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Links Between Work–Family Conflict, Enrichment, and Adolescent Well-Being: Parents' and Children's Perspectives

Objective: *To analyze both parents' and adolescents' perspectives on work–family conflict (WFC) and enrichment (WFE) and its crossover to adolescent well-being, via quality of parent–child relationships.*
Background: *Parents' work and family experiences are associated with parenting and may crossover to adolescent well-being. Adolescents' outcomes and perceptions about parents' work–family balance have been disregarded, despite acknowledgment of adolescence as a crucial developmental period.*
Method: *A convenience sample of 209 dual-earner families including both couple members and their adolescent children (aged 13–18 years) participated. WFC, WFE, and parent–child relationship dimensions (coercion, autonomy support, and warmth) were addressed by both parents' and adolescent perspectives, while adolescent well-being was assessed using children's report. A nested design and dyadic data analyses with SEM were used.*
Results: *Mothers' WFC and both parents' WFE were significantly associated with the quality of the relationships with children, and only mothers' WFC was indirectly linked to the well-being of adolescents. The perceptions of adolescents show that both parents' WFE was linked to the quality of the relationship with children, but only mothers' WFE was indirectly linked to the well-being of adolescents.*
Conclusion: *These findings emphasize adolescents' critical perspective over their parents' work–family interface and highlight the importance of considering multiple informants in research.*
Implications: *Practitioners may use these findings to foster a sensible approach on how the work–family interface interferes with parent–adolescent relationship, diminishing strains rooted on parents' perspective. Discussion groups on work–family linkages and vocational programs that allow adolescents to think critically about their parents' work experiences and how it affects them.*

As a dual-earner family paradigm arises in most societies, individuals have been seeking a way to be simultaneously productive in the professional world and effective in their family sphere. It is acknowledged that what happens in one of these domains can positively or negatively affect the other domain in a process of spillover (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Lambert, 1990). Research on the work–family interface has emerged in recent decades with the intent of providing explanations on how the two roles are interplayed by the individual, but also by the close others, in a process of crossover (Westman, 2001).

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Key Words: adolescents, dyadic analyses, family systems, parent–child relationship, well-being, work–family conflict, work–family enrichment.

While families with toddlers or young children have been progressively included in recent analyses on the work–family interface, families with adolescents have received little attention (Lawson et al., 2014), and so, too, has adolescents' perceptions on how parents articulate work and family roles (Tisdale & Pitt-Catsouphes, 2012). To focus on adolescents is particularly relevant because this age group continues to benefit from high-quality parenting and also is more able than younger children to provide their own accounts of the family situation. Indeed, children are aware of how work affects their parents' lives, which is expressed, for example, in the wishes they convey concerning their parents' work (Galinsky, 1999) and in their concerns about the economic situation of their family (UNICEF, 2013). Embodying adolescent views emphasizes their agency and perspective on the issue of work–family interface and responds to calls for more research from children's point of view (e.g., Galinsky, 1999; Perry-Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000).

Previous work–family research mostly has been focused on (a) studying the intraindividual transference of stress across work and family (work–family conflict; WFC), without systematically considering both negative and positive perspectives (work–family enrichment; WFE) nor the interdependence between members of a family; (b) how work–family dynamics influence parenting and young children's behavior, disregarding other important life stages of children, such as adolescence; and (c) parents' perceptions of their own work–family interface and of its influence on their children's well-being, overlooking the children's views on parental work–family balance. To fill in these gaps, in this study, we propose an analysis of both parents' and children's perspectives on how work and family are interplayed, as well as its impact on adolescents' well-being, via parent–child relationships.

Our approach is useful and innovative in a two ways. First, it allows us to address how intraindividual experiences, such as WFC and WFE, shape the individual's own quality of the parent–adolescent relationship and the partner's quality of parenting, further linking it to adolescents' well-being. These linkages are supported in current, although meager, evidence of crossover processes between dual-earner couple members, and it further supplements available evidence by stressing the linkages with adolescent children. Second, this approach allows for comparisons of the same process (WFC and WFE linkages to parenting and adolescent well-being), taking into account the perspectives of parents and adolescents. The distinction of these two standpoints may contribute to a refinement in the current state of the art and research on what may be more important in determining the well-being of adolescents.

Work–Family Conflict and Enrichment: A Systemic Approach

According to ecological and family systems theories, family is a dynamic system composed of several individuals and influenced by the constant changes that occur in the environment and in individuals (Cox & Paley, 1997). Both work and family experiences can affect the system's stability and identity, given that both domains are seen as a function of processes, people, contexts, and temporal characteristics that, together, create an accumulative and interactive effect (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Initial research on the work and family interface neglected this dynamic interaction, but it is now broadly acknowledged that work and family are not independent and segmented domains of an individual's life. However, prior studies focused almost entirely on role strain, where the core of the work–family interface was centered on how both domains would compete for an individual's limited resources, such as time and psychological or physical energy to cope with everyday difficulties (for reviews, see Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; Byron, 2005; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). From this standpoint, WFC has been defined as "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77).

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) proposed a comprehensive theoretical framework focused on the positive synergies that may derive from the fulfillment of multiple roles. Therefore, WFE refers to the extent to which the participation in one domain or role improves performance or enhances positive affect in another role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Both conflict and enrichment can occur from either role (i.e., work or family) and operate in either direction.

A cross-domain perspective is common and has received considerable empirical support (for a review, see Amstad et al., 2011). According to this perspective, the work-to-family direction mainly encompasses the impact of work domain antecedents on family domain consequences, whereas the family-to-work direction considers family characteristics as antecedents and work aspects as consequences.

Given our interest in clarifying linkages between work-related dynamics and adolescent children via the parent–child relationship, the work-to-family direction was chosen for this study.

Besides intraindividual impacts of the work–family interface, which have been studied the most, it is important to highlight the interdependent processes that may occur (crossover processes). *Crossover* has been defined as the dyadic–interpersonal process that occurs when one person's experiences influence another person in the same social environment (Westman, 2001). Clearly, in addition to having direct influences on their children, parents also have indirect influences on them by way of their crossover impacts on their partners (Barnett & Gareis, 2007; Bass et al., 2009; Matias et al., 2017a; Vieira, Matias, Lopez, & Matos, 2016).

In early studies, Bronfenbrenner (1979) argued that contexts individuals do not directly experience, or have contact with, can affect their development and well-being. This idea is consistent with the crossover perspective and sustains why parents' professional experiences can (in)directly affect children. Indeed, this precept is endorsed in family systems theory (Cox & Paley, 1997), suggesting that an individual's attitudes and behaviors are significantly affected by other family members' attitudes and behaviors. As such, families are best viewed as social systems in which each family member directly and indirectly influences one another.

Crossover Effects, Gender and Cultural Aspects

Indeed, besides intraindividual effects, that is, the effect of own WFC or WFE on own parenting relationship, crossover literature has suggested that the quality of father–child interactions are affected more by mothers' work and mothers' work-to-family conflict, whereas mothers' interactions with their children were not affected by fathers' work experiences (Costigan et al., 2003; Matias et al., 2017b; Vieira, Matias, Ferreira, Lopez, & Matos, 2016; Vieira, Matias, Lopez, & Matos, 2016).

