

USE OF FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS

DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
AND THE COMMITTEE FOR ADVANCED STUDIES AND RESEARCH
OF LAHORE SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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November 2019

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USE OF FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS

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Submitted to the Department of Business Administration
on September 2019 in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in Business Administration

Abstract

Flexible work arrangements (FWAs) have become a well-researched area of inquiry in organizational behavior as well as an increasingly popular intervention to improve worker and organizational productivity in business and government organizations. FWAs make available to workers from their organizations the options for selecting the location, timing, and how much work to perform. However, despite their growing popularity among both researchers and organizations, conflicting results in academic research have been reported in the literature especially regarding their relationship with job satisfaction. This thesis is an attempt to explore possible explanations for the relationship between job satisfaction and FWAs' use.

To explain the inconsistent results found in the literature, this study examined the impact of moderators and mediators. Three facets were examined in a series of three

research papers. Empirical testing of the first model, based on the theory of social exchange and boundary theory, indicated that work-life conflict and job satisfaction mediated the relationship between FWAs' use and turnover intentions. Additionally, it was found that planning behaviour, the core constituent or building block within the larger concept of time management behaviour, strengthened the impact of FWAs' use on reducing work-life conflict. However, planning behaviour did not strengthen the relationship between job satisfaction and FWAs' use.

The signaling theory formed the theoretical underpinning of the second research paper. It suggested that the probable reason why the positive impact of FWAs' use on job satisfaction became negative was because of the conditional mediating effect of career harm in the presence of flexibility stigma. The third study examines the impact of perceptions of organizational support. Specifically, this paper empirically tested the hypothesis that FWAs' use decreases work-life conflict, this, in turn, increases their job satisfaction for married men with working spouse and dependents (post-traditional men at work). Additionally, the impact of organizational support was examined as moderating the relationship between job satisfaction and FWAs' use.

(Note: The first paper was published in the Journal of Business Research, with an impact factor of 4.0, in October 2018.)

Keywords: flexible work arrangements' use, job satisfaction, work-life conflict, turnover intentions, planning behavior, career harm, perceived organizational support.

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Acknowledgments

It is a pleasure to thank many people who made this thesis possible. Although the list of individuals I wish to thank extends beyond what is possible here, I would like to thank the following people for their dedication, patience, and support:

I am highly indebted to Dr. Shahid Amjad Chaudhry, Rector, Lahore School of Economics, for giving me this opportunity of pursuing a doctoral degree at one of Pakistan's premier institutions. He has always provided the necessary resources for my pursuit. I dedicate my research publication to him.

I am thankful to my principal supervisor Dr. Aamir Khan, for his valuable support and persistent guidance, for always being there to provide direction and supervision.

I am grateful to Dr. Sohail Zafar, Dean Business Faculty at Lahore School of. Without his support and encouragement, this achievement would not have been possible. Sincere thanks are extended to Dr. Rabab Muddakar for providing useful information on applying quantitative methods. Also, I am sincerely thankful to Ms. Romana Noor for her assistance during my PhD candidature.

I would like to acknowledge my teachers and those who helped me throughout my professional career. This research would not have been possible without the academicians who provided feedback on the work and validated the research instrument.

I also wish to gratefully acknowledge the valuable input made by my PhD colleagues, who made many valuable suggestions and gave constructive advice on theoretical and analytical issues in particular. In fact, this journey would not have been an enjoyable one without their assistance.

My bigger appreciation goes to my husband and parents-in-law who always understand and support my dream, and keep me away from family responsibilities and encourage me to concentrate on my studies.

I am grateful to my parents, Sadia and Azar, who motivated and encouraged me to excel. Their prayers of success are always a source of guiding light for me. Their constant support and perseverance kept me going. I would like to thank my siblings, Ali, Minahil, Anam, and Saad who are always there to support me in any way possible.

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1. Introduction

“The twenty-first century workforce is increasingly dual-centric, with responsibilities for both work and family at the core of workers’ lives. Yet this twenty-first century workforce continues to labor in twentieth century workplaces, governed by employment laws forged in the late 1930s, as well as by rigid expectations on when and where work is done expectations more in keeping with the old, industrial ‘presenteeism’ model of work than with today’s performance based economy” (Christensen, 2013)

1.1. Introduction

Workforce demographics, over the last few decades, have been changing (Chen & Fulmer, 2018) and so are the expectations of the workforce (Onken-Menke, Nüesch, & Kröll, 2018; OECD, 2011). Thus, on the one hand, the number of dual-earner families have sky-rocketed while the percentage of women in the workforce has reached one half of the total in many countries (Chen & Fulmer, 2018). On the other, some 75% of employers and 74% of job seekers put flexible work arrangements (FWAs) ahead of any other benefit their organizations provide, according to one survey (CareerArc, 2015 – cited in Onken-Menke, 2018).

Not surprisingly, organizations, both for-profit and not-for-profit, have either pre-empted or have been forced to initiate, policies that are designed to offer FWAs in order to attract and retain talent (Society for Human Resource Management 2017 – cited in Onken-Menke 2018; Peretz, Fried, & Levi, 2018)). Also, an increasing number of workers are benefitting from FWAs (Koivisto & Rice, 2016). It does seem that the very concept of the “ideal worker” – a worker, mostly a male, who was 100% dedicated to office work with very responsibilities away from the office – is in the throes of a paradigmatic shift (Thébaud & Pedulla, 2016).

The nature of work in organizations has changed due to multiple factors since the inception and dissemination of information communication technologies, both from an employee perspective and from an organizational perspective (Heerwagen, Heerwagen, Kelly, & Kevin Kampschroer, 2010). Simultaneously, the number of dual-earner couples worldwide is on the rise (OECD, 2011). People are increasingly tasked with actively engaging in both work and life roles.

Flexible work arrangements (FWAs) are viewed as a coping technique to such changes, primarily because they provide workers with, as the name suggests, some flexibility or choice as regards to the manner in which they can fulfill their job expectations. More specifically, FWAs make available to workers from their organizations the options for selecting how much work to perform, location, and timing (Hill, Grzywacz, et al., 2008; Kossek & Lautsch, 2018).

FWAs include job sharing, compressed workweeks, part-time work, flexplace and, flexitime. The most popular and utilized workplace flexibility practices include flexitime and flexplace (Chen, Zhang, Sanders, & Xu, 2016; Coenen & Kok, 2014; Galinsky, Bond, & Sakai, 2008). Flexplace, also known as teleworking or telecommuting, includes working from home or absent from a traditional office, as well as virtual work using technologies (Coenen & Kok, 2014; Daniels, Lamond, & Standen, 2001). Flexitime, also called flexible work schedules, gives the option to workers to select work hours (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010).

More than one social-psychological theory may help explain behavior of workers adopting FWAs. In particular, in extant literature, two have been resorted to more than others. The Theory of social exchange and Signaling Theory have frequently been used

to explain this type of employee-employer interactions where workers will feel obligated to reciprocate in ways that are important to the organization after the workers perceive that they were given a favorable benefit (Blau, 1964; Chen & Fulmer, 2018; Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). Theory of social exchange (Blau, 1964) and Signaling Theory (Spence, 1978) argue that FWA users may feel obligated to repay their employers as they have received a benefit by being allowed to avail flexible work practices. This sense of obligation for repayment by the teleworkers may reduce their intentions to quit the job (Greer & Payne, 2014), and higher job satisfaction (e.g., Allen, 2001; Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014). The emphasis of Theory of social exchange is on mutual obligations while the emphasis of Signaling Theory is more on how one party comes to know the intent of the other party, even though both overlap to a considerable extent.

Boundary theory argues that FWAs alter the psychological, temporal, and physical boundaries between life and work roles. In one perspective, flexible work arrangements resolve such work-life conflicts (Azar, Khan, & Van Eerde, 2018; Galinsky et al., 2008; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010; van Breeschoten & Evertsson, 2019). Flexible working arrangements are an opportunity to improve workers' wellbeing by reconciling their work and family life (Hayman, 2009) or even leisure and work (Pedersen & Lewis, 2012). On the other hand, critics claim that because these work-life roles continue changing so challenges may surface that may reduce task performance and introduce conflict (Greer & Payne, 2014).

The popularity of FWAs in organizations, and the attempt to place FWAs within theoretical frameworks as mentioned above, notwithstanding, a debate regarding the

business case for and against the adoption of FWAs (Azar et al., 2018; De Menezes & Kelliher, 2011; Leslie, Manchester, Park, & Mehng, 2012; Onken-Menke et al., 2018) remains unresolved. FWA's most commonly studied outcome is job satisfaction (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2014) but literature has failed to find persistent effects of FWAs on job satisfaction (Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, 2013; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Galea, Houkes, & De Rijk, 2014). Job satisfaction has been documented as an important variable for workers' valuation of job characteristics (Hamermesh, 2001; Jahn, 2015). It has been defined as "an employee's affective or emotional reaction to a job, based on comparing actual outcomes with desired outcomes" (Lyness, Gornick, Stone, & Grotto, 2012). This debate forms one of the research areas on which I focus in my thesis.

1.2. Contribution

A review of the flexibility literature identifies that academics have mostly agreed that the possible advantages of using flexibility policies have not been fully realized; research and theory building are required (Avery, Christine, and Zabel, 2002; Kirchmeyer, 2000; Vyas, Lee, & Chou, 2017). More so, research thus far has employed Western samples only (Masuda et al., 2012); the context of developing countries has been ignored with the exception of some recent studies (Chen, Zhang, Sanders, & Xu, 2016; Vyas et al., 2017). My goal in this thesis is to build on the existing work for the advancement of theory. I employ three distinct lenses to explore the relationships of job satisfaction and use of flexible work arrangements.

The first paper (Chapter 2) focuses on the impact of mediators and moderator to clarify the inconsistent findings that have been found in the literature. In a sample of 289 employed working adults, the results of structural equation modeling revealed that

job satisfaction and work-life conflict mediated the relationship between FWAs' use and turnover intentions, after controlling for gender, age, marital status, number of children, number of dependents (elder care) and work experience. Additionally, it was found that planning behaviour (the core element of time management behaviour) strengthened the impact of FWAs' use on reducing work-life conflict. This chapter discusses the implications of the findings for Theory of social exchange and practice. Specifically, this paper addresses the following research questions:

1. Can the use of FWAs increase job satisfaction and reduce work-life conflict and in turn assist in retaining the workforce by lowering their turnover intentions?
2. Can workers' planning behaviors moderate the relationship between FWAs usage and job related outcomes (work-life conflict, job satisfaction)?

The second paper (Chapter 3) uses the lens of signaling theory to view FWAs as one instance of the organizations' attempts at increasing the well-being of their workers. In this research, it is proposed and tested that flexibility stigma will moderate the indirect effect of FWAs use on job satisfaction via career harm such that the indirect effect will be negative for workers with higher rather than lower level of flexibility stigma. In other words, in the presence of flexibility stigma, the use of FWAs will negatively affect job satisfaction; this reversal in the relationship will be due to flexibility stigma, and therefore presence of flexibility stigma is likely to act as a moderating variable. If higher frequency of use of FWAs is perceived negatively in organizational cultures (in case of high flexibility stigma) then higher use of FWAs will lead to career harm; which, in turn, will decrease job satisfaction. Therefore, a moderated mediation model (for explanation of a moderated mediation model, see

James and Brett, 1984) is proposed and tested. The strength of the indirect effect of the frequency of use of FWAs on job satisfaction will depend on the level of flexibility stigma, or in other words, the mediation relations of FWAs use and career harm and organizational outcomes will be contingent on the level of a flexibility stigma experienced by the responding workers (Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes, 2007). Specifically, the following research question is addressed in this chapter:

1. Are there perceived negative consequences (i.e. career harm) for using FWAs at work in the case where flexibility stigma prevails in the culture of the organization?

