham, J., & Theivananthampillai, P. (2011). Motivation, pay satisfaction, and job satisfaction of front-line employees. *Qualitative Research in Accounting & Management*, 8(2), 161–179. <https://doi.org/10.1108/11766091111137564>
- Suedekum, J., Wolf, K., & Blien, U. (2009). Cultural diversity and local labour markets. *Regional Studies*, 48(1), 173–191. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00343404.2012.697142>
- Tanaka, S. (2005). Parental leave and child health across OECD countries. *The Economic Journal*, 115(500), F7–F28. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0013-0133.2005.00970.x>
- Tanquerel, S., & Grau-Grau, M. (2019). Unmasking work-family balance barriers and strategies among working fathers in the workplace. *Organization*, 26(1), 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1350508419838692>
- Thompson, C. A., & Prottas, D. J. (2005). Relationships among organizational family support, job autonomy, perceived control, and employee well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 10(4), 100–118. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.10.4.100>
- Thornton, M. (2016). Work/life or work/work? Corporate legal practice in the twenty-first century. *International Journal of the Legal Profession*, 23(1), 13–39. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09695958.2015.1093939>
- Tso, H. H., & Parikh, J. R. (2021). Mitigating delayed academic promotion of female radiologists due to the COVID pandemic. *Clinical Imaging*, 76, 195–198. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clinimag.2021.04.010>
- Ulrich, D., & Smallwood, N. (2003). *Why the bottom line isn't: How to build value through people and organization* (pp. 29–86). John Wiley & Sons.
- Valarino, I., Duvander, A.-Z., Haas, L., & Neyer, G. (2017). Exploring leave policy preferences: A comparison of Austria, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States. *Social Politics: International Studies in Gender, State & Society*, 24(2), 1–30. <https://doi.org/10.1093/sp/jxx020>
- Valet, P., Sauer, C., & Tolsma, J. (2021). Preferences for work arrangements: A discrete choice experiment. *PLOS ONE*, 16(7). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone>
- Verbrugghe, M., Kuipers, Y., Vriesacker, B., Peeters, I., & Mortelmans, K. (2016). Sustainable employability for older workers: An explorative survey of Belgian companies. *Archives of Public Health*, 74, 15. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13690-016-0128>
- Villablanca, A. C., Beckett, L., Nettiksimmons, J., & Howell, L. P. (2013). Improving knowledge, awareness, and use of flexible career policies through an accelerator intervention at the University of California, Davis, School of Medicine. *Academic Medicine*, 88(6), 771–777. <https://doi.org/10.1097/ACM.0b013e31828f8974>
- Voydanoff, P. (2004). The effects of work demands and resources on work-to-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 66, 398–412. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2004.00028.x>