Although parenting cultural norms have been changing in recent decades (Sayer, Bianchi, & Robinson, 2004; Wall, Aboim, & Cunha, 2010), in most industrialized societies, including Portugal, social expectations regarding the parenting role of mothers have been consistent over time. Women are expected to simultaneously work outside the home and to hold a primary role of caring for their children. Indeed, there is still an asymmetrical and gender-linked division of family responsibilities, with women continuing to be mainly responsible for childcare and household tasks (Matias, Andrade, & Fontaine, 2012; Perista et al., 2016; Sayer et al., 2004). Typically, these contradictory attitudes regarding women's roles put them at a higher risk of overburdening themselves in their attempt to fulfill societal expectations (Matias & Fontaine, 2015).

With regard to men, their participation in housework and care responsibilities has been changing slowly but steadily, and there is a generalized consensus that the ideal is that of a caring and involved father (Wall et al., 2010). Indeed, most men reject the outdated ideal of a distant and authoritarian father; nevertheless, recent studies have uncovered a pluralization of fatherhood profiles (Wall et al., 2010), along with an acute perception of WFC, namely, that long work hours impact the time spent with children. Therefore, fatherhood seems to be evolving into plurality, as there seems to be diversified strands of change (for a review, see Wall, 2015).

Furthermore, employer support is manifestly scarce, and, unlike some other societies, work–life balance in Portugal is not explicit in the documents or policies of organizations, which makes family-friendly measures mainly dependent on the informal decision of the supervisor (Sümer, Smithson, Guerreiro, & Granlund, 2008). This lack of institutional and organizational support for work–family balance, allied with a gendered division of family work and the full-time employment pattern of women in Portugal, heightens the challenge of balancing work and family responsibilities for Portuguese dual-earners (for reviews, see Matias et al., 2012, and Matias & Fontaine, 2015).

Work–Family Conflict and Enrichment: Linkages to Parenting and Children Outcomes

Researchers empirically claim and sustain that the way parents balance their work and family roles affects their children, via the quality of the parent–child relationship (Costigan et al., 2003; Greenberger, O'Neil, & Nagel, 1994; Matias et al., 2017a; Vieira, Matias, Ferreira, et al., 2016). Both parents' WFC has been found to impair parent–child relationships (Lawson et al., 2014, 2016; Matias et al., 2017a; Vieira, Matias, Ferreira, et al., 2016), while the impact of parents' positive work experiences (work–family enrichment) has been dividing researchers. Some studies have suggested that it is less influential than the negative work experiences for parenting (Costigan et al., 2003; Wierda-Boer & Rönkä, 2004), whereas other studies have shown that positive aspects of parents' jobs were related to better parent–child interactions (Greenberger et al., 1994; Janisse, Barnett, & Nies, 2009; Vieira, Matias, Lopez, & Matos, 2016).

WFC is associated with reduced time with children, less psychological availability, less parenting self-efficacy, more irritability, more parenting stress, and poorer parent–child interactions (Cinamon, Weisel, & Tzuk, 2007; Cooklin et al., 2015; Matias et al., 2017a), which subsequently lead to poorer child mental health (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Crouter, Bumpus, Maguire, & McHale, 1999). WFC implies that the demands of one role are depleting the resources that one needs to meet the demands of the other role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). If parents are depleted of resources, they will find it more difficult to focus on the child and establish a warm relationship and be sensitive to children's needs and may also be more prone to engage in conflict interactions. As such, WFC will likely impair parents' relationship quality, which in turn will lead to poorer child outcomes.

However, as mentioned, parents' work experiences also benefit the parenting role. WFE has been associated with less parenting stress, higher maternal parenting consistency and warmth (Cooklin et al., 2014), and lower externalizing behavior in children through its association with parent–child relationship quality (levels of involvement, attachment, parenting confidence, and stress in the relationship; Vieira, Matias, Lopez, & Matos, 2016). In a complementary approach to conflict, WFE suggests that by performing one role, the individual gathers instrumental and affective resources that may improve the quality of the performance in the other role. Thus, being in a more positive affective state and being replenished with resources (e.g., skills, knowledge, enhanced esteem, or financial resources; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) may lead to warmer and less conflicting interactions and to a higher promotion of autonomy in adolescent children, which subsequently link to better child outcomes.

Aligned with this reasoning, Repetti (2005) argued that a chain of variables connects work–family experiences with a child's well-being and adjustment, placing parent–child relationships in a mediation role between parental work–family dynamics and children's development. There is an emergent consensus that establishes autonomy, warmth, and conflict as crucial dimensions of parent–adolescent relationships (for a review, see Steinberg & Silk, 2002; see also Skinner, Johnson, & Snyder, 2005). A parenting style that guarantees structure, warmth, involvement, and autonomy support for children promotes children's motivation, persistence, and well-being (Deci & Ryan, 1985), as well as better parent–child relationships, and also decreases adolescents' problematic behaviors (Steinberg, 2001).

Most of the reviewed studies have focused on young children, namely preschool-age children (e.g., Cinamon et al., 2017; Cooklin et al., 2015; Matias et al., 2017a; Vieira, Matias, Ferreira, et al., 2016; Vieira, Matias, Lopez, & Matos, 2016); much less is known about linkages from work–family interface to adolescents' well-being. One exception is Lawson et al.'s (2014) study, in which mothers' positive mood after work has been found to lead to fewer somatic complaints, greater levels of positive affect, and better sleep quality and duration in their adolescent children. This study, however, was solely focused on mothers. Compared with younger children, adolescents have a larger peer group, spend more time with peers, and receive increased support from their peers, perhaps turning less to parents for advice and support. Moreover, adolescents are more likely to challenge parents' orders and opinions, creating more conflicts in the parent–child dyads than younger children. These specificities call for the need to find a new equilibrium in the

parent–child relationship in adolescence. Nevertheless, adolescents' well-being still strongly depends on the quality of this relationship (Steinberg, 2001).

Therefore, in this study, we expect that parents' reports of WFC are negatively associated with adolescents' well-being, via the decrease in the quality of parent–child relationship (less warmth, less autonomy support, and higher coercion; Hypothesis 1). Furthermore, parents' report of WFE are positively associated with higher levels of adolescents' well-being, via increased warmth, autonomy and less coercion (Hypothesis 2).

Adolescents' Perceptions about their Parents' Work–Family Interface

The scarce literature concerning the effects of parents' work experiences on their adolescent children tends to focus primarily on mothers' experiences (Gottfried & Gottfried, 2006). In addition, commonly, adolescent outcomes are not assessed using the adolescents' perspectives, and parents' work–family interface also is assessed using only parents' perceptions (Dyer, Day, & Harper, 2014; Lawson et al., 2014, 2016). Nevertheless, whereas in the past mothers' views were considered to be the most relevant, today both parents are believed to exert influence over the family (Gottfried & Gottfried, 2006). Thus, it is relevant to consider the perspectives of both mothers and fathers in studies about WFC and WFE and their impact on their children's well-being. Indeed, thus far, children have been passive elements in work–family research, having their own views and experiences not taken into consideration for the comprehension of this phenomenon, especially adolescents.

In a pioneer study on children's perceptions regarding their parents' work, Galinsky (1999) suggested that children are more critical in their evaluations of their parents' work than are parents themselves, whereas Wieder-Boer and Ronka (2004) found contradictory perspectives on parenting perceptions. Whose perceptions more accurately reflect the way parenting is actually done or parents' real work experiences is debatable. However, it can be assumed that adolescents' perceptions of their parents may influence their behavior more than their parents' perceptions of their own parenting.