The third paper (Chapter 4) focuses on the impact of work-life conflict as a mediator to explain the inconsistent results that have been found in the literature regarding the relationship between FWAs impact on job satisfaction using a unique sample of married men with working spouse and dependents (post-traditional men at work). It also explores perceived organizational support as a moderator that strengthens the relationship between job satisfaction and FWAs use. Few contributions to date have coupled explicitly the concepts of flexible work arrangements use for the post-traditional men at work. The findings extend the existing literature on boundary theory and organizational support theory. The relatively nascent FWAs related literature scarcely mentions the theory of perceived organizational support. The provision of FWAs to the workers promote a sense of responsibility in organizations by serving as signs of concern for the workers (Sánchez, Pérez, De Luis Carnicer, & Jiménez, 2007). Specifically, this paper addresses the following research questions:

1. Does flexible work arrangements' use impact job satisfaction by decreasing the work-life conflict of the workers which in turn affects job satisfaction?

2. Does perceived organizational support strengthen the relationship between flexible work arrangements' use and work-life conflict?

A combined framework for all three chapters is presented in figure 1.

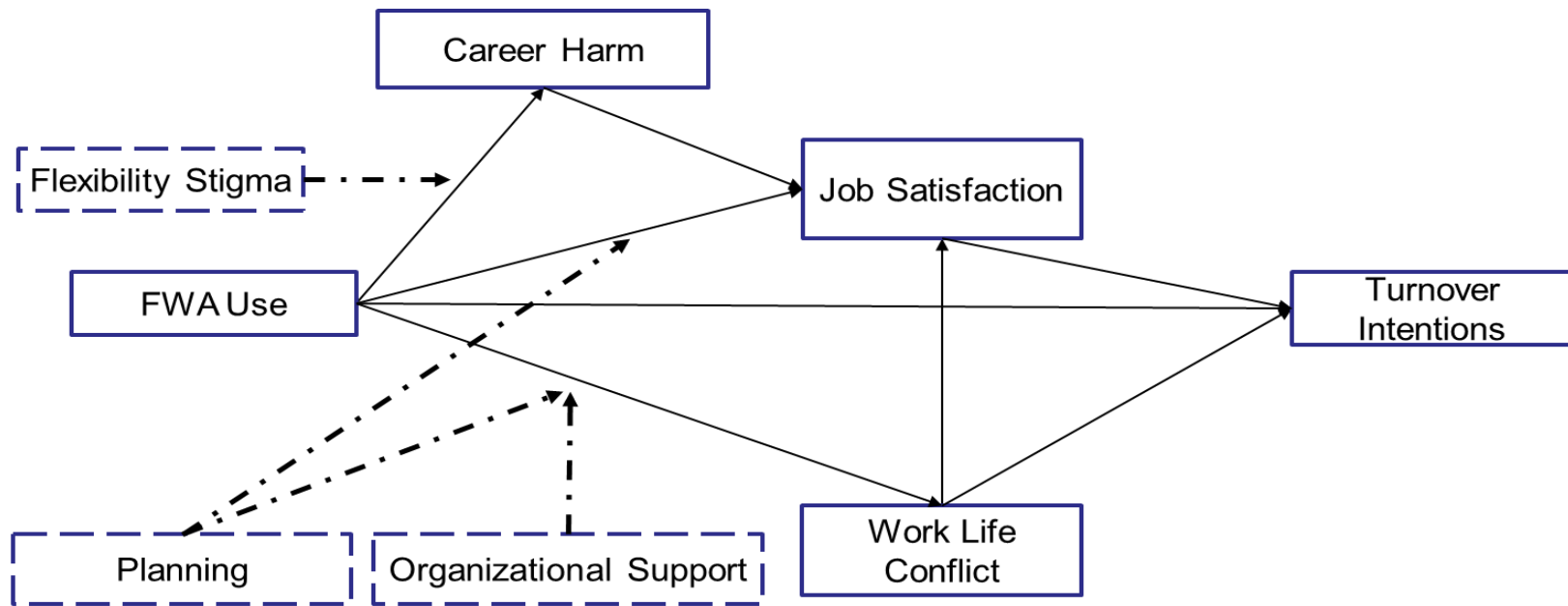


Figure 1 Combined Framework

*Moderating variables – Flexibility stigma, Planning behaviors, Organizational support.
The dotted lines depict the moderating effects.*

2. Paper I: Modeling Linkages between Flexible Work Arrangements' Use and Organizational Outcome²

Abstract

Balancing work and life responsibilities is now accepted, even encouraged, in organizations across countries and cultures. Flexible work arrangements (FWAs) are provided by organizations as one solution to this work-life conflict. Thus, it is imperative to inform business leaders of the effectiveness of FWAs. Previous literature has explored the impact of FWAs on turnover intentions. I focus on the role of moderators and mediators to explain the inconsistent results that have been found in the literature. In a sample of 289 employed working adults, the results of structural equation modelling revealed that job satisfaction and work-life conflict mediated the relationship between FWAs' use and turnover intentions, after controlling for gender, age, marital status, number of children, number of dependents (elder care) and work experience. Additionally, I found that planning behaviour (the core element of time management behaviour) strengthened the impact of FWAs' use on reducing work-life conflict. I discuss the implications of my findings for theory and practice.

Keywords: flexible work arrangements use; planning behaviours; job satisfaction; work-life conflict; turnover intentions

² Azar, S., Khan, A., & Van Eerde, W. (2018). Modelling linkages between flexible work arrangements' use and organizational outcomes. *Journal of Business Research*, 91, 134-143.

2.1. Introduction

The nature of work in organizations has changed due to multiple factors since the inception and dissemination of information communication technologies, both from an employee perspective and from an organizational perspective (Heerwagen, Kelly, & Kampschroer, 2010). One such change is organizations offering flexible work arrangements (FWAs) to their workers. Flexible work arrangements make available to workers the choice regarding where and when to work and how much work to perform (Jeffrey Hill, Grzywacz, et al., 2008). This paper applied the lens of Theory of social exchange to view FWAs as one instance of the organizations' attempts at increasing the well-being of their workers.

In Asia, relatively fewer studies on the practice of FWAs have been conducted than in the US and Europe (Chow & Keng-Howe, 2006). However, there is evidence that indicates the need for increased use of flexible work arrangements in the region. National governments and global companies are increasingly examining methodologies to introduce work-life policies that will accommodate the new reality of dual-earning couples in this region. The Centre for Work & Family identified FWAs in Asia Pacific as an important area of focus for the Global Workforce. Anell & Hartmann, (2007) reported that retaining talent was a momentous challenge for the multinational companies in Asia. As reported by the Economist (August 2007), a survey of 600 chief executives of multinational companies in Asia listed shortages of qualified staff as one of their biggest concerns in China and South East Asia. According to the same article, turnover rates can exceed 30% in certain parts of Asia. To reduce turnover and retain talented workers, FWAs have increasingly become part of the strategy of organizations (Hill, Jacob, et al., 2008; Kaufman, 2010).

Thus, many leading multinational companies have either introduced innovative flexible work arrangements in many countries of Asia or plan to do so in the near future.

The popularity of FWAs in organizations notwithstanding, a debate remains addressing the business case for and against the adoption of FWAs (De Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). Therefore, it is not surprising that a recent literature review suggests that workplace flexibility is a “poorly understood” phenomenon at work (Allen et al., 2013).

This paper examines the links between the use of flexible work arrangements, work-life conflict, job satisfaction, and the impact of planning behaviour, and turnover intentions. This study’s objective is to contribute to the understanding of FWAs by at least four means. First, this study contributes to an understanding of how flexible work arrangements (FWAs): a) resolve work-life conflict and b) enhance job satisfaction. This work I do by recourse to value percept theory (Locke, 1976) and withdrawal theory (J. . Hill & Trist, 1953). Thus, this work elucidates the “inconsistent” and “ambiguous” results documented by extant research that examine the relationships of FWAs with employee attitudes, such as job satisfaction, work-life conflict and employee turnover intentions (Allen et al., 2013; Galea et al., 2014).

Second, to the best of my knowledge, this is the first to study the planning behaviours of workers with respect to their FWAs’ use. Planning behaviour is a very strong indicator, if not the core element, of time management that enables people to structure their activities and schedule them in accordance with available resources. It is highly probable that workers who plan well may take better advantage of FWAs.

Third, extant research on FWAs has not always differentiated between the availability and use of FWAs. Recent reviews show that a few studies have separately measured access

to FWAs of workers and use of FWAs by workers. However, those studies often conflated the two measures by using them interchangeably (Kelly et al., 2008). For example, Allen et al., (2013) in a meta-analysis argued that the “variation in the relationship between WFC and flexibility” could be due to four unique factors, one of which was “the lack of clear and consistent differentiation between flexibility use and flexibility availability.”

Lastly, this study was conducted among Pakistani workers. Research thus far has employed Western samples only (Masuda et al., 2012); developing countries have been ignored with the exception of a few recent studies (Chen et al., 2016; Dancaster & Baird, 2016; Vyas et al., 2017). Evidence on the availability and use of FWAs in Pakistani organizations is rare, and there are no Pakistani studies examining FWAs’ use by workers in organizations. In addressing this research gap, this study provides a test in the South Asian setting. In fact, FWAs may be needed more in societies such as Pakistan’s as is discussed at the end of this study.

2.2. Theoretical Background

Organizations offer various types of FWAs, such as compressed work weeks, job sharing, part-time work, flexitime, and flexplace, with the most prevalent and applied workplace flexibility practices being flexplace and flexitime (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999; Coenen & Kok, 2014; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Galinsky et al., 2008). Flexplace, also known as teleworking or telecommuting, includes working away from a traditional office or at home, as well as virtual work using information and communication technologies (Coenen & Kok, 2014; Daniels et al., 2001). Flexitime, also known as flexible work schedules, allows workers to select work hours given certain restrictions by the organization (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010).

Many organizations have begun to offer these FWAs to help workers balance work and family demands (Galinsky et al., 2008; McNall et al., 2010). Multinationals such as Nestle and Vodafone have implemented flexible working to help their organizations compete with others for the best workers (Bruhn, 1997). Dell UK, with the implementation of its “connected workplace” scheme in 2010, has also embraced flexible working by allowing 65% of the firm’s workforce to adopt remote working options. Similarly, at IBM, 45% of the workforce works remotely. In addition, 70% of the workforce at TELUS (a leading Canadian telecommunications firm) is estimated to be working remotely. Tata Consultancy Services in India, with 85% of workers working remotely, notes that clarity of purpose is the first step in achieving suitable outcomes for any project. The Ministry of Manpower’s (MOM) Singapore biennial employment survey (2011) showed nearly one in two firms provided at least one formal flexible work arrangement, an increase from 38% in 2011 (Jianyue, 2014).

It may be noted that most studies on FWAs have been conducted using Western samples (Masuda et al., 2012). To fill the gap, Masuda et al., (2012) investigated differences in FWAs’ availability and its relationship with job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and work–family conflict across Anglo (English-speaking), Latin American, and East Asian countries. Lyness, Gornick, Stone, & Grotto, (2012) studied FWAs across 21 countries including Bulgaria, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, New Zealand, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Slovenia, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Studies investigating responses from other countries include Australia (Mariappanadar, 2012), Canada (Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012), Germany (Felfe, 2012), India (Ghalawat & Sukhija,

2012), and Spain (Lasierra, 2012). However, the Pakistani context has not been explored, although Pakistan is home to numerous multinational organizations and provides a base for overseas operations for many companies.

Given the importance of FWAs for organizations, researchers have revealed the effects of FWAs on organizational outcomes, including job satisfaction (e.g., Allen, 2001; Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014; De Janasz, Forret, Haack, & Jonsen, 2013; Lyness et al., 2012; Masuda et al., 2012; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010), work-life conflict (e.g., Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014; Lyness et al., 2012; Maruyama & Tietze, 2012; Masuda et al., 2012), and turnover intentions (e.g., Allen, 2001; De Janasz et al., 2013; de Sivatte & Guadamillas, 2013; Masuda et al., 2012; McNall et al., 2010). However, the studies failed to find persistent effects of FWAs on job satisfaction, work-life conflict and turnover intentions (Allen et al., 2013; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Galea et al., 2014)

Probable reasons for the mixed findings could lie in the differences of the unit of analysis employed by the studies. De Menezes & Kelliher, (2011) conducted a systematic review of literature on FWAs and performance-related outcomes. The researchers concluded that FWAs were investigated using single occupation or one organization samples. In addition, empirical studies have used samples of teaching faculty from a single university (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014; Shockley & Allen, 2012). Other studies used secondary data from large surveys that are not specifically designed to address the relationship of FWAs with performance. For example, the Workplace Employment Relations Surveys (Bryan, 2012) recorded whether any employee in the workplace had access to FWAs; however, such surveys lacked data on use of FWAs by workers. The

European Working Conditions Survey (Sanséau & Smith, 2012) had measures on FWAs and work-life balance but lacked data on turnover intentions.