- Waizenegger, L., McKenna, B., Cai, W., & Bendz, T. (2020). An affordance perspective of team collaboration and enforced working from home during COVID-19. *European Journal of Information Systems*, 29(4), 429–442. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0960085X.2020.1800417>
- Wang, B., Liu, Y., Qian, J., & Parker, S. K. (2021). Achieving effective remote working during the COVID-19 pandemic: A work design perspective. *Applied Psychology*, 70(1), 16–59. <https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12290>.
- Waters, M., & Bardoel, E. (2006). Work-family policies in the context of higher education: Useful or symbolic? *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 44(1), 67–82. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1038411106061509>
- Wepfer, A. G., Brauchli, R., Jenny, G. J., Hämmig, O., & Bauer, G. F. (2015). The experience of work-life balance across family-life stages in Switzerland: A cross-sectional questionnaire-based study. *BMC Public Health*, 15, 1290. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-015-2584-6>
- Westerman, J. W., & Yamamura, J. H. (2007). Generational preferences for work environment fit: Effects on employee outcomes. *Career Development International*, 12(2), 150–161. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430710733631>
- Wheatley, D. (2016). Employee satisfaction and use of flexible working arrangements. *Work, Employment and Society*, 30(4), 573–589. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017016631447>
- White, M., Hill, S., McGovern, P., Mills, C., & Smeaton, D. (2003). 'High-performance' management practices, working hours and work–life balance. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 41(2), 175–195. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8543.00268>
- Winda, O., Nayati, U. H., & Arik, P. (2017). Impact of compensation and career development on job satisfaction and employees' performance. *Russian Journal of Agricultural and Socio-Economic Sciences*, 4(64). <https://doi.org/10.18551/rjoas.2017-04.15>
- Wright, P. M., Dunford, B. B., & Snell, S. A. (2001). Human resources and the resource-based view of the firm. *Journal of Management*, 27(6), 701–721. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630102700607>
- Yamaguchi, K. (2019). Parental leave and mothers' long-term employment and earnings: Evidence from a natural experiment. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 37(2), 509–551. <https://doi.org/10.1086/700193>
- Yerkes, M. A., Besamusca, J., van der Zwan, R., André, S., Remery, C., & Peeters, I. (2024). Gender inequality in work location, childcare and work-life balance: Phase-specific differences throughout the COVID-19 pandemic. *PLOS ONE*, 19(6), e0302633. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0302633>
- Yoon, S., & Park, N. (2024). Development of work-life/family policy and gendered division of childcare responsibility: The case of South Korea. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 44(1/2), 59–75. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJSSP-12-2022-0325>

II. Deutsche Zusammenfassung:

Die Bedeutung einer ausgewogenen Work-Life-Balance (WLB) hat in den letzten Jahrzehnten stark zugenommen; diese Tendenz spiegelt sich auch in der wissenschaftlichen Literature wider. Währenddessen wurden die Arbeitsmärkte zunehmend diverser und Arbeitskräfte freizeitorientierter. Um den vielfältigen, individuellen Bedürfnissen der Arbeitnehmer, hinsichtlich ihrer Work-Life-Balance gerecht zu werden, müssen Arbeitgeber ein entsprechend umfangreiches Angebot an Work-Life Balance Maßnahmen anbieten können. In dieser semi-systematischen Literaturanalyse wurden demografisch spezifische Präferenzen hinsichtlich bestimmter Work-Life Balance Praktiken untersucht und zusammengefasst. Hierbei lag der Fokus insbesondere auf der Flexibilität im Arbeitsalltag, der Elternzeit, individuelle karrierefördernde Weiterbildungsangebote sowie der finanziellen Vergütung der Mitarbeiter:innen. Besonderes Augenmerk wurde auf die Unterschiede zwischen Männer und Frauen, jüngeren und älteren Arbeitenden, sowie deren Abhängigkeit von verschiedenen familiären Lebensphasen geschenkt. Die Literatureanalyse umfasst eine Auswahl von 70 sorgfältig ausgewählten Fachartikeln aus wissenschaftlich renommierten Zeitschriften. Die Ergebnisse offenbaren bemerkenswerte Unterschiede in den Work-Life Balance Präferenzen verschiedener Geschlechter sowie deren Nutzung, welche bestehende geschlechterspezifische Ungleichheiten auf dem Arbeitsmarkt weiter verstärken. Zudem wurden Unterschiede zwischen Arbeitnehmer:innen verschiedenen Alters festgestellt, die auf unterschiedliche Lebenssituationen oder familiäre Umständen zurückzuführen sind. Darüber hinaus wurden generationstypische Merkmale identifiziert, die das Verhältnis zur Arbeit und zum Work-Life Balance Angebot prägen. Die Erkenntnisse dieser Arbeit liefern demografisch differenzierte Einblicke, die die Qualität zukünftiger Forschungen verbessern und die Relevanz eines vielfältigen Work-Life Balance Angebots unterstreichen, um der zunehmenden Vielfalt individueller Bedürfnisse im Arbeitsmarkt gerecht zu werden und eine produktive sowie arbeitnehmerfreundliche Arbeit zu garantieren.