Adolescence is an interesting developmental period to study the effects of work and family, given adolescents' distinctive needs, challenges, and desires for autonomy, (in)dependence, and support. It is also the period during which negative affect and emotional reactions to stressful events are more prominent (Steinberg, 2001). Moreover, normative developmental changes often disturb the family system in ways that challenge parents and adolescents to renegotiate their relationships. For instance, adolescents' cognitive development and their increasing understanding of the subjectivity of conventions and moral standards may lead them to challenge parental rules; thus, adolescents begin to perceive themselves as autonomous individuals and attempt to assert this autonomy in ways for which parents may not be prepared. This period requires a balance between the adolescent's desire for independence and the parents' desire to maintain a sense of control over their teen's decisions and activities (Steinberg & Silk, 2002).

Indeed, according to family life cycle theory (Carter & McGoldrick, 2005), these characteristics require that families with adolescents face the need for interactional reorganization and readjustment of parent–child relationships to sustain the family's functionality and allow youth to rightfully explore all tasks appropriate for their developmental stage. The understanding of how adolescents perceive their parents' work–family interface and how it is linked to their emotions and well-being can be helpful for parents to proceed with this reorganization in a more sensible and conscious way.

Galinsky's (1999) work deconstructed the idea that children ask only for more time to spend with their parents. Instead, her findings demonstrate that children are mainly concerned with the stress and exhaustion their parents express after work. Consistent with this statement, in a recent study developed by the UNICEF Portuguese Committee (2013), children showed concerns over their parents' well-being and how they cope to overcome economic difficulties.

In 2004, Wierda-Boer and Rönkä asked 140 Finnish adolescents to rate their parents' positive work experiences, negative work experiences, parenting, and psychosocial well-being. Results showed that the majority of adolescents had positive perceptions of their parents' work. However, when it came to parents' negative

work experiences, adolescents identified fathers as spending longer hours at work and having less time for their children, and mothers as being in a bad mood after work more often than fathers, and, therefore, more likely to be angry with the adolescent. Results also showed that negative perceptions of parents' work were negatively linked to self-esteem and positively associated with depression. Parental warmth and acceptance partially mediated these links, as adolescents' negative perceptions of parental work were related to lower parental warmth and acceptance, which, in turn, was related to adolescents' depressive mood.

This study did not ask adolescents separately about their perceptions of maternal and paternal parenting, however, which may be markedly different, considering the different cultural norms regarding the roles of fathers and mothers. In addition, this limitation did not allow for the testing of potential crossover effects between mothers' and fathers' work–family experiences and fathers' and mothers' parenting.

On the basis of the paucity of research focusing on the perceptions of adolescents, in this study, we expect that adolescents' reports of parental WFC are negatively associated with their well-being, via the decrease in the report on the quality of the parent–child relationship (less warmth, less autonomy, and higher coercion; Hypothesis 3). Adolescents' reports of parental WFE are positively associated with reports on their own well-being, via increased warmth, autonomy, and less coercion (Hypothesis 4).

Method

Participants and Procedures

This study uses data from a sample composed of 209 Portuguese dual-earner families with adolescent children (627 individuals), who answered a questionnaire on WFC, WFE, work and family structural characteristics (e.g., number of working hours; number of children in the family), parent–child relationships, and adolescent well-being. All participants (mothers, fathers, and adolescent sons and daughters) had to be part of a family in which both parents were employed and lived together with at least one child between 13 and 18 years of age.

Mothers were aged 31 to 57 years ($M = 44.33$ years, $SD = 5.22$) and worked an average of 39.69 hours per week ($SD = 8.42$). Fathers were aged 34 to 62 years ($M = 46.93$ years, $SD = 4.91$) and worked an average of 44.42 hours per week ($SD = 10.45$). The majority of parents were employed by others (63.0% of fathers and 70.6% of mothers), had full-time jobs (94.8% of fathers and 91.7% of mothers) and worked on a fixed schedule (79.5% of fathers and 71.3% of mothers). Concerning education, 81% of fathers and 71.2% of mothers attended high school or had less than 12 years of education. Couples were together for an average of 20.90 years ($SD = 4.17$); 13.6% of them had only one child, 65.5% had two children, 17% had three children, and 3.9% had more than three children. Adolescents were aged between 13 to 18 years ($M = 15.06$, $SD = 1.65$) and were almost equally divided by gender (57.1% females).

The sample was collected between December 2015 and April 2016 by convenience sampling from a public middle and high school and a sports club. After obtaining permission from the institutions to develop the study, the researchers approached parents directly, as well as the adolescents who were attending classes and the sports facilities. In the first contact with potential participants, researchers explained the general objectives of the study and guaranteed the confidentially of the data. Each family that agreed to participate was given an envelope containing three informed consent forms to be signed by each participant and three questionnaires, two addressed to each parent and a questionnaire addressed to the adolescent son or daughter. Parents were asked to answer their questionnaires separately from each other and families with more than one child in the target age range were instructed to choose only one of the children to fill out the questionnaire. Similarly, when answering their own questionnaires, parents were instructed also to refer to that specific child. All questionnaires were returned to the researchers in a sealed envelope, and the informed consent forms were delivered separately with the intent of assuring the participants' anonymity. In some situations, the envelopes were returned sealed to the teacher or coach responsible for each class or sports team, and afterward returned to the research team. The study design and data collection procedures have been approved by the Portuguese Data Protection Commission (CNPD; authorization 681/2016), by the ethics committee of the researchers' institution (approval 5-9/2015), and by the National Education Board (DGE;

authorization 0517600002). The response rate was 80.6%.

Measures

Work–Family Conflict Scale. (WFCS; Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000). This instrument measures time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based conflict. Each of these dimensions of conflict is assessed with three items on a 5-point rating scale (1 = *totally disagree*, 5 = *totally agree. Sample questions include:* "My works keeps me from my family activities more than I would like"). Because our aim was to match reports on WFC of parents with reports on WFC of their adolescent children, we excluded the behavior-based conflict subscale due to difficulties of comprehensibility of the item content by adolescents (Kelloway et al., 1999). In the present study, we used the Portuguese version of this instrument (WFCS-P; Vieira, Lopez, & Matos, 2014). To make it suitable for adolescents' reports on parental WFC, expressions from the original scale, such as "my work" were changed to "my mother's work/my father's work." The scale showed good reliability coefficients (father Cronbach's $\alpha = .88$; mother Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$; adolescent reports on fathers' WFC Cronbach's $\alpha = .82$; adolescent reports on mothers' WFC Cronbach's $\alpha = .82$).

Work–Family Enrichment Scale. (WFES; Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006) assesses work-to-family enrichment on a 5-point rating scale (1 = *totally disagree*, 5 = *totally agree*). Sample questions include: "My involvement in my work helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member". The Portuguese version of the scale was used (Vieira et al., 2014), and the items for adolescents were adapted in a similar manner as for the WFCS (father Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$; mother Cronbach $\alpha = .90$; adolescent reports on fathers' WFE Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$; adolescent reports on mothers' WFE Cronbach's $\alpha = .91$).

Both indicators of the work–family interface have been used in recent research with Portuguese samples (Matias et al., 2017a, 2017b; Vieira, Matias, Ferreira, et al., 2016; Vieira, Matias, Lopez, & Matos, 2016).