Given the above, this paper proposes that research on FWAs should focus on their usage and turnover intentions through appropriate mediators. Two such mediators are discussed in the following sections.

2.2.1. Job Satisfaction and Work-Life Conflict

Over the last ten years, there has been a substantial increase in the research on determinants of job satisfaction, as it has been recognized as a summary measure for workers' valuation of job characteristics (Hamermesh, 2001; Jahn, 2015).

Job satisfaction has been defined as “an employee’s affective or emotional reaction to a job, based on comparing actual outcomes with desired outcomes” (Lyness et al., 2012). It is one of the most frequently studied outcomes of FWAs (Lyness et al., 2012; Tims et al., 2014). Overall, FWAs were positively related to the job satisfaction of workers (Allen, 2001; Baltes et al., 1999; Lyness et al., 2012; McCampbell, 1996; McNall et al., 2010; Rodgers, 1992; Shinn, Wong, Simko, & Ortiz-Torres, 1989; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Masuda et al. (2012) attributed these findings as congruent with the value percept theory underlying explanations of job satisfaction (Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001). Value percept theory states that workers are more satisfied in their job when their expectations are fulfilled (Locke, 1976).

Another commonly studied phenomenon in the FWAs literature is work-life conflict (WLC). It may be noted that WLC and Work-Family Conflict have been used interchangeably although the first is broader in scope than the second. A conflict occurs when demands of one role deplete resources that an individual needs to meet the demands

of the other role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Lapierre & Allen, 2012). This finding is mainly attributed to the fact that resources such as time and energy are finite and can be directed towards either work or family, after a certain threshold is achieved (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Thus, work-family conflict is defined as an inter-role conflict, in which role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), resulting in a conflict due to these competing priorities (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Tims et al., 2014). There are two types of work-family conflicts, namely, strain-based and time-based (Chou & Cheung, 2013). A strain-based conflict occurs when the stress of one role transferred to the other role. A time-based conflict occurs when the time requirements for one role exhaust the time requirements for other role.

Moreover, the conflict can occur in two directions: from work to family, and from family to work. This finding leads to two types of such conflicts: work to family conflict, and family to work conflict (Chou & Cheung, 2013). Consistent with the resource drain perspective on work–family conflict, research has revealed that work role demands such as work schedules show a relationship of work interfering with family (WIF) and that family role demands such as time spent at home are primary correlates of family interference with work (FIW) (Byron, 2005; Frone, 2003; Lapierre & Allen, 2012).

Consistent with McNall et al. (2010), the focus is solely on the direction of conflict flowing from work to family because of evidence showing that work-to-family conflict is more strongly related to work-related variables (job satisfaction and turnover intentions) than family–to-work conflict (McNall et al., 2010; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006). Thus, the purpose of this study is to focus on the time-based conflict when work interferes with family (WIF) (Carlson et al., 2000).

It has been argued that work-life conflict is a more appropriate term than work-family conflict, because workers without family and family care responsibilities are also vulnerable to the conflict between roles in the work and non-work domains; non-work domains may include friends and leisure time (Chou & Cheung, 2013; Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006; Schieman, Milkie, & Glavin, 2009; Waumsley, Houston, & Marks, 2010). Thus, this study uses the term work-life conflict (WLC).

FWAs were created to help workers cope with such conflicts (Galinsky et al., 2008; Masuda et al., 2012). FWAs allowed families to create time for parenting and other responsibilities. Allen (2001) showed that FWAs lowered work-family conflict. Scholars concluded that, in an attempt to resolve these conflicts, FWAs were more beneficial for and were adopted by workers who had a family (Kossek et al., 2006).

At the same time, Davies & Frink, (2014) viewed FWAs as a double-edged sword because FWAs can also enable work time to intrude on personal and family time, causing conflicts (Perlow, 2012). Research on the effectiveness of FWAs programmes on reducing work-life conflict demonstrated that FWAs were not sufficient for creating work-life balance (Lewis, 2003). In the investigation by (Timms et al., 2015), respondents did not believe that using FWAs solved their work-life issues. Similarly, Masuda et al. (2012) found that the relationship was inconsistent across the three country clusters where FWAs did not relate to lower WFC in managers from Latin America and Asia. Similarly, a meta-analysis by Byron, (2005) concluded that FWAs were negatively related to WLC; however, the meta-analysis by Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, (2005) did not find a relationship between FWAs and WLC.

Such mixed findings suggest a need to further explore the relationship of FWAs with work-life conflict (Baltes et al., 1999; Glass & Finley, 2002; Lyness et al., 2012).

2.3. Hypotheses Development

2.3.1. Job Satisfaction and Work-Life Conflict as Mediators between FWAs and Turnover Intentions

Withdrawal theory (Hill & Trist, 1953) suggests that Job Satisfaction (JS) and Work-Life Conflict (WLC) are the main causes of Turnover Intentions (TO). Withdrawal theory regards absenteeism as withdrawing from adverse working conditions (Anderson & Geldenhuys, 2011) and is next to low job satisfaction and higher work-life conflict. Research has found evidence in support of this theory. Job satisfaction is a suitable predictor of workers' intention to stay, and it is also associated with low rates of absenteeism (Allen, 2001; Brough, O'Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2005). In addition, work-life conflict leads to turnover of workers (Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Schilling, 1989). In other words, this finding implies that workers would intend to leave the organization if they are experiencing low job satisfaction or high work-life conflict.

It is evident FWAs' use has an impact on JS and WLC, and another stream of research extends further in indicating the impact of FWAs on employee retention or on a reduction in their intention to leave the organization (Allen, 2001; Batt & Valcour, 2003; De Janasz et al., 2013; de Sivatte & Guadamillas, 2013; Masuda et al., 2012; McNall et al., 2010). These studies have shown that FWAs decrease turnover intentions (Allen, 2001; Batt & Valcour, 2003; McNall et al., 2010). Theory of social exchange (Blau, 1964) has been used to explain why FWAs can contribute to an attachment to the organization (McNall et al., 2010). According to theory of social exchange, workers will perceive the

option to use FWAs as favourable treatment by the organization and will therefore reciprocate the exchange with positive organizational outcomes. Masuda et al., (2012) suggested that the availability of such flexibility policies influenced turnover intentions when workers perceived such policies as a signal by the organization to show that they cared for the employee.

To summarize, researchers have established links between FWAs and (1) job satisfaction, (2) work-life conflict, and (3) turnover intentions. Researchers have also established that the causes of turnover intentions are lack of job satisfaction and work-life conflict. This paper proposes that the inconsistencies in the relationship of FWAs with organizational outcomes (job satisfaction and work-life conflict) may occur because extant research has been examining these relationships in isolation and have not been considering the mediation that.

Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H₁: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between Flexible Work Arrangements' use and Turnover Intentions.

H₂: Work-Life Conflict mediates the relationship between Flexible Work Arrangements' use and Turnover Intentions

2.3.2. The Moderating Effect of Planning Behavior

Time is an important finite resource, and time management can present real challenges with the use of FWAs. Time management has a long history and, at a minimum, “predates the modern Gregorian calendar” (Aguinis, 2017). Claessens, Van Eerde, Rutte, & Roe, (2004) defined time management behaviour as “behaviours that aim at achieving an effective use of time while performing certain goal-directed activities”. Time

management can be separated into the behaviours of planning tasks, prioritizing, making to-do lists, and limiting the influence of interruptions (Douglas, Bore, & Munro, 2016). Time management has been associated both with well-being of workers and with employee performance (See Tables 1 and 2 in Aguinis, (2017).

The core element of time management remains planning behaviour (Claessens et al., 2004). Planning behaviour is roughly equivalent to Macan, Shahani, Dipboye, & Phillips, (1990)'s "goal-setting and prioritizing" (Claessens et al., 2004). Macan et al., (1990) argued that goal-setting and prioritizing lead to perceived control of time, which, in turn, led to job satisfaction. More recently, Claessens et al., (2004) noted that planning enables people to structure their activities and schedule them in accordance with available resources and opportunities, which increases the likelihood of completing work as planned and therefore feeling less strained due to work.

Thus far, the FWAs literature has not elucidated the required time management behaviours necessary for adoption of FWAs by workers. One reason for this exclusion could be that it was not believed possible that time management and planning behaviours could be used in low-autonomy job scenarios. Thus, Claessens et al., (2004) noted that little research attention has been given to the question what time management can contribute in combination with organizational or work place factors. In a job in which it is not possible to plan one's workday because managers, or the workflow procedures determine the order and timing of activities, or, in other words, where job autonomy is low, time management might not be an option.

Among the few studies linking FWAs and time management, Adams & Jex, (1999) , Lapierre & Allen, (2012), and Gold & Mustafa, (2013) have researched the potential

benefits of time management behaviour in relation to WLC. Additionally, WLC for workers was found to depend specifically on how successfully they managed time (Gold & Mustafa, 2013). Thus, one of the solutions proposed for reducing WLC is the implementation of planning behaviour by workers (Adams & Jex, 1999; Lapierre & Allen, 2012). Planning will help to enhance FWAs' use because the combination is more than the effect of FWAs' use in isolation.

As previously noted, flexplace and flexitime are the most applied types of FWAs. Therefore, it is likely that the use of these FWAs would require proficient time management (particularly planning behaviours) by the employee. For example, if workers are working from home (flexplace), they would be confronted with distractions, challenges and tasks emanating from their non-work roles. Thus, the workers will need to hone their time management skills to allocate time between their work and non-work roles efficiently. Similarly, flexitime will require greater planning from the worker to decide how to schedule the tasks in the varying hours of work.

Consistent with Lapierre & Allen, (2012)'s approach and based on the above discussion, it is hypothesized that FWAs should enable those who use more planning behaviour, i.e., who plan their tasks ahead, prioritize their chores, make to-do lists when needed, and more effectively limit the influence of interruptions, to more easily avoid the work delays and work overload that would otherwise drain the time and energy they need for their family activities. Consequently, such professionals who plan more will encounter work-life conflict to a lesser extent and experience higher levels of job satisfaction than those who do not plan.

Given the above, this study proposes that planning behaviour moderates the relationship between the use of FWAs, job satisfaction and WLC, such that the relationship is stronger among workers who engage in planning to a higher extent.

H₃: Planning behaviour moderates the relationship between FWA use and job satisfaction, such that the positive relationship between job satisfaction and FWAs use is stronger for individuals with higher levels of planning behaviour.

H₄: Planning behaviour moderates the relationship between FWAs' use and Work-Life Conflict, such that the negative relationship between FWAs' use and Work-Life Conflict is stronger for individuals with higher levels of planning behaviour.

The conceptual framework for this study, showing the four hypotheses, is presented in Figure 2.