Parents as Social Context Questionnaire. (PASCQ; Skinner, Johnson, & Snyder, 2005) was used to measure the parent–child relationship. This measure is based on a solid theoretical foundation and captures core dimensions of parenting. Skinner et al. (2005) reported satisfactory internal consistency reliabilities for most of its dimensions, and other authors (e.g., Egeli, Rogers, Rinaldi, & Cui, 2015) have tested the validity and reliability of the Revised Parents as a Social Context Questionnaire, providing support for its use with parents of children aged 2 to 18 years. Only the dimensions of Warmth (e.g., "I know a lot about what goes on for my child"; Adolescent version: "My parents let me know they love me"), Autonomy Support (e.g., "I encourage my child to express his/her feelings even when they're hard to hear"; Adolescent version: "My parents try to understand my point of view") and Coercion (e.g., "My child fights me at every turn"; adolescent version: "My parents boss me") were available in this study. All items were measured on a 4-point rating scale (1 = *never*, 4 = *always*), with parents' reports including 5 items for each dimension and adolescents' reports 4 items. All subscales showed good reliability coefficients (Warmth: father Cronbach's $\alpha = .83$, mother Cronbach's $\alpha = .79$, adolescent report on father Cronbach's $\alpha = .89$, adolescent report on mother Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$; Autonomy Support: father Cronbach's $\alpha = .73$, mother Cronbach's $\alpha = .74$, adolescent report on father Cronbach's $\alpha = .79$, adolescent report on mother Cronbach's $\alpha = .73$; Coercion: father Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$, mother Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$, adolescent report on father Cronbach's $\alpha = .73$, adolescent report on mother Cronbach's $\alpha = .74$). The scales were independently translated by two researchers familiar with the English language. When there was deviation in the two translations, a third researcher assisted in deciding which translation was the most accurate.

Mental Health Inventory—5. (MHI-5; Veit and Ware, 1983), was used in its Portuguese adaptation for youth (Marques, Pais-Ribeiro, & Lopez, 2011) to measure adolescent well-being over the previous month. This self-report instrument provides an assessment of several domains of mental health including anxiety, depression, behavioral control, positive affect, and general distress and has been studied extensively in large populations with considerable evidence for its validity. It is composed of five items (e.g., "How much of the time, during the past month, have you been a very nervous person?"; "How much

of the time, during the past month, have you felt calm and peaceful?") measured on a 5-point rating scale (1 = *never*, 5 = *most of the time*). The scale reported a Cronbach's alpha of .83.

Data Analysis

To examine the links between parents' work–family conflict and enrichment and adolescents' well-being, through parent–child relationship quality, we conducted path analyses using maximum-likelihood estimation method in AMOS. Because the gender of the adolescent could be seen as affecting well-being, we controlled for adolescent gender. Additionally, education level and number of working hours are common covariates of WFC and the parent–child relationship. However, to maintain sufficient statistical power in our analyses and as a preliminary effort to determine those paths that ought to be controlled in our model, we first performed bivariate correlations between all variables in the model (work-to-family variables, parenting variables, and adolescent well-being), as well as mothers' and fathers' educational level (dummy coded) and number of working hours. On the basis of that analysis, we identified the significant correlations with the control variables: father's working hours correlated with father's report on WFC, with the adolescent's report on father's WFC, and with mother's report on coercion in the relationship with their child; mother's working hours showed no significant correlation with the study variables; fathers' education level correlated with fathers' reports on autonomy support, and mothers' education level also correlated with mothers' reports on autonomy support. The data can be found in Appendix A. In the next step, we added only the control variables to the model paths that were apparently confounded. Missing values were estimated using expectation maximization. None of the items had more than 5% missing values, and they were missing at random, indicating that this was an appropriate option (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

We analyzed both spillover (intraindividual) and crossover (interindividual) effects within our models—namely, within parents' WFC and WFE and the parent–child relationship, in particular, parents' coercion, autonomy support, and warmth. Specifically, we estimated intraindividual effects due to each parent's WFC and WFE on his or her own parent–child relationship dimensions (actor effects); and interindividual effects due to the link between each parent's WFC and WFE and the other parent's parent–child relationship dimensions (partner effects). As in an actor–partner interdependence model, these actor effects were estimated controlling for partner effects, partner effects were estimated controlling for actor effects, and errors of measurement in observed variables were allowed to covary across dyad members, thereby accounting for dyadic nonindependence by minimizing biases in the estimation of effects (Kenny et al., 2006). The effect of each parent–child relationship dimension on adolescents' well-being, as well as the direct and indirect effect of each parent's WFC and WFE on adolescents' outcomes, were included in the model. Model A refers to links using parents' reports on WFC and WFE and the parent–child relationship, whereas Model B refers to links using adolescents' reports on parents' WFC and WFE and the parent–child relationship. In both models, well-being is reported only by the adolescent.

To evaluate the fit of the model to the data, the χ^2/df, the comparative fit index (CFI) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were used. Good fit is defined as χ^2/df less than 2 and acceptable when χ^2/df is less than 3; CFI values between .90 and .95 signify an acceptable fit and between .95 and 1.00 a good model fit; RMSEA values below .08 indicate acceptable model fit and below .05 point to good model fit (Schweizer, 2010).

To examine the presence of mediation mechanisms, we tested for the significance of indirect effects using bootstrapping resampling procedure (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). Specifically, we randomly drew 2,000 bootstrap samples and calculated the 95% bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence intervals. A given indirect effect is significant if the respective confidence interval (CI) does not contain zero.

Results

Table 1 shows bivariate correlations between parents' reported variables and adolescents' reports on well-being. Given that we tested a total of 55 bivariate correlations, multiple test bias is a possible concern. A Bonferroni correction suggested an adjusted alpha level of .00009 (0.05/55). Results indicated that fathers'

Table 1. *Pearson Bivariate Intercorrelations Between WFC, WFE, Parent–Child Relationship Dimensions Reported by Fathers and Mothers and Adolescent Well-Being, Reported by Adolescents*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. WFC (PR-F)	—										
2. WFC (PR-M)	**.39*** **	—									
3. WFE (PR-F)	–.10	–.05	—								
4. WFE (PR-M)	–.03	**–.27*** **	**.27*** **	—							
5. Warmth (PR-F)	–.15*	–.08	**.27*** **	.10	—						
6. Warmth (PR-M)	–.11	–.23***	.18**	.25***	**.52*** **	—					
7. Autonomy support (PR-F)	–.04	–.12	.23***	.19**	**.52*** **	**.29*** **	—				
8. Autonomy support (PR-M)	–.02	–.10	.19**	**.29*** **	**.33*** **	**.47*** **	**.42*** **	—			
9. Coercion (PR-F)	.04	–.04	–.22**	–.00	–.03	.01	.03	.10	—		
10. Coercion (PR-M)	.15*	.05	–.08	.05	.11	.11	.09	.12	**.33*** **	—	
11. WB (AR)	–.11	–.15*	.03	.16*	.18**	.20**	.18**	.13	.06	.20**	—

Note. Bold coefficients met the adjusted alpha level of $p < .00009$. AR = adolescent report; PR-F = parent report—father; PR-M = parent report—mother; WB = well-being; WFC = work–family conflict; WFE = work–family enrichment. $^{***}p < .001$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{*}p < .05$. Bold coefficients met the adjusted alpha level of $p < .00009$.

and mothers' reports on WFC and WFE were positively associated. Moreover, mothers' report of WFC was negatively associated with mothers' WFE, but this association was not found for fathers. Considering the adjusted alpha level, mothers' and fathers' WFC not associated with mothers' and fathers' parent–child dimensions; however, mothers' WFE was associated with mothers' reports on autonomy support.

Mothers' and fathers' reports on warmth, autonomy support, and coercion were all positively related. Moreover, fathers' reports on warmth and autonomy support were also positively correlated, which was also true for mothers. Fathers' reports on warmth linked positively with mothers' reports of autonomy support. Adolescent well-being did not correlate with parents' reports when considering the Bonferroni adjusted alpha level.

Table 2 reports on work–family variables, parent–child dimensions, and adolescent well-being reported by the adolescents. There were more significant correlations, considering the adjusted alpha level of $p < .00009$. Adolescents perceived WFC, WFE, warmth, autonomy support, and coercion of fathers and mothers as positively correlated. Adolescent perceptions of fathers' WFE was positively linked to perceptions of fathers' warmth and fathers' autonomy support. The same pattern was seen for mothers. Adolescent perceptions of mothers' WFE linked to perceptions of mothers' warmth and autonomy support. Adolescents' perceptions of mothers' WFE further correlated with adolescents' perceptions of fathers' warmth and autonomy support, whereas adolescents' perceptions of fathers' WFE correlated significantly with perceptions of mothers' autonomy support.

Adolescents' perceptions of fathers' warmth was linked to perceptions of fathers' and mothers' autonomy support; the same was true for mothers. Adolescents' perceptions of mothers' warmth was positively linked with mothers' and fathers' autonomy support. Perceptions on father's and mother's autonomy support linked positively to both mothers' and fathers' coercion.

Adolescent well-being was negatively linked to adolescents' perceptions of mothers' and fathers' WFC and positively linked with perceptions of mothers' and fathers' warmth and autonomy support.

As shown in Table 3, parents' means did not differ in WFC or WFE; adolescents' reports on father's and mother's WFC or WFE also did not differ; however, parents' reports on WFC were higher than adolescents' reports on parents' WFC. With regard to parent–child relationship dimensions, warmth reports differed among all informants and targets; that is, adolescents reported higher levels of warmth in their relationship with their mothers than with their fathers; both these reports were higher than parents' reports on warmth. Moreover, mothers reported higher warmth than fathers. Regarding autonomy support, mothers reported higher levels than fathers and adolescents. Finally, as

Table 2. *Pearson Bivariate Intercorrelations Among WFC, WFE, Parent–Child Relationship Dimensions, and Adolescent Well-Being, as Reported by Adolescents*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. WFC (AR-F)	—										
2. WFC (AR-M)	**.67*** **	—									
3. WFE (AR-F)	–.10	–.12	—								
4. WFE (AR-M)	–.02	–.09	**.90*** **	—							
5. Warmth (AR-F)	–.14*	–.15*	**.36*** **	**.29*** **	—						
6. Warmth (AR-M)	–.11	–.07	.25**	**.28*** **	**.80*** **	—					
7. Autonomy support (AR-F)	–.14*	–.12	**.38*** **	**.29*** **	**.71*** **	**.51*** **	—				
8. Autonomy support (AR-M)	–.08	–.04	**.29*** **	**.29*** **	**.56*** **	**.59*** **	—	—			
9. Coercion (AR-F)	–.19**	–.11	.10	.01	.18*	.08	**.42*** **	**.33*** **	—		
10. Coercion (AR-M)	–.07	–.10	.03	.02	.08*	.19*	**.28*** **	**.42*** **	**.73*** **	—	
11. WB (AR)	**–.27*** **	–.22**	**.28*** **	.21**	**.41*** **	**.46*** **	**.34*** **	**.33*** **	.11	.09	—

Note. Bold coefficients indicate an adjusted alpha level of $p < .00009$. AR-F = adolescent report on father's; AR-M = adolescent report on mother's; AR = adolescent report; WB = well-being; WFC = work–family conflict; WFE = work–family enrichment. *** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

for coercion, parents reported higher levels than their adolescent children. There were no differences between mothers' and fathers' reports and between the adolescent's reports on mother's or father's coercion.

Model A (parents' reports) and Model B (adolescents' reports), including gender, father's working hours, mother's and father's education level as control variables, and all direct paths among WFC and parent–child relationship dimensions, between WFE and parent–child relationship dimensions and among WFC, WFE, parent–child relationship dimensions and well-being, were fitted to the data, showing a good fit, Model A: $\chi^2(50) = 1.806$; $p < .001$; $\chi^2/df = 1.806$; CFI = .914; RMSEA = .062; Model B: $\chi^2(19) = 33.805$; $p = .019$; $\chi^2/df = 1.779$; CFI = .987; RMSEA = .061. Because adolescent reports on parents' WFE were correlated at .90, we chose to model a single dimension of WFE composed of the mean of the two reports—father's and mother's.

Model A (Table 4; Figure 1) shows that mothers' WFC was directly and negatively associated with mothers' warmth and positively associated with mothers' coercion, whereas mothers' WFE is directly and positively linked to mothers' warmth and autonomy support. Mothers' coercion also was found to be directly and negatively associated with adolescent well-being. Fathers' WFE was positively linked with fathers' autonomy support, warmth, and coercion. No direct significant paths were found for fathers' WFC and parent–child dimensions or for adolescent well-being. The test for indirect effects showed that only mothers' WFC level is associated with adolescent well-being (adolescents' perceptions), at an alpha level of $p < .06$

Table 3. *Repeated-Measures Analysis of Variance Comparing Fathers', Mothers', and Adolescents' Reports on WFC, WFE and Parent–Child Relationship Dimensions*

	Father report *M* (*SD*)	Mother Report *M* (*SD*)	Adolescent report on fathers *M* (*SD*)	Adolescent report on mothers *M* (*SD*)
WFC $F(208, 2.35) = 45.49$***; $\eta_p^2 = .18$	3.11^a (.91)	3.12^a (.88)	2.57^b (.82)	2.49^b (.83)
WFE $F(208, 2.15) = 1.46^{ns}$; $\eta_p^2 = .01$	3.39 (.75)	3.49 (.69)	3.40 (.75)	3.42 (.71)
Warmth $F(208, 2.08) = 323.07$***; $\eta_p^2 = .61$	2.26^a (.49)	2.98^b (.55)	3.38^c (.70)	3.48^d (.62)
Autonomy support $F(208, 2.2) = 15.52$***; $\eta_p^2 = .07$	3.30^b (.51)	3.47^a (.48)	3.20^b (.63)	3.27^b (.55)
Coercion $F(208, 2.37) = 70.67$***; $\eta_p^2 = .25$	3.15^a (.53)	3.07^a (.52)	2.65^b (.65)	2.63^b (.63)

Note. Significance levels of mean scores were adjusted using Bonferroni correction. Mean scores with different letters differ per row at $p < .01$ level. WFC = work–family conflict; WFE = work–family enrichment.