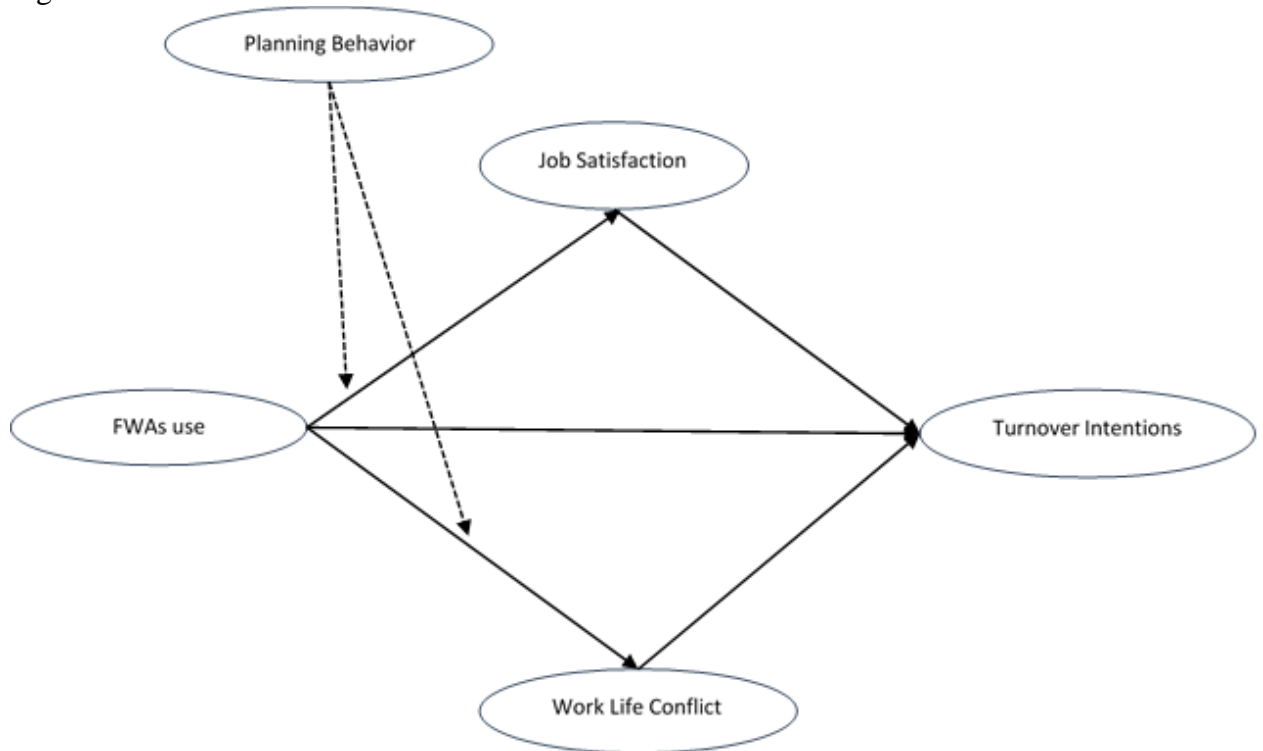


Figure 2 Conceptual Framework

2.4. Method

2.4.1. Sample and Procedure

Initially, a total of 8000 e-mail invitations were sent using the list generated from Lexis Nexis Corporate Affiliates³ for managers in Pakistan. The email described the study, requesting voluntary participation. The pre-qualifier for participation in the survey was that the respondent had availed a form of flexible work arrangement (either formal or informal). A total of 1800 employees agreed to participate. Two reminder emails were sent to increase the response rate. After filtering incomplete responses and removing outliers, a total sample of 289 respondents was used for this research, resulting in response rate of 16%. To check for non-response bias, Armstrong & Overton, (1977) assume that the data collection should be divided into early respondents (representing for respondent's opinion) and late respondents (representing for non-respondents). The early respondents for this research were responses received before the reminder emails were sent. The late respondents were responses received after the reminder emails were sent. Chi-square results were used to test the difference in early and late responses. Insignificant chi-square results indicate that there is no significant difference between the first wave and the second wave at the level of 0.05. This exhibited that the responses received represent an unbiased sample (Appendix E).

Of the 289 participants, 37% belonged to public/government organizations, while 63% belonged to private organizations. Among these participants, 73% were males, while 27% were females. The average age of the respondents was 32 years with overall average work experience of 9 years. Respondents were from a variety of industries in Pakistan,

³ LexisNexis® Corporate Affiliations provides an authoritative source of company and executive information for the organizations. Working more than 45 years, this database provides information on company profiles and in-depth details on directors, managers and their professional interactions (Source: LexisNexis website– <http://www.lexisnexis.com>)

including healthcare (22%), telecommunication (19%), technology (14%), finance (21%), and manufacturing (24%).

The data were collected using a self-report questionnaire, which is commonly used and accepted in work-family research as it represents individuals' perceived circumstances (De Janasz et al., 2013; Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1980).

2.4.2. Measures

2.4.2.1. Flexible Work Arrangement Use

The 4-item scale developed by Crowley & Kolenikov, (2014) was adopted to measure the use of flexible work arrangements. Participants were requested to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements such as “How much control do you exercise in scheduling your work hours—that is, how much control do you have in setting the time you arrive at work and leave every day?” on a 7-point scale (from 7= Full Control to 1= No Control).

2.4.2.2. Time Management Planning Behaviour

The 10-item scale developed by Macan et al., (1990) is used to measure time management behaviour (planning behaviour) with a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree). For example, “I set short-term goals for what I want to accomplish in a few days or weeks”.

2.4.2.3. Time-based Work-Family Conflict (WIF)

WIF was measured using 10 items developed by Carlson et al., (2000). Respondents were requested to rate the items (e.g., “My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like”) on a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree).

2.4.2.4. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction (e.g., “All in all, I am satisfied with my job”) was assessed with the 3-item Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, (1979) scale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire. Participants were requested to rate their agreement using a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree).

2.4.2.5. Turnover Intentions

Turnover intentions (e.g., “I often think about quitting my job”) was measured with the 3-item Cammann et al., (1979) subscale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire. Participants were requested to rate their agreement using a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree).

2.4.2.6. Control Variables

The research findings were controlled for gender, age, marital status, number of children, number of dependents (elder care) and work experience in years, in accordance with previous practice in the literature (e.g., McNall et al., 2010).

2.5. Data Analysis

Structural Equation Modelling was used to test the hypotheses, using Amos 18. First, AMOS examines the measurement model, followed by the structural model. This study used a set of indices to determine the model fit (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Goodness of Fit Index

(GFI)). Using multiple indices is superior to the application of a single index because each index has weaknesses and strengths (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011). RMSEA is likely to over-reject models at a small sample size (Hu & Bentler, 1999), while CFI is a relatively stable fit index (Gerbing & Anderson, 1992). The indices have rules to determine good fit as follows: CFI & GFI > 0.9 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980); and RMSEA < 0.08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1992).

2.6. Results

2.6.1. Measurement Model

2.6.1.1. Common Method Variance

Data were collected from the same respondent for independent and dependent variables; therefore, the presence of common method bias cannot be ruled out (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). A Harman's single factor test was conducted to determine if majority of the variance could be explained by a single factor. The test revealed five factors with Eigen values greater than one, explaining 62% of the variance. The first factor explained 22% of the total variance. This finding is evidence that common method bias is unlikely (Appendix B).

2.6.1.2. Means, Standard Deviation, and Correlations

A descriptive statistical analysis was performed to obtain a broad understanding of the data. Correlations were calculated to identify the strength of the relationships between all variables (Zou, Tuncali, & Silverman, 2003). Means, standard deviations and correlations for all variables are presented in Table 1. FWAs use was found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction with Pearson's correlation value 0.302 ($p=0.000$). FWAs use was found to be negatively correlated with work-life conflict with Pearson's correlation value -0.173 ($p=0.000$) and -0.255 ($p=0.000$), respectively.

2.6.1.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The reliability and validity of the constructs were established using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Reliability of the constructs was tested by composite reliability with the standardized solutions in CFA (Shook, Ketchen, Hult, & Kacmar, 2004) using the benchmark of 0.7. The data was examined for convergent and discriminant validity. The confirmatory factor analysis for the proposed five-factor model obtained a good fit (Chi-square= 566.112, Degrees of freedom= 395, P, 0.001, RMSEA=0.039, and CFI= 0.957). All items loaded significantly (> 0.50) on their respective factors (see Table 2).

Convergent validity indicates the extent to which the items of a scale that are theoretically related are also related in reality. Convergent validity is ensured by comparing the item loadings, Composite Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values. As provided in Table 2, all items have significant ($p < 0.05$) path loadings greater than the threshold of 0.7 recommended by Fornell & Larcker, (1981). All constructs have CR values between 0.80 and 0.91, fulfilling the recommended value proposed by (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1979). For discriminant validity to hold, square root of every AVE value belonging to each latent construct was found to be larger than the correlation among the pair of latent constructs (Table 1). Overall, these tests of reliability and validity signify a high degree of confidence regarding the items used in testing the research model

Table 1 Descriptive Analysis

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. FWAs use	3.278	1.276	(0.794)				
2. Job Satisfaction	3.611	0.992	0.302*	(0.884)			
3. Work-life Conflict	3.088	0.863	-0.173*	-0.290*	(0.662)		
4. Turnover Intentions	3.124	1.532	-0.255*	-0.581*	0.311*	(0.767)	
5. Planning Behaviour	3.664	0.735	0.039	0.155*	-0.064	-0.075	(0.666)

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). N = 289

Standard Deviation (SD)

Parentheses indicate the value of square root of Average Variance Extracted ($\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$)

Table 2 Reliability and Validity

	Items	Loadings
Turnover Intentions		
CR: 0.808 AVE: 0.589	TO1	0.840
	TO2	0.781
	TO3	0.666
FWAs use		
CR: 0.872 AVE: 0.631	FWAU1	0.817
	FWAU2	0.781
	FWAU3	0.834
	FWAU4	0.743
Job Satisfaction		
CR: 0.916 AVE: 0.784	JS1	0.902
	JS2	0.895
	JS3	0.859
Work-life Conflict		
CR: 0.883 AVE: 0.438	WLC1	0.693
	WLC2	0.631
	WLC3	0.413
	WLC4	0.747
	WLC5	0.776
	WLC6	0.433
	WLC7	0.616
	WLC8	0.739
	WLC9	0.686
	WLC10	0.766
Planning Behaviour		
CR: 0.888 AVE: 0.443	TMB1	0.634
	TMB2	0.667
	TMB3	0.639
	TMB4	0.671
	TMB5	0.704
	TMB6	0.707
	TMB7	0.649
	TMB8	0.597
	TMB9	0.712
	TMB10	0.664

CR = Composite Reliability AVE = Average Variance Extracted
 All factor loadings were significant at $p < .001$

2.6.2. Structural Model

Having ensured the validity and reliability of the measurement model, a Structural Equation Model (SEM) was estimated in which FWAs' use was the independent variable, job satisfaction and work-life conflict were the mediators, and turnover intentions was the dependent variable (see Figure 2)

2.6.2.1. Mediating Effect of Job Satisfaction and Work-Life Conflict

The study examines how FWAs' use has an impact on turnover intentions through mediating variables (job satisfaction and work-life conflict), while controlling for the impact of age, gender, marital status, experience, number of children, and number of dependents (elder care). The study consequently leads to an assessment of the total and direct effects of the FWA use construct on the dependent variable (turnover intentions) and the indirect effects via the mediators (job satisfaction and work-life conflict). The bootstrapping approach is used to test the mediating effects: a non-parametric resampling procedure that does not impose an assumption of normality on the sampling distribution (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

The total impact of FWAs' use on turnover intentions was examined. Then, the mediators were added in the model to check for direct and indirect effects (see Table 2 and Figure 2). To test Hypotheses 1 and 2, the bootstrap method (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) was used. In total, 5000 bootstraps based on 289 observations with a 95% bias-corrected confidence interval and bootstrapped percentile for indirect effects were generated.

Results showed that the full mediation model fitted the data (RMSEA= 0.045, CFI= 0.965, GFI= 0.926). Fig. 3 describes a significant total effect of FWAs' use on turnover intentions ($\beta = -0.356$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$). Table 3 shows test results of the mediating effect. In the presence of job satisfaction and work-life conflict, the direct impact of FWAs on

turnover intentions was not significant ($\beta = -0.062$, p -value = 0.432), while the indirect effects were significant. Fig. 3 describes the direct effects of FWAs' use on overall turnover intentions and the mediators (job satisfaction and work-life conflict). The data supports Hypotheses 2 and 3, indicating that job satisfaction and work-life conflict mediate the impact of FWAs' use on turnover intentions.