Table 4. *Unstandardized Effect Estimates for Model A*

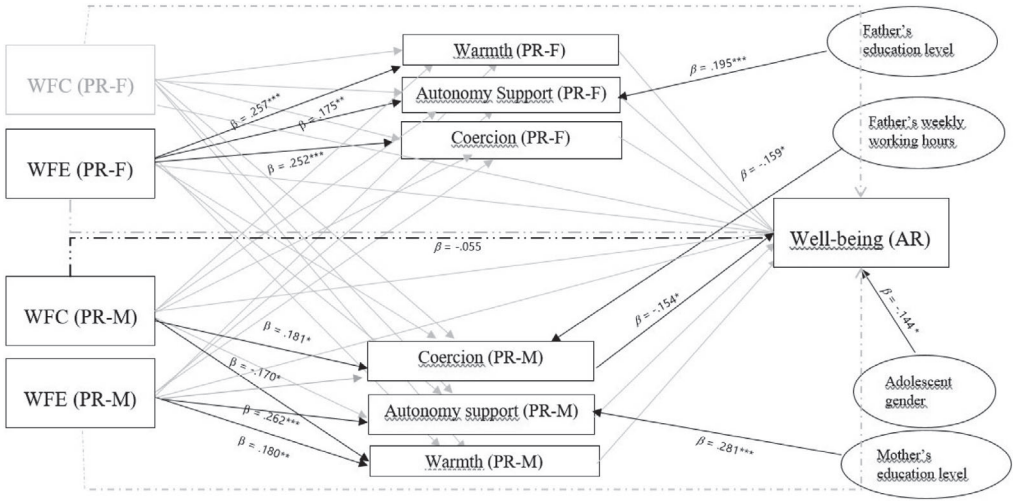
Effect	*b*	*SE*	*p*
WFC (PR-F) → warmth (PR-F)	–.062	.038	.100
WFC (PR–F) → warmth (PR-M)	–.018	.041	.654
WFC (PR-M) → warmth (PR-F)	–.011	.041	.790
WFC (PR-M) → warmth (PR-M)	–.103	.045	.022
WFC (PR-F) → autonomy support (PR-F)	–.014	.039	.721
WFC (PR–F) → autonomy support (PR-M)	.017	.035	.633
WFC (PR-M) → autonomy support (PR-F)	–.055	.042	.191
WFC (PR-M) → autonomy support (PR-M)	–.002	.039	.966
WFC (PR-F) → coercion (PR-F)	.056	.042	.190
WFC (PR–F) → coercion (PR-M)	–.028	.042	.512
WFC (PR-M) → coercion (PR-F)	–.018	.046	.695
WFC (PR-M) → coercion (PR-M)	.108	.045	.017
WFE (PR-F) → warmth (PR-F)	.164	.044	<.001
WFE (PR-F) → warmth (PR-M)	.090	.048	.063
WFE (PR-M) → warmth (PR-F)	.019	.050	.698
WFE (PR-M) → warmth (PR-M)	.138	.054	.011
WFE (PR-F) → autonomy support (PR-F)	.117	.045	.010
WFE (PR-F) → autonomy support (PR-M)	.061	.041	.139
WFE (PR-M) → autonomy support (PR-F)	.094	.051	.067
WFE (PR-M) → autonomy support (PR-M)	.179	.047	<.001
WFE (PR-F) → coercion (PR-F)	.178	.050	<.001
WFE (PR-F) → coercion (PR-M)	.063	.048	.193
WFE (PR-M) → coercion (PR-F)	–.055	.056	.326
WFE (PR-M) → coercion (PR-M)	–.024	.055	.666
Warmth (PR-F) → WB (AR)	.072	.117	.535
Warmth (PR-M) → WB (AR)	.116	.103	.260
Autonomy support (PR-F) → WB (AR)	.140	.107	.190
Autonomy support (PR-M) → WB (AR)	.008	.111	.945
Coercion (PR-F) → WB (AR)	–.004	.090	.962
Coercion (PR-M) → WB (AR)	–.200	.091	.029
WFC (PR-F) → WB (AR)	–.059	.053	.270
WFC (PR-M) → WB (AR)	–.009	.060	.881
WFE (PR-F) → WB (AR)	–.036	.065	.575
WFE (PR-M) → WB (AR)	.110	.072	.129
Father's working hours → coercion (PR-M)	–.008	.003	.014
Father's education level → autonomy (PR-F)	.248	.072	<.001
Mother's education level → autonomy (PR-M)	.293	.059	<.001
Gender → WB (AR)	–.193	.087	.027

Note. Significant paths are highlighted in bold. AR = adolescent report; PR-F = parents report father; PR-M = parents report mother; WB = well-being; WFC = work–family conflict; WFE = work–family enrichment.

(B = –.042; $SE = .026$; $\beta = .033$; $p = .055$; 95% CI [–.129, .001]). The model explained 11.1% of variance in mothers' warmth, 9.1% in fathers' warmth, 17.1% in mothers' autonomy support, 11.6% in fathers' autonomy support, 6.8% in mothers' coercion, 6.3% in fathers' coercion, and 11.4% in adolescent well-being.

Model B (Table 5 and Figure 2), shows that adolescents' reports on parents' WFE was directly and positively linked to adolescents' reports on fathers' and mothers' warmth and autonomy. Moreover, adolescents' reports on mothers' warmth were positively linked to adolescent well-being. Adolescent gender had no significant effect on well-being.

Figure 1. Direct and Indirect Effects of WFC, WFE, and parent–child relationship dimensions on adolescent well-being—parents' reports, Model A.



Note. AR = adolescent report; PR-F = parent report—father; PR-M = parent report—mother; WFC = work–family conflict; WFE = work–family enrichment. Ellipses indicate covariates in the model. Solid arrows indicate direct effects; dotted arrows indicate indirect effects. Black arrows indicate significant paths: standardized estimates are depicted. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

The test for indirect effects showed that parents' WFE is associated with adolescent well-being (adolescents' perceptions; B = –.120; $SE = .040$; $\beta = .127$; $p = .001$; 95% CI [.059; .221]). The model explained 8.3%, 9.0%, and 1% of adolescents' reports of mothers' warmth, autonomy support, and coercion, respectively. The model further explained 12.5%, 12.9%, and 3.5% of fathers' warmth, autonomy support, and coercion, respectively. Finally, the model explained approximately 28% of adolescents' reports on well-being.

Discussion

The current study examined the extent to which mothers' and fathers' WFC and WFE were linked to the parent–child relationship and to their adolescent children's well-being. We used mothers' and fathers' reports (Model A) and adolescents' reports (Model B) to study these relations with deeper complexity, allowing us to compare mothers' and fathers' results and parent and adolescent views. Our findings are in line with ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), which stresses that contexts the individual does not experience directly can influence his or her development, and with family systems theory (Cox & Paley, 1997), which states that the way family members perceive each other has an impact on their own well-being and on family functioning.