Table 3 Mediation Results

Total Effect	Estimate	p-value
Flexible Work Arrangements Use -> Turnover Intentions	-0.356	0.000
Direct Effect	Estimate	p-value
Flexible Work Arrangements Use -> Turnover Intentions	-0.062	0.432
Flexible Work Arrangements Use -> Job Satisfaction	0.281	0.000
Job Satisfaction -> Turnover Intentions	-0.872	0.001
Flexible Work Arrangements Use -> Work-life Conflict	-0.143	0.000
Work-life Conflict -> Turnover Intentions	0.338	0.005
Indirect Effect	Estimate	p-value
Flexible Work Arrangements Use -> Turnover Intentions	-0.293	0.000
Flexible Work Arrangements Use -> Job Satisfaction -> Turnover Intentions	-0.245	0.000
Flexible Work Arrangements Use -> Work-life Conflict -> Turnover Intentions	-0.048	0.000

Model fit indices: RMSEA 0.045, CFI 0.965, GFI 0.921

Independent Variable: Flexible Work Arrangements Use

Mediating Variables: Job Satisfaction and Work-life Conflict,

Dependent Variable: Turnover Intentions

Control Variables: Age ($\beta = 0.018$, p -value = 0.019), Gender($\beta = -0.141$, p -value = 0.397), Marital status ($\beta = -0.288$, p -value = 0.080), Number of Children ($\beta = 0.043$, p -value = 0.541), Work Experience($\beta = -0.019$, p -value = 0.008), Number of Dependents (elder care)($\beta = 0.046$, p -value = 0.355)

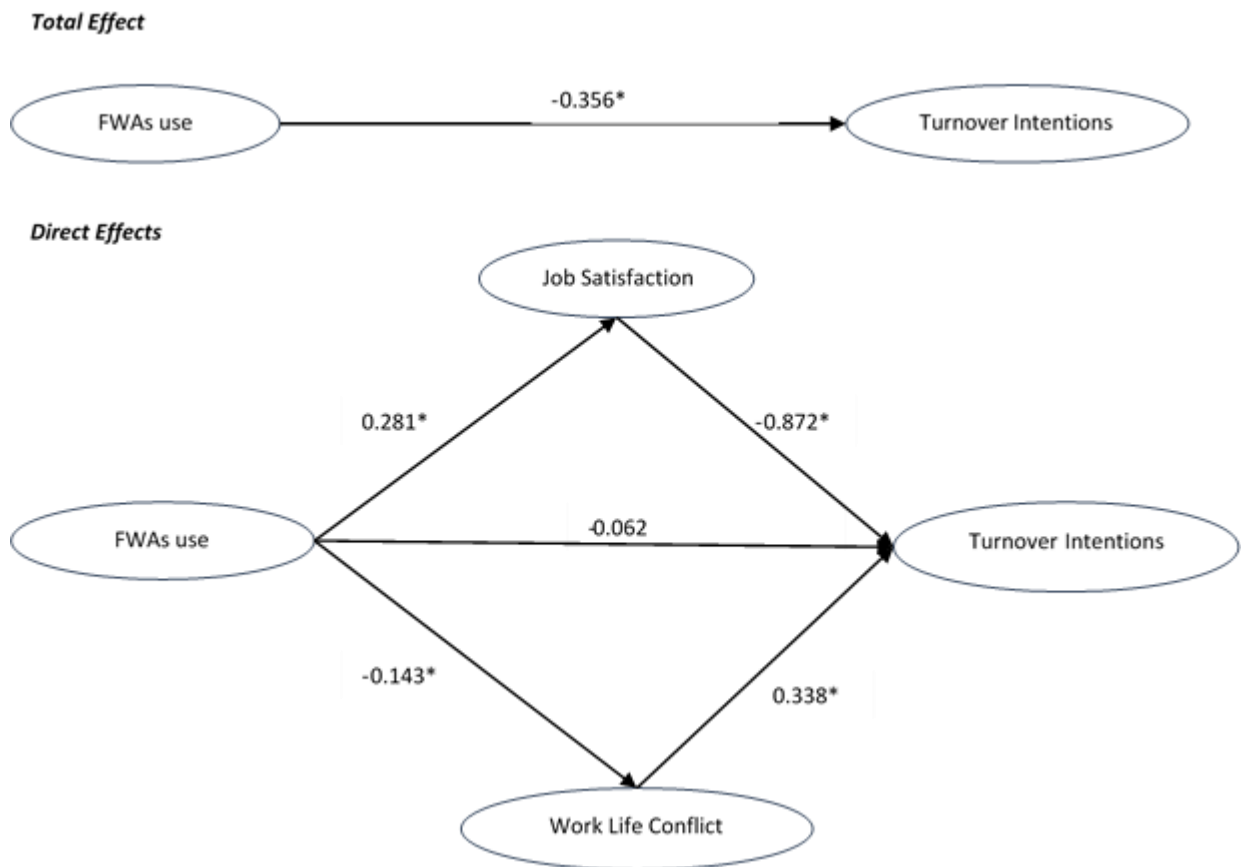


Figure 3 Mediation Analysis

* p -value < 0.05

2.6.2.2. Moderating Effect of Planning Behaviour

To test Hypotheses 3 and 4, which state that planning behaviour would moderate the relationship of FWAs' use with job satisfaction and work-life conflict, hierarchical multiple regression analysis procedure was used to test the moderator effect (Ro, 2012) on the relationship between planning behaviour on job satisfaction (Hypothesis 3) and work-life conflict (Hypothesis 4). The variables were standardized (by calculating z-score) to reduce the problems associated with multicollinearity among the variables in the moderation analysis (Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004). In the first step of the regression, the independent variable (FWAs' use) and the moderator (planning behaviour) were entered into the model as predictors of the outcome variable (job satisfaction and work-life conflict). At this point, the independent variable and/or moderating variable do not need to

be significant predictors of the dependent variable to test for an interaction. FWAs' use had a significant impact on work-life conflict ($\beta = -0.169$, p-value = 0.004) and job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.293$, p-value = 0.000). Planning behaviour depicted a significant impact on job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.158$, p-value = 0.005) but did not have a significant impact on work-life conflict ($\beta = -0.079$, p-value = 0.173). In the next step, an interaction term, the product of FWAs' use and planning behaviour (which represents the moderator effect) was added to the model. As shown in Table 4, the interaction term (FWAs' use * planning behaviour) explained a statistically significant amount of variance in work-life conflict ($\beta = -0.159$, p-value = 0.004) but not in job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.026$, p-value = 0.626). Figure 4 shows the interaction pattern hypothesized in Hypothesis 4 (using regression coefficients: Independent variable: -0.142, Moderator: -0.069, Interaction: -0.159, Intercept/Constant: 3). Planning behaviour strengthened the negative relationship of FWAs' use and WLC. In other words, planning behaviour in combination with FWAs helped to further decrease WLC.

Table 4 Moderation Results

	Step 1		Step 2	
	Estimate	p-value	Estimate	p-value
Planning behaviour -> Work-life Conflict	-0.079	0.173	-0.069	0.226
FWAs use -> Work-life Conflict	-0.169	0.004	-0.142	0.014
Planning behaviour -> Job Satisfaction	0.158	0.005	0.158	0.005
FWAs use -> Job Satisfaction	0.293	0.000	0.293	0.000
Planning*FWAs use -> Work-life Conflict			-0.159	0.004
Planning*FWAs use -> Job Satisfaction			0.026	0.626

Model Fit Step 1: RMSEA 0.169, CFI 0.718, GFI 0.970

Model Fit Step 2: RMSEA 0.088, CFI 0.906, GFI 0.986

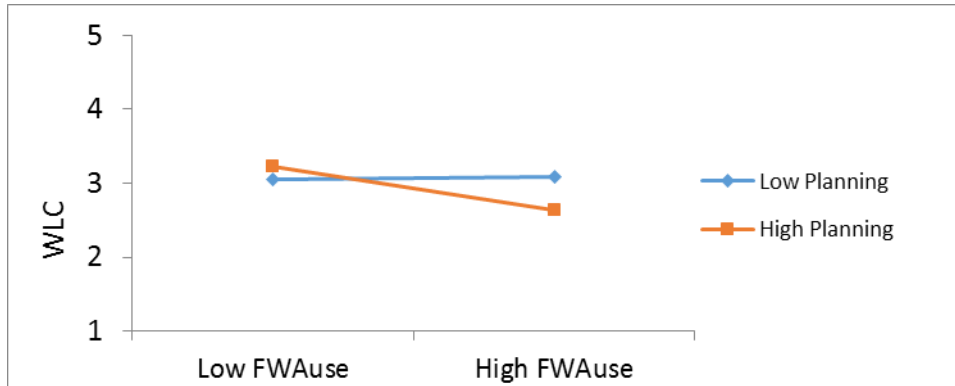


Figure 4 Moderation Analysis

Graphed interaction term of FWAs use and planning behaviour behaviours on work-life conflict
*Unstandardized Regression Coefficients: Independent variable (FWAs use):-0.140, Moderator (Planning behaviour):-0.070, Interaction (FWAs use*Planning):-0.160, Intercept / Constant:3*
Planning strengthens the negative relationship between FWAs' use and Work-life Conflict (WLC).

2.7. Discussion

This study originated from the observation that the work environment in organizations has witnessed a change and that one such change is both led and exhibited by FWAs (Ronald J Burke & Ng, 2006). It is also noted that, while in the past, FWAs have been shown to affect turnover intention (Masuda et al., 2012), there was confusion regarding the distinction between the availability of such arrangements and their usage (Allen et al., 2013; Allen & Shockley, 2009). At a minimum, this paper has clarified the conceptual and operational demarcation between these two terms. I believe this demarcation is non-trivial; in many organizations such FWAs have not only been mandated, these have also been made available. However, without the FWAs' usage, their impact will be minimal. More research on this distinction is welcome.

Furthermore, it was hypothesized and shown that job satisfaction and work-life conflict mediated the relationship between use of FWAs' and turnover intentions. I find this relationship to be a key insight. This relationship implies that the linkage between FWAs' use and turnover intentions should not be assumed and that companies are well

advised to focus on both WLC and job satisfaction to maximize the impact of FWAs. To us, this assumption is worth exploring.

Generally, this study has implications for further elaboration of Theory of social exchange (SET) regarding FWAs, as was previously noted, albeit briefly. At the heart of SET lies the norm of reciprocity, which can be summarized as, “You should give benefits to those who give you benefits” (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017; Gouldner, 1957). This norm of reciprocity has been successfully applied to employee-employer relationships over the last five decades (e.g., Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage, & Rohdieck, 2004) in what has been termed as a transformation of “an economic exchange relationship into a high-quality social exchange relationship” by the means of “reciprocating responses” (Cropanzano et al., 2017).

Specifically, if workers perceive that the organization is committed to their well-being, they do the following: a) develop global beliefs regarding the concern of organizations for their well-being and b) their commitment to organization increases (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). FWAs are clearly one such instance of the organizations’ attempts at increasing the well-being of their workers. If this attempt is perceived by the workers as adding to their well-being, it is not surprising that their job satisfaction increases, WLC decreases, and both these reduce their turnover intentions. (However, whether this “well-being” is applicable to all the workers is not clear; please see the section on Limitations and Further Research below).

Equally, it was shown that planning behaviour strengthens the relationship between FWAs’ use and work-life conflict. When planning is higher, the effect of the use of FWAs on work-life conflict is stronger. In fact, the effect of FWAs’ use on WLC is very small if

the effect of planning is not considered; it is considerably larger for those who plan more. Again, these effects lead to further exploration of how planning behaviour can be influenced. For example, planning behaviours can be taught to workers by providing time management workshops (Azar, 2013; Macan et al., 1990). This teaching is an additional lever in the hands of management with which it can influence and impact the behaviour of its workers, with a view to reducing turnover intentions.

This study could not find support for the moderating effect of planning behaviour on the relationship between FWAs' use and job satisfaction. This remains for further exploration. I can only surmise the possible reasons for this finding. It may be that FWAs' use itself has incorporated planning behaviour vis-à-vis job satisfaction, and no further impact is available. It is also possible that the impact of planning behaviour on job satisfaction is being mediated itself through work-life conflict. In other words, it is the lessening of work-life conflict that leads to job satisfaction, and the measure is not so fine-tuned as to register the additional incremental effect. It is also possible that the dataset simply does not contain sufficient variation in the independent and dependent variables.

Although this study has important theoretical implications, it has relevance for Pakistan and other countries with similar cultures. I claim this finding for both general and specific reasons. In general, Pakistan has been viewed as a patriarchal society due to women's stereotypical domestic roles and religious prescriptions as well as cultural norms (Rehman & Roomi, 2012). At the same time, women are playing an ever increasing and active role in Pakistan's economy (Ferdoos, 2006). In addition, economic difficulties in Pakistan have led to the entrance of women into the work force in large numbers, and dual earners are now a familiar sight in certain industries (Nadeem & Abbas, 2009).

In particular, the scant research that exists on working women in Pakistan suggests they encounter numerous hurdles. One women entrepreneur explained that, because she had a “special” daughter, working outside would not have accorded her freedom of time. Others claimed that husbands did not like “to be in the kitchen”, that working wives needed to be careful not to embarrass their husbands in front of others by asking them to help (Rehman & Roomi, 2012). FWAs, as can be imagined, must be in great demand.

2.8. Future Research Directions and Limitations

There are limitations for this research. First, the data collected was cross-sectional in nature. It was based on a single source. I did test for common method bias and did not find an indication that common method bias affected the data. However, it would be preferred to adopt a methodology of multiple source data. Second, the results are based on a cross-sectional study, making it difficult to infer causality. Future research should also employ the experimental method or longitudinal design with a lag to understand the delay in FWAs’ use and their causal impact on turnover intentions. Third, there is a requirement for quantitative studies that should use large samples of nationally representative employers to provide further information on the extent of FWAs availability and use by workers in Pakistan. Fourth, in this study, the individual unit of analysis has been used. It will be valuable to understand the influence of FWAs’ use across teams and organizations because the frequent use of FWAs also has implications for the coordination and cooperation of workers within organizations. Fifth, the respondents for this study were spread across industries. I did control for this effect, however, it would be interesting to study whether there are industry-wide variations in the impact of FWAs’ use.

Regarding further research, first, the model proposed in this study investigated work-life conflict as a mediator and did not examine the positive side of the work – life interface

e.g., work-life enrichment (Rothbard, 2001). Previously, (W. Chen et al., 2016) examined work-to-family enrichment as a mediator for the relationship between flexible work arrangement availability and turnover intentions. Future research could benefit by studying the impact of work-life enrichment as a mediator between FWAs' usage and turnover intentions.

Importantly, I have assumed that FWAs are beneficial for the workers from the organizational perspective and that all or most workers agree. This finding is in accordance with Theory of social exchange (SET), as noted above. However, this research has not discussed the possibility of: a) some or many workers being unhappy with FWAs' availability to others, claiming these undermine work ethic and b) the consequent association of stigma with FWAs for those who feel the need of having recourse to them. This possibility remains for further research.

Finally, this study has introduced planning behaviour as a moderator of the relationships between FWAs' use on the one hand and job satisfaction and WLC on the other hand. This introduction opens a new area for exploration of FWA's use. For example, ample research has correlated planning behaviour with perceived control of time (for references see (Claessens et al., 2004). It would be interesting to observe whether FWAs' availability and use lead to an increased perceived control of time and whether perceived control of time mediates the relationship between FWAs' availability and use on the one hand and employee job satisfaction and lessening of WLC on the other hand.

2.9. Conclusion

The empirical support work-life conflict and job satisfaction as mediators for the relation between turnover intentions and use of flexible work arrangement. The impact of

FWAs use on WLC was strengthened by Planning behaviour as a moderator; however, it did not strengthen the relation between job satisfaction and FWAs' use. In addition to contributing to the theoretical knowledge of FWAs, the current findings have managerial implications. The findings suggest management should increase their focus on facilitating the use of FWAs. Management can achieve this objective by demonstrating that providing flexibility to workers can increase workers' satisfaction and lower their WLC and thus, in turn, lower turnover intentions. Furthermore, management should focus on planning behaviours to facilitate the usage of FWAs and may thus consider training employees.

3. Paper II: Exploring the Impact of Flexibility Stigma on Career Harm and Job Satisfaction on users of FWAs

Abstract

This paper is positioned as an exploration of the reason(s) why inconclusive, even contradictory results have been consistently obtained regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and flexible work arrangements (FWAs). It is suggested that the assumption, at least in the minds of the FWAs researchers, if not in those of the practitioners, that FWAs' induction and usage are favorably viewed by the vast majority of the workers of all organizations may not be valid. Then I look at enunciations of this assumption, examine some notable attempts to resolve these inconsistencies and develop a model that explains these inconsistencies in terms of two constructs: Career Harm and Flexibility Stigma. This is done through a conditional process model. This study has implications for further elaboration of signaling theory.

Keywords: FWA use, Job satisfaction, Career harm, Flexibility stigma

3.1. Introduction

“Research findings on workplace flexibility, however, reveal contradictions that often lead organizations and employees to feel ‘damned if you do and damned if you don’t’ in developing, implementing and deciding whether to use work–life initiatives.”(Putnam, Myers, & Gailliard, 2014)

Flexible Work Arrangements (FWAs), offering workers choices of where and when to work (Azar et al. 2018) are now not only a well-researched academic topic within organizational studies but also a growing human resource management strategy within organizations (De Menezes & Kelliher, 2017; Katz & Krueger, 2019; Stromquist, 2019). This development has been explained by researchers as a response to the changes in the very nature of the way work is now approached (Chen & Fulmer, 2018; Katz & Krueger, 2019). Whereas, in the past, the image of an “ideal” worker, with no other commitment except to his organization, dominated the mindset of the organization (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014; Davies & Frink, 2014), these days it is increasingly common to see companies providing their workers with some flexibility such as that of time and place (Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, & Brennan, 2008). This has allowed many workers to fulfill their non-work obligations, be these familial or non-familial (Erden Bayazit & Bayazit, 2019).

Despite extensive research on FWAs (for some recent meta-analyses, see Chen & Fulmer, (2018; Onken-Menke et al., (2018) it is surprising that both individual studies and meta-analyses of linkages between FWAs and outcomes, at the organizational as well as the individual levels, have reported inconsistent results (de Menezes & Kelliher, 2011; Koivisto & Rice, 2016; Leslie et al., 2012; Onken-Menke et al., 2018). One meta-analysis concluded that “the evidence fails to demonstrate a business case for the use of FWAs”

(De Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). Another meta-analysis by Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, (2013) noted “empirical studies examining [the relationship between FWAs and work-family conflict] have produced inconsistent results” and that “the potential for FWA to reduce work-family conflict may be limited.” A more recent survey of some 21,981 workers in Britain (Chen & Fulmer, 2018), concluded that “workers who actually used flexible scheduling had lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment.”

This paper is positioned as an exploration of the reason(s) why inconclusive, even contradictory results have been consistently obtained. It is suggested that the assumption, at least in the minds of the FWAs researchers, if not in those of the practitioners, that FWAs’ induction and usage are favorably viewed by the vast majority of the workers of all organizations may not be valid. Then I look at enunciations of this assumption, examine some notable attempts to resolve these inconsistencies and develop a model that explains these inconsistencies in terms of two constructs: Career Harm and Flexibility Stigma. This is done through a conditional process model (for an explanation of a moderated mediation model, see Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007).

3.2. Theoretical Background

3.2.1. Do FWAs make a clear business case?

Flexible Work Arrangements (FWAs) have been conceived, inducted and implemented by many organizations as a response to the alterations in the work of organizations over the past few decades (Azar et al., 2018; Katz & Krueger, 2019; Stromquist, 2019). Equally, academic research on FWAs has not lagged behind business practice (Chen & Fulmer, 2018; Onken-Menke et al., 2018; Peretz et al., 2018). As Peretz et al., (2018) note, FWAs are being adopted “to attract and retain talented workers.”

At the same time, extant literature, even over the past two decades, has failed to arrive at a consensus as to whether or not FWAs are beneficial, both for the employee and for the organization. Thus, in a meta-analysis of some 148 studies, including 11 literature reviews and 7 meta-analyses, de Menzies and Kelliher (2011, p 457) concluded that “to date, the empirical evidence has largely failed to demonstrate a well-supported and generalizable relationship [between FSAs and organizational performance.” Their conclusion was that evidence did not present a business case for the use of FWAs. Leslie et al., (2012) began their paper by noting two contradictory pieces of advice regarding FWAs – One urged companies to offer FWAs and the other advised workers not to use them. They then examined the literature and found that “surprisingly few clear conclusions exist regarding how FWAs affect workers’ extrinsic career success.” They note that some scholars “found that workers who use FWAs receive career premiums” while others theorized and found evidence for “workers who use FWAs are perceived to lack commitment.”

In a similar vein, Koivisto & Rice, (2016, p 2772) reported that FWAs “can provide many positive as well as negative implications for health, work-family balance, worker engagement, job satisfaction, performance, commitment, turnover intentions, and absenteeism.” More recently, Chen et al. (2018, p 392) found that workers who use FWAs report “lower satisfaction.” (Onken-Menke et al., 2018, p 240) studied impact of FWAs on organizational attractiveness and attachment and found that the literature suggested “conflicting results.” At a minimum, it can be safely asserted that the picture regarding FWAs and the outcomes for both individuals and organizations is decidedly mixed.

3.2.2. Streams of research to resolve these inconsistencies

Researchers have been aware of the inconsistent results, and have attempted to explain the variance. One group of researchers has focused on definitional and methodical issues. Thus, Allen et al., (2013) observed the link between FWAs and work-family conflict (WFC), and consistent with the literature on FWAs and outcomes in general, reported that “empirical studies ... have produced inconsistent results.” However, in their review of the literature, they suggested various reasons for this variance, which included: the lack of differentiation between location and time flexibilities; the lack of differentiation between flexibility availability and its usage; and even the definitional criteria of WLC (p 347). More recent research is more aware of these issues (e.g. on differentiation between flexibility availability and usage, see Azar et. al. 2018).

The second stream of research on FWAs, which I label as “the supervisor-as-gatekeeper stream” focuses on and claims that the role of the manager in the actual administration of FWAs’ influences rewards and penalties for the workers, and thus is a crucial link in explaining the anomalous results that I have referred to earlier. More explicitly, it is claimed that the role of the supervisor in most cases the immediate supervisor - can make a difference between the success or failure of the FWAs’ intervention by either rewarding or punishing the employee. In other words, the supervisor, endowed with discretionary powers, acts as a moderator in the FWAs – Outcome relationship (note that the outcome can be at the individual or the organizational level.)

To be sure, not all studies make this claim equally assertively, explicitly or in the same language. Thus Powell & Mainiero, (1999, p 43) were among the first to notice managerial discretion and argued that managers look at “the potential for a requested work arrangement to disrupt the conduct of work when making a decision about whether to

approve the request.” Batt & Valcour, (2003) showed evidence that supportive managers strongly lowered work-family conflict, but only for women. Kelly & Kalev (2006) found qualitative support for their argument that the assumption of FWAs regulation by written policies was incorrect: Organizations generally empower the supervising manager to decide as he “sees fit”. This discretionary ability of the supervisor and its impact were further confirmed by Ryan & Kossek(2008) who pointed out that supervisors were “gatekeepers” endowed with both final approval powers to allow FWAs and with norm-setting powers.

Leslie et al., (2012) accepted that the FWAs literature was inconsistent as far as their link with various performance variables was concerned and that it was possible that some workers might benefit from and others hurt by FWAs’ usage. However, they went beyond “disruptiveness” of FWAs and argued that FWAs’ usage signaled to the manager either that the employee was using the FWAs for personal reasons (and thus the employee would suffer career penalties) or the employee was using these for productivity reasons (and thus the employee would receive career rewards). They obtained partial support for their hypotheses.

Recently, this stream has moved towards the malleability of managerial attitudes themselves regarding FWAs. A good example of such research is Sweet, Pitt-Catsoupes, & James, (2017). They agree “managers usually have the primary authority to determine who can, and who cannot use FWAs”. However, they predicted and found support for their hypotheses, by following a panel of some 721 managers for one year that managers can change their attitudes favorably if they get more experience in supervising workers in

FWAs, if they are more exposed to training and if they perceive career rewards for themselves.

The third stream of research has accused organizational cultures of not helping, even undermining, the application of FWAs within organizations (Bailyn, 1997; Starrels, 1992; C. Thompson, Thomas, & Maier., 1992). Thus Judiesch & Lyness, (1999) note that “Unsupportive organizational cultures may also undermine the effectiveness of policies and programs intended to help workers balance work and family responsibilities.” The assumption undergirding this stream is that various organizations are endowed with differential cultures, thus differentially abetting, or hindering, the design, induction and application of interventions based on FWAs. If this be the case, it is not surprising that extant literature shows inconsistent, even contradictory results.