Our findings suggest that parents diverge from each other in their views, also highlighting the importance of considering gender differences in these analyses. Results also showed that parents and adolescents have different perspectives concerning the work–family interface and its relations to the parent–adolescent relationship and adolescent well-being. One remarkable finding concerning this specific aspect is that both parents believed their WFC was higher than their adolescent children perceived. With regard to parent–adolescent relations, adolescents perceive the relationship with their parents as warmer and less coercive than did their parents. Also interesting was mothers' perceptions of granting more autonomy support to their adolescent children than the latter perceived. Our findings seem to support that, indeed, families with adolescents are reorganizing and readjusting their parent–child relationships, as expected by family life cycle theory. Parental monitoring becomes less intense as children grow older. Too much monitoring or supervision may stifle burgeoning independence, whereas too little

Table 5. *Unstandardized Effect Estimates for Model B (Adolescent Reports)*

Effect	*b*	*SE*	*p*
WFC (AR-F) → warmth (AR-F)	–.058	.074	.431
WFC (AR–F) → warmth (AR-M)	–.083	.067	.218
WFC (AR-F) → autonomy support (AR-F)	–.078	.066	.242
WFC (AR–F) → autonomy support (AR-M)	–.058	.059	.328
WFC (AR-F) → coercion (AR-F)	.166	.073	.023
WFC (AR–F) → coercion (AR-M)	.001	.071	.993
WFC (AR-M) → warmth (AR-F)	–.058	.073	.429
WFC (AR-M) → warmth (AR-M)	.022	.067	.334
WFC (AR-M) → autonomy support (AR-F)	–.015	.066	.824
WFC (AR-M) → autonomy support (AR-M)	.031	.059	.599
WFC (AR-M) → coercion (AR-F)	–.036	.072	.616
WFC (AR-M) → coercion (AR-M)	.074	.071	.297
WFE (AR) → warmth (AR-F)	.315	.064	<.001
WFE (AR) → warmth (AR-M)	.237	.058	<.001
WFE (AR) → autonomy support (AR-F)	.295	.058	<.001
WFE (AR) → autonomy support (AR-M)	.225	.051	<.001
WFE (AR) → coercion (AR-F)	–.041	.063	.512
WFE (AR) → coercion (AR-M)	–.013	.062	.830
Warmth (AR-F) → WB (AR)	–.109	.133	.411
Warmth (AR-M) → WB (AR)	.481	.131	<.001
Autonomy support (AR-F) → WB (AR)	.123	.149	.410
Autonomy support (AR-M) → WB (AR)	.008	.152	.957
Coercion (AR-F) → WB (AR)	–.083	.106	.434
Coercion (AR-M) → WB (AR)	.105	.110	.343
WFC (AR-F) → WB (AR)	–.120	.067	.075
WFC (AR-M) → WB (AR)	–.064	.066	.335
WFE (AR) → WB (AR)	.100	.060	.097
Gender → WB (AR)	–.084	.077	.276

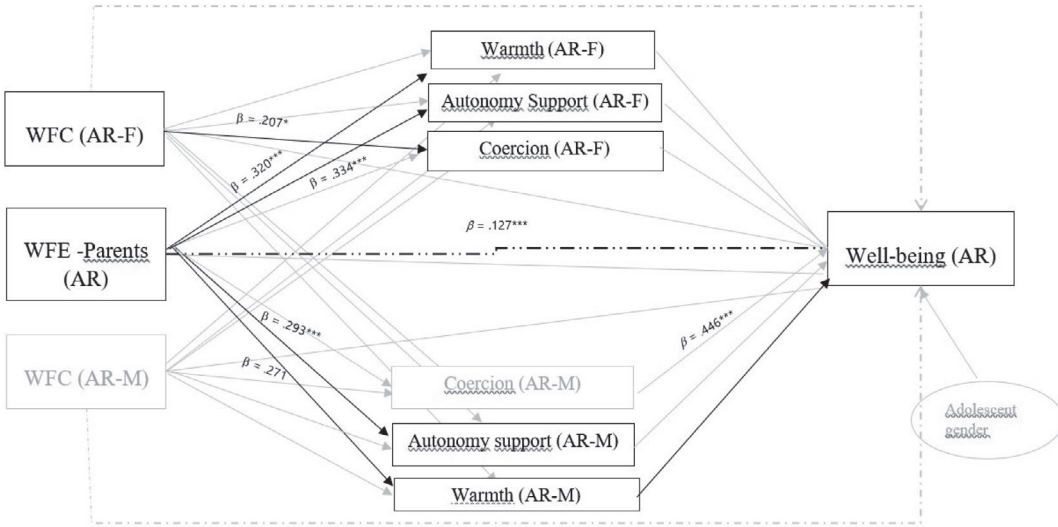
Note. Significant paths are highlighted in bold. AR = adolescent report; ARM = adolescent report on mothers; PR-F = parents report father; PR-M = parents report mother; WB = well-being; WFC = work–family conflict; WFE = work–family enrichment.

monitoring or supervision may lead to child behavior problems. The amount of explained variance was higher in the adolescents' perspective model, perhaps because it was modeled with same-informant (adolescent) reports only.

Focusing on parents' reports (Model A), our results confirmed mothers' WFC (not fathers') to be linked to their relationship with their children, highlighting a gender differential pattern. Mothers' perceptions of difficulties in balancing work and family were associated with their own reports of lower warmth and higher coercion. These results are in line with literature linking WFC or similar variables, such as negative work experiences or work stress and overload; more irritability and parenting stress; and less sensibility, warmth, or acceptance (Cooklin et al., 2015; Costigan et al., 2003; Matias et al., 2017a; Vieira, Matias, Ferreira, et al., 2016; Vieira, Matias, Lopez, & Matos, 2016).

Conversely, mothers' and father's recognition of benefits in the work-family interface associate with reports of increased warmth and autonomy support in their relationship with their children. Other studies have also highlighted the relation between WFE or similar variables, such as positive work experiences, and better relationships with children—specifically, more warmth and responsiveness, and more parental efficacy and satisfaction (Greenberger et al., 1994; Janisse et al., 2009; Vieira, Matias, Ferreira, et al., 2016; Vieira, Matias, Lopez, & Matos, 2016). Nevertheless, our study extended these findings to adolescents because previous research was focused mostly on the parents' relationships with younger children. Important

Figure 2. Direct and indirect effects of WFC, WFE, and parent–child relationship dimensions on adolescent well-being—adolescents' reports, Model B.



Note. AR = adolescent report; PR-F = parent report—father; PR-M = parent report—mother; WFC = work–family conflict; WFE = work–family enrichment. Ellipses indicate covariates in the model. Solid arrows indicate direct effects; dotted arrows indicate indirect effects. Black arrows indicate significant paths: standardized estimates are depicted. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

to note, however, is that fathers' WFE links to higher coercion in the relationship with their children. Because fathers' work–family balance has tended to be overlooked in research, our study clearly indicates that further investigation is needed to explore the relevance of fathers' WFE to adolescent well-being.

Moreover, in our study, links between WFC and the quality of the parent–child relationship were only found to be true for mothers, not fathers, and only one indirect link was found between mothers' WFC and adolescents' well-being. Some studies have stated that work experiences of mothers influence family functioning more than those of fathers (Costigan et al., 2003; Matias et al., 2017b; Vieira, Matias, Lopez, & Matos, 2016). The asymmetric gender pattern in relation to WFC observed in this study suggests that mothers may indeed set the emotional tone for the family and that the way mothers reconcile their work and family roles is more prominent for the children's well-being than the way fathers do. This may derive from the maintenance of traditional gender roles—in particular, family roles—in Portugal. Women are expected to be the main parent responsible for work and family balance, while also being expected not to devalue family life, especially parenting, despite their strong participation in the workforce (Wall et al., 2010). In fact, mothers remain the primary caregivers of children, even in dual-earner families (Perista et al., 2016; Wall et al., 2010).