3.2.3. The stigma stream

I argue that there is a fourth, plausible, explanation which I label as The Stigma Stream, which can be called upon to resolve the inconsistencies in the FWAs literature. At the outset I clarify “stigma” in and around FWAs has been covered in many insightful articles which I list below. The contention is that this “stream of research” has not been formally integrated, elaborated and channeled as a coherent theory and a testable model to explain the discrepancy in the FWAs – Outcome relationship. I will now review the stigma research, bring it together under one theoretical umbrella, propose a model and then test it.

As opposed to the supervisor-as-gatekeeper stream, which assumes that the role of the immediate supervisor is crucial in understanding the efficacy of FWAs, I claim that the stigma stream begins with the implicit assertion that the very assumption by the researchers that the vast majority of the workers of an organization view FWAs favorably is suspect and fragile at best and patently untenable at worst. The literature around stigma both deals

with and emphasizes the beliefs and attitudes of the workers towards those who seek to benefit from the FWAs on the one hand, and with organizational norms at the other.

This literature started with and increasingly focused on gender-atypical behavior. Cohen & Single (2001) noted that workers of both genders who adopt a masculine orientation are promoted faster; and that the overwhelming beneficiaries of FWAs are women. Based on a 2X2 ANOVA design, Cohen & Single, (2001) found that taking part in FWAs led to adverse outcomes on all four judgments – advancement, being counseled out, leaving the firm and being requested on next engagement both for women and men. (For a review of the so-called “backlash literature”, which shows that “individuals who engage in gender-atypical behaviors tend to experience social and economic penalties” see Brescoll, Glass, & Sedlovskaya, (2013).

More recently, based on survey-based research design, Vandello, Hettinger, Bosson, & Siddiqi, (2013) found that both men and women agreed on valuing work-life balance but men were much less likely than women in their desire to partake of FWAs. This they argued was because of fears by men that they would be adversely evaluated on valued traits that are expected from their gender. They also found that participants put a penalty on either gender for intending to partake of FWAs. This line of research was extended by Thébaud & Pedulla, (2016) who found that men would increasingly prefer egalitarian relationships with women with respect to work-life balance in the presence of supporting policies but only if they believe that “the majority of their male peers also prefer progressive relationships”. This was seen as supporting their hypothesis that men are stigmatized by other men if they share housework.

Stigmas around gender and gender atypical behaviors have been documented. But the stigma stream that I focus on does not necessarily focus only on gender-atypical behaviors. The stigma concept has been applied to a large number of domains, including physical and mental illnesses, obesity, poverty and lack of academic achievements (for reviews see Link & Phelan, 2001; Major & O'brien, 2005). Stigma has also been applied to flexible work (for a review see Williams, Blair-Loy, & Berdahl, 2013).

I add value to the extant literature by the following: First, I place the impact of flexibility stigma on employee and organizational outcomes within the larger discussion of why the FWA-outcome relationship has remained inconclusive. Thus, I explore the probable cause of these contradicting results and present a competing framework to explain the dichotomy using the lens of signaling theory (Spence, 1978). Second, this paper further explores these tensions and suggests that the probable reason why the positive impact of FWA use on job satisfaction becomes negative is because of the conditional mediating effect of career harm in the presence of flexibility stigma. This reflects a conditional process framework (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Muller, Judd, & Yzerbyt, 2005; Preacher et al., 2007).

3.3. Hypothesis Development

3.3.1. FWA use and job satisfaction

Workers prefer flexible options compared to traditional workplace structures and many organizations have offered such FWAs (Galinsky, Matos, & Sakai-O'Neill, 2013). (Abbott, Cieri De, & Iverson, 1998) recommended the use of family friendly practices by organizations, like FWAs, to increase employee satisfaction. Job satisfaction has continued to establish significant value within research claiming importance of work performance,

work-life balance practices, and supportive organizational environments (Allen, 2001; Brough et al., 2005).

Empirical investigations of the use of various types of FWAs have primarily included job satisfaction as an outcome variable. Baltes et al., (1999) show that compressed work schedules are positively related to job satisfaction. Flextime use has also been associated with increased job satisfaction (Baltes et al., 1999). Part-time telecommuting is also related to higher levels of job satisfaction (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Golden & Veiga, 2005). On days that workers telework, as compared to working in the traditional office, workers report having more satisfaction with their job (Anderson, Kaplan, & Vega, 2015; Vega, Anderson, & Kaplan, 2015). Similarly, many researchers have claimed that the use of FWA has a positive impact on job satisfaction (Allen, 2001; Almer & Kaplan, 2002; McNall, Nicklin, et al., 2010).

Consistent with the prevalent research I hypothesize:

H₁: FWA use is positively related to job satisfaction

3.3.2. FWA use and career harm

The use of signaling theory directed us to theorize that the adoption of FWA by employee is a sign of deviance from the ideal worker. The worker adopting FWAs is signaling that his/her personal responsibilities have increased which may lower the productivity for that employee (Leslie et al., 2012). The use of FWAs practices may signal unprofessionalism, and lower commitment resulting in being disadvantageous for workers (Bailyn, 1992; Leslie et al., 2012; Putnam et al., 2014).

The choice adopted by certain workers to utilize FWAs to have the choice to have children or take care for other family responsibilities was translated by colleagues as a

cultural expression of low commitment to their career (Munsch, Ridgeway, & Williams, 2014). Mothers (and possibly fathers) were reported to deviate exceedingly from ideal worker imagery (Williams & Cooper, 2004).

It was reported that workers using FWA were reprimanded by lower career-related rewards, including slower promotion and lower pay raise (McCloskey & Igarria, 2003). Two recent studies that investigated the negative consequences of FWAs faced by workers who struggle to balance their work and family responsibilities are Crowley & Kolenikov, (2014) and Cech & Blair-Loy, (2014). Crowley & Kolenikov, (2014) focused on how control over flexible work arrangements and time-off choices, influenced “mothers’ career harm perceptions in three work domains: (1) wages/earnings, (2) raises or promotions, and (3) job evaluations.”

Therefore, it is no surprise that the use of FWA was reported to be feared by workers as it generated negative consequences (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2007; Epstein, 1999). Workers were reported to feel that their careers would be damaged by adoption of FWA (Christensen, 2013; Moen & Spencer, 2004). The job related penalties were reported to increase in intensity with the duration of FWA usage by workers (Glass, 2004).

Hence I hypothesize:

H₂: FWAs use is positively related to career harm

3.3.3. The role of flexibility stigma

Goffman, (1963) described stigma as “a characteristic that negatively separated an individual within a setting that had been fabricated according to particular social standards.” Link & Phelan, (2001, p 365) emphasize stigma as a relationship between an “attribute and a stereotype” but also enlarge its definition to include a) labeling b)

stereotyping c) separation d) status loss and e) discrimination. I agree with Link & Phelan (2001) insofar as stigma begins with “distinguishing and labeling differences” (such as those who use FWAs and those who do not); associates “differences with negative attributes” (those who use FWAs are e.g. incompetent, slothful, shirking and so on); and separates “us” from “them” (users of FWAs are not the same as us – according to the non-users). However, I also believe that the fourth and fifth parts of Link & Phelan (2001)’s definition are a “consequence” of stigma. Thus, I argue that career harm is not part of the definition of flexibility stigma but a direct consequence of it. However, the relationship is more complicated as I discuss below.

The above-mentioned variation in definitions of stigma is understandable. Most conceptualizations of stigma are domain specific. Thus, Link & Phelan (2001) focus on the sociological underpinnings of stigma while Major & O’Brien (2005) focus more on the social psychological roots of stigma. Thus, while I borrow from Goffman, (1963) as well as from the above two reviews, I follow the business management domain definition of (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014) who see flexibility stigma as “the devaluation of workers who seek or are presumed to need flexible work arrangements.” With regard to flexibility stigma, scholars have only begun to scratch the surface in trying to examine the cultural aspects of flexibility stigma faced by users of FWA and the penalties of such flexibility stigma for the workplace and workers (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014).

Flexibility stigma is part of organizational culture⁴. A firm's culture defines how the firm will interact between its relevant competitors, customers, workers, and suppliers (Louis, 1980). As a part of the organization’s culture, flexibility stigma plays the role of

⁴ Organizational culture defined as, “a complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts its business” (Barney, 1986)

reducing the firm's effectiveness and hampers organizations from enjoying operational effectiveness (as cost are significantly lowered when firm's adopt FWAs).

If workers feel that the work environment is not encouraging their use of flexibility practices or if the workers feel that it will have negative consequences for their career advancement then they may be reluctant to use FWAs (Padgett, Harland, Moser, 2009). Crowley & Kolenikov, (2014) have associated flexibility stigma with three types of career harms; those related to pay, those regarding promotion and raises, and those related to job appraisals. Findings reported by using experimental research design have shown that flexibility stigma contributed to lower rewards for workers (Leslie et al., 2012). Drew & Murtagh, (2005) revealed that workers (both women and men) feared being passed over for a promotion if they participated in FWAs. This bias also gives birth to negative consequences among workers including lower job satisfaction (Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012; Masuda et al., 2012; McNall, Nicklin, et al., 2010).

Inconsistencies arise when organizations campaigned FWAs policies as lowering work-life conflict yet simultaneously devalue the workers (via flexibility stigma and career harm) for using FWAs. Putnam et al., (2014) argued that instead of ignoring or accepting the inconsistencies as inevitable, researchers must examine how they work as oppositional push-pulls and provide solutions to these contradictory findings in making choices regarding the use and implementation of FWAs.

As a result of associated stigma with the use of FWAs, the female workforce avoids using FWAs as they feared that their involvement will be viewed as a weakness which may delay career progression (Drew & Murtagh, 2005; Servon & Visser, 2011). However, this bias is not limited to women in the workforce. Even male professionals hesitate to use

FWAs due to the damaging effects of participation in their careers (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Drew & Murtagh, 2005; Southworth, 2014).

To address this inconsistency, I argue that the prevalent research has yet not acknowledged this indirect conditional impact of FWA use on Job satisfaction. The use of FWA will result in satisfied workers, in the absence of flexibility stigma and career harm. This is evident in the 2002 National Study of the Changing Workforce in which 39% of the respondents “believed that workers who worked flexible schedules at their workplace were less likely to get ahead in their jobs, yet 79% of respondents said that they would use these options if there were no negative consequences at work and [their] job responsibilities permitted” (Bond, Galinsky, & Hill, 2004) McNamara, Pitt-Catsouphes, Brown, & Matz-Costa, (2012).

Otherwise, I claim that career harm will play the role of a mediator for the relationship between job satisfaction and FWAs use, further, I contend that flexibility stigma will also moderate the indirect effects of FWA use on job satisfaction via career harm. This reflects a moderated mediation model (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). I predict that the indirect effect of FWA use on job satisfaction via career harm will be negative for workers experiencing higher rather than a lower level of flexibility stigma in their organizations.

Hence, I hypothesize:

H₃: Flexibility stigma moderates the indirect effect of FWA use on job satisfaction via career harm such that the indirect effect is negative for employees with higher rather than lower level of flexibility stigma.

3.4. Methods

3.4.1. Sample and Procedure

The data were collected using a self-report questionnaire, which is commonly used and accepted in work-family research as it represents individuals' perceived circumstances (De Janasz et al., 2013; Near et al., 1980).

Initially, a total of 8000 e-mail invitations were sent using the list generated from Lexis Nexis Corporate Affiliates for managers in Pakistan. The email described the study, requesting voluntary participation. The pre-qualifier for participation in the survey was that the respondent had availed themselves a form of flexible work arrangement (either formal or informal). Two reminder emails were sent to increase the response rate. Reminder emails were sent after seven and 14 days had elapsed (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Michele Kacmar, 2010). After filtering incomplete responses and removing outliers, a total sample of 289 respondents was used for this research. To check for non-response bias, Armstrong & Overton, (1977) assume that the data collection should be divided into early respondents (representing for respondent's opinion) and late respondents (representing for non-respondents). The early respondents for this research were responses received before the reminder emails were sent. The late respondents were responses received after the reminder emails were sent. Chi-square results were used to test the difference in early and late responses. Insignificant chi-square results indicate that there is no significant difference between the first wave and the second wave at the level of 0.05. This exhibited that the responses received represent an unbiased sample (Appendix E).