A greater investment in the relationship with their children may be both positive and negative for mothers. On one hand, an enriching balance between roles promotes a better relationship with adolescent children. On the other hand, mothers' WFC decreases the quality of the parent–child relationship, and the coercion within this relationship translates to lower well-being for the adolescent. Despite common portrayals of high levels of negativity in the parent–adolescent relationship, intense and frequent conflict is not normative during adolescence; however, bickering over mundane issues, such as chores, clothing, or rules, is fairly typical (Steinberg & Silk, 2002). Our findings seem to reveal that these behaviors may be more acute when mothers' emotional resources are drained by work aspects.

Another relevant finding is that although both mothers' WFC and WFE were associated with warmth, WFE was associated with autonomy support and WFC with coercion. The fact that

WFC entails a depletion of resources—namely, cognitive and emotional ones—may lead to more bickering; in contrast, because WFE increases available emotional resources, it translates into less coercion and more supportive interactions. This differential process was unveiled because of the refined analyses of the parent–child relationship.

Research on autonomy support for adolescents has stressed the need to consider multiple dimensions of the parent–child relationship altogether. In particular, emotionally autonomous adolescents, who also feel distant or detached from their parents, have low levels of psychological adjustment, whereas adolescents with the same degree of emotional autonomy, but who feel close and attached to their parents, show higher indicators of psychological adjustment (for a review, see Steinberg & Silk, 2002). In our sample, the mean values of both warmth and autonomy support are high, especially in adolescents' reports. Relatedly, conflict interactions also must be examined simultaneously with the other dimensions of parenting. There could be positive effects of conflict if the parent–adolescent relationship is also characterized by a high degree of cohesion. The need to consider parenting dimensions altogether may help us grasp why fathers' WFE unexpectedly linked to more coercion but also to more warmth and autonomy (parents' reports), although none of these dimensions of parenting were associated with adolescent well-being. Further research could better tackle the emotional climate of the parent–child relationship by using a typological approach.

When adolescents' perceptions are at stake (Model B), adolescents' perceptions of fathers' WFC are linked to higher coercion. This finding is expected because previous research has shown harsh discipline to be linked with stress in work–family balance (Greenberger et al., 1984; Vieira, Matias, Lopez, & Matos, 2016a) and can be explained by the resource drain that WFC entails. Adolescents' perceptions of parents' WFE translated into adolescents' perceptions of higher warmth and autonomy support in their relationship with their fathers and mothers. Adolescents' perceptions of mothers' warmth were also linked with their own well-being. Parents' WFE indirectly linked with adolescent well-being. These findings may suggest that mothers' warm relationships with their children are important for adolescent well-being. Mothers still assuming greater responsibility for family functioning may be one of the reasons why (positive) work experiences of both parents are felt throughout the family.

Interestingly, these links occurred from enrichment but not from conflict. Contrary to research finding that parental WFC affects adolescent well-being (Lawson et al., 2016; Wierda-Boer & Rönkä, 2004), our findings suggest that adolescents perceiving their parents as deriving benefits from their work is more prominent for their well-being and relationships than the perception of parents having conflicted roles. Indeed, these results also appear to be in line with the consistent idea that children are concerned about their parents' well-being, the benefits they perceive from their work experiences, and their life satisfaction in general (Galinsky, 1999; UNICEF, 2013). These results stress the need to decentralize investigation from the negative effect of work–family balance and expand it to a positive field, as well as to encompass adolescents' perspectives to better understand the complexity of family systems and dynamics.

Limitations

As far as we know, this is a pioneer study in the work–family field. We focused on both positive (WFE) and negative (WFC) processes, addressing both intraindividual and interindividual (crossover) effects and investigated how (the perception of) WFC and WFE associated with adolescent children's well-being, including multiple reports from both parents and the adolescent. However, some limitations and future implications for research must be noted. First, we used adolescents' reports on well-being in both models. It would have been interesting to have data on how parents perceived their children's well-being. Other outcomes besides adolescents' well-being could also be considered in the future, such as emotional regulation skills, school motivation or performance (given that it is the adolescents' daily activity that resembles the most to a job), and expectations toward work or family (or both). Second, we used questionnaires to assess views on study variables, but more detailed information could have been gathered through daily diary methods (Lawson et al., 2014, 2016) or longitudinal studies to sustain temporal causation among the studied dimensions. Perhaps

qualitative methodology would be a reliable and enhancing alternative for further research. Finally, it would also be interesting to extend the investigation to single-earner families and also compare different family typologies.

Implications

This study offers relevant information on how parents and children understand work–family balance and its impact on the interactions and well-being of family members. It would be of great importance to help parents understand the impact of their working experiences in their family sphere, how it can be linked to their relationship with their children, and how they can enhance positive outcomes with better work–family strategies, as well as more conscious and effective parenting. It would also be important to underline the differences of parent–child perspectives, extending this enlightenment to adolescents as well.

In clinical practice, whether individual, couple, or family interventions, this research may also offer some insight on family processes and may be helpful to understand the complexity of work experiences. In addition, this study may also establish a guideline for exploring potential causes of reports of low well-being. For clinical practitioners who work specifically with adolescents, this study may allow a more conscious approach to parent–adolescent relationships, eventually diminishing some strains rooted in their (perspective of) parents' work–family balance. In school settings, a relevant pathway would be to organize discussion groups on work–family issues and include this information in vocational orientation programs, helping adolescents to think critically about their parents' work experiences and how these experiences affect them, directly or indirectly.

Conclusions

In conclusion, adolescents have been given a passive role in work–family literature over the years. This study adds to the literature that adolescents have a critical perspective over their parents' work experiences and consequent articulation with family responsibilities. Our findings show that their perspectives do not completely match their parents' perspectives, which stresses the importance of considering not only their opinion but to add it into an integrative family view on work–family balance.

Appendix A. *Correlations Between Study Variables and Fathers' and Mothers' Working Hours and Education Level*

	Fathers' working hours	Mothers' working hours	Mothers' education level	Fathers' education level
1. WFC (PR-F)	.19**	–.03	.09	.09
2. WFC (PR-M)	–.06	–.00	.22	.13
3. WFE (PR-F)	–.04	–.01	.08	.09
4. WFE (PR-M)	–.02	.00	.01	–.07
5. WFC (AR-F)	.20*	.10	–.04	.08
6. WFC (AR-M)	.09	.13	–.00	.02
7. WFE (AR-F)	–.13	–.04	.03	.04
8. WFE (AR-M)	–.11	–.05	.08	.05
9. Warmth (PR-F)	–.13	.01	–.04	.01
10. Warmth (PR-M)	–.06	–.01	.00	.00
11. Autonomy support (PR-F)	–.03	.10	.01	.17*
12. Autonomy support (PR-M)	–.06	.05	.29***	.08
13. Coercion (PR-F)	.01	.04	.08	.03
14. Coercion (PR-M)	.18**	.08	–.03	–.07
15. Warmth (AR-F)	–.01	–.01	–.09	–.03
16. Warmth (AR-M)	–.01	–.02	–.01	–.00
17. Autonomy support (AR-F)	–.01	.12	.01	.00
18. Autonomy support (AR-M)	.04	.08	.06	.04
19. Coercion (AR-F)	.02	.06	.08	–.02
20. Coercion (AR-M)	–.00	–.03	.10	–.03
21. WB (AR)	–.08	–.01	.05	.10

Note. AR = adolescent report; PR-F = parent report—father; PR-M = parent report—mother; WFC = work–family conflict; WFE = work–family enrichment. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

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