For non-response bias, Armstrong and Overton (1977) assume that the data collection should be divided into early respondents (representing for respondent's opinion) and late respondents (representing for non-respondents). The early respondents (first wave)

for this research were responses received before the reminder emails were sent. The late respondents (second wave) were responses received after the reminder emails. Chi-square results were used to test the difference in early and late responses. Insignificant chi-square results indicate that there is no significant difference between the two groups. This exhibited that the responses received represent an unbiased sample (Appendix F).

Of the 289 participants, 108 belonged to public/government organizations, while 181 belonged to private organizations. Among these participants, 73% were males, while 27% were females. The average age of the respondents was 32 years with overall average work experience of 9 years. Respondents were from a variety of industries in Pakistan, including healthcare (22%), telecommunication (19%), technology (14%), finance (21%), and manufacturing (24%).

3.4.2. Measures

3.4.2.1. Flexible Work Arrangement Use

The 4-item scale developed by Crowley & Kolenikov, (2014) was adapted to measure use of flexible work arrangements. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements such as “How much control do you exercise in scheduling your work hours—that is, how much control do you have in setting the time you arrive at work and leave every day?” on a 7-point scale (from 7= Full Control to 1= No Control).

3.4.2.2. Career Harm

The 3-item scale developed by Crowley & Kolenikov, (2014) was adapted to measure career harm. Participants were asked to rate (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree) the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements such as “At this job, do you believe that you were ever paid less than a worker doing a comparable job”.

3.4.2.3. Flexibility Stigma

The 3-item scale developed by Cech & Blair-Loy, (2014) was adapted to measure flexibility stigma. Participants were asked to rate (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree) the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements such as “For those in my department who choose to use formal or informal arrangements for work–life balance, the use of such arrangements often has negative consequences for their careers”.

3.4.2.4. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction (e.g. “All in all, I am satisfied with my job”) was assessed with the 3-item Cammann et al., (1979) scale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire. Participants were asked to rate their agreement using a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree).

3.4.2.5. Control Variables

I controlled for age, gender, marital status, number of children, and work experience in years, in line with previous practice in the literature to reduce spurious results owing to the potential influence of demographic characteristics (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009; McNall, Masuda, et al., 2010).

3.5. Results

3.5.1. Measurement Model

3.5.1.1. Common Method Variance

Data were collected from the same respondent for independent and dependent variables, so the presence of common method bias cannot be ruled out (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Harman's single factor test was conducted to see if majority of the variance could be explained by a single factor. The test revealed four factors with Eigen values greater than one, explaining 70% of the variance (Appendix C). The first factor explained 32% of

the total variance. This is evidence that common method bias is unlikely (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

3.5.1.2.Means, standard deviation, and correlations

A descriptive statistical analysis was performed to get a broad sense of the data. Correlations were calculated to identify the strength of the relationships between all variables (Zou et al., 2003). Means, standard deviations and correlations for all variables are presented in Table 5. As shown in Table 5, FWA use has a significant weak positive correlated with career harm and job satisfaction. FWA use is not significantly correlated with flexibility stigma.

Table 5 Descriptive Analysis

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1 Flexibility Stigma	2.765	0.906	(0.622)			
2 Career Harm	2.866	1.034	0.295**	(0.633)		
3 FWA use	3.278	1.276	-0.080	-0.279**	(0.794)	
4 Job satisfaction	3.611	0.992	-0.132*	-0.448**	0.302**	(0,885)

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). N = 289*

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). N = 289*

Standard Deviation (SD)

Parentheses indicate the value for the square root of Average Variance Extracted (\sqrt{AVE})

3.5.1.3.Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The reliability and validity of the constructs were established using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The reliability of the constructs was tested by composite reliability with the standardized solutions in CFA (Shook et al., 2004) using the benchmark of 0.6. The data were examined for convergent and discriminant validity. The confirmatory factor analysis for the proposed five-factor model obtained a good fit (Chi-square= 62.565, Degrees of freedom= 59, P, 0.351, RMSEA=0.014, CFI= 0.998). All items loaded significantly (> 0.50) on their respective factors (see Table 6). The four items of FWA use loaded significantly (0.819, 0.778, 0.835, 0.741 for FWAU1, FWAU2, FWAU3, FWAU4,

respectively). All three items of career harm loaded significantly (0.654, 0.729, 0.599 for CH1, CH2, CH3, respectively). All three items of job satisfaction loaded significantly (0.894, 0.911, 0.851 for JS1, JS2, JS3, respectively). All three items of flexibility stigma loaded significantly (0.774, 0.556, 0.504 for FS1, FS2, FS3, respectively).

Convergent validity indicates the extent to which the items of a scale that are theoretically related are also related in reality. Convergent validity is ensured by comparing the item loadings, Composite Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values. As given in Table 6 all, items have significant ($p < 0.05$) path loadings greater than the threshold of 0.6 recommended by Fornell & Larcker, (1981). All constructs have CR values greater than 0.60, fulfilling the recommended value proposed by Nunnally & Bernstein, (1979). For discriminant validity to hold, the square root of every AVE value belonging to each latent construct was found to be larger than the correlation among the pair of latent constructs (Table 5). Overall these tests of reliability and validity signify a high degree of confidence regarding the items used in testing the research model.

Table 6 Reliability and Validity

	Items	Loadings
Career Harm		
CR: 0.700	CH1	0.654
AVE: 0.439	CH2	0.729
	CH3	0.599
FWAs use		
CR: 0.872	FWAU1	0.819
AVE: 0.631	FWAU2	0.778
	FWAU3	0.835
	FWAU4	0.741
Job Satisfaction		
CR: 0.916	JS1	0.894
AVE: 0.784	JS2	0.911

	JS3	0.851
Flexibility Stigma		
CR: 0.647	FS1	0.774
AVE: 0.387	FS2	0.556
	FS3	0.504

*CR = Composite Reliability AVE = Average Variance Extracted
All factor loadings were significant at $p < .001$*

3.5.2. Structural Model

Having ensured the validity and reliability of the measurement model, a Structural Equation Model (SEM) was estimated in which FWAs' use was the independent variable, career harm was the mediator, flexibility stigma was the moderating variable, and job satisfaction was the dependent variable (see Table 7). The model was controlled for age, gender, marital status, number of children, and work experience to mitigate the influence of demographic characteristics. Hypothesis 1 tested the impact of FWA use on job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.252$, p -value = 0.000). While hypothesis 2 analyzed the impact of FWA use on career harm ($\beta = 0.235$, p -value = 0.000).

Table 7 Hypothesis Results

	Job Satisfaction		Career Harm	
	Estimate	p-value	Estimate	p-value
FWA use	0.252	0.000	0.235	0.000
Control Variables				
Age	0.015	0.222	-0.008	0.553
Gender	0.141	0.302	-0.055	0.709
Marital status	0.199	0.248	-0.147	0.426
Number of Children	-0.014	0.852	-0.082	0.321
Work experience	-0.007	0.520	0.002	0.853

3.5.2.1. Conditional Process Analysis

There are two popular techniques for the assessment of conditional process models. Firstly, an "index" approach (such as the PROCESS macro; Hayes, 2013) tests the mediational index. The second technique known as the "component" approach relies on

joint-significance testing of multiple parameter estimates (Muller et al., 2005). Yzerbyt, Muller, Batailler, & Judd, (2018) conducted simulations that examined both approaches and showed that the most commonly used tests under the index approach risk inflated Type I errors compared with the joint-significance test inspired by the component approach.

Hypothesis 3 was tested using the conditional indirect procedure outlined by Muller, Judd, & Yzerbyt, (2005). This procedure involves the use of three multiple regression analyses (see Figure 2): (i) the dependent variable (job satisfaction) is regressed on the independent variable (FWA use), the moderator (flexibility stigma) and their product-term (FWA use*Stigma); (ii) the mediator (career harm) is regressed on the independent variable, the moderator and their product-term; and iii) the dependent variable is regressed on the independent variable, the moderator, their product term, the mediator, and the product-term of the mediator and the moderator (harm*stigma). The variables were standardized (by calculating z-score) to reduce the problems associated with multicollinearity among the variables in the moderation analysis (Frazier et al., 2004). The model allows the overall effect of FWA use (independent variable) on job satisfaction to be moderated by flexibility stigma in 1st equation. The second equation measures the effects of FWA use on career harm (mediator) to be moderated by flexibility stigma. The third equation measures both mediator (career harm) and (moderator) (flexibility stigma) effect of FWA use on job satisfaction. The findings from these analyses are presented in Table 8.

The following findings are shown in Table 8: The first equation establishes that the effect of FWA use ($\beta = 0.288$, p-value = 0.00) and flexibility stigma ($\beta = -0.106$, p-value = 0.057) on job satisfaction is significant but the interaction effect of FWA use and

flexibility stigma on job satisfaction is insignificant ($\beta = -0.031$, $p\text{-value} = 0.545$). This explains that flexibility stigma does not moderate the relationship of FWA use with job satisfaction. Next, in equation 2 the mediator, career harm, is introduced. The results imply that the individual effect of FWA use ($\beta = 0.244$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$) and flexibility stigma ($\beta = 0.269$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$) on career harm are significant. Further, the interaction effect of FWA use and flexibility stigma on career harm stigma ($\beta = 0.078$, $p\text{-value} = 0.010$) is significant too. This explains flexibility stigma moderates the relationship of FWA use with career harm. Finally, in equation 3, the impact of both mediating (career harm) and moderating (flexibility stigma) variables on job satisfaction is analyzed. The results imply that career harm does have a significant impact ($\beta = -0.395$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$) on job satisfaction. Hence the results from equation 2 and equation 3 establish that career harm mediates the relationship between FWA use and job satisfaction. This is further verified by the significant but reduced (compared to equation 1) impact of FWA use on job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.190$, $p\text{-value} = 0.001$). Thus, I can conclude that career harm partially mediates the relationship between FWA use and job satisfaction. Finally, the direct effect of flexibility stigma on job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.001$, $p\text{-value} = 0.979$) as well as the interaction effect with career harm ($\beta = 0.016$, $p\text{-value} = 0.719$) and FWA use ($\beta = 0.006$, $p\text{-value} = 0.898$) are insignificant. This explains that flexibility stigma does not moderate any other path in the model except the one established in equation 2.

Our results imply that there exists an overall effect of FWAs use on job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.288$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$) which do not depend on flexibility stigma ($\beta = -0.031$, $p\text{-value} = 0.545$). Additionally, the effect of mediator, career harm, on job satisfaction is significant ($\beta = -0.395$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$) which depends on the moderator, flexibility stigma, ($\beta = -$

0.078, p -value = 0.010). These findings indicate a conditional indirect effect (Muller et al., 2005), and support Hypothesis 3.

3.5.2.2. Alternative Analysis (Multigroup)

Hypothesis 3 was also tested using the approach defined by Byrne, (2004). The sample was divided into two groups based on the mean value of flexibility stigma (2.63). The respondents scoring higher than mean value were grouped in the ‘High Stigma’ category while the respondents scoring lower than the mean value were grouped in the ‘Low Stigma’ category. The indirect effect of FWAs use on job satisfaction via career harm was then analyzed for both groups. The group in the ‘Low Stigma’ category did not show a significant indirect effect ($\beta=0.048$, p -value=0.594). While the ‘High Stigma’ group had a significant negative indirect effect ($\beta=-0.171$, p -value=0.010). These findings reinforced the conditional indirect effect. In the case of high flexibility stigma, use of FWAs has a negative impact on job satisfaction due to career harm. The details of this multi group analysis are presented in Appendix G.

Table 8 Conditional Process Analysis

	Equation 1		Interpretation of slope parameters (Muller et al., 2005)
	Estimate	p-value	
FWAs use	0.288	0.000	The overall effect of the use on Job satisfaction in the presence of Flexibility Stigma Use of FWAs increases Job satisfaction
Flexibility Stigma	-0.106	0.057	Effect of Flexibility stigma on job satisfaction in the presence of FWAs use Flexibility stigma decreases job satisfaction
FWA*Stigma	-0.031	0.536	n.s.

Equation 2			Interpretation of slope parameters (Muller et al., 2005)
Career Harm			
	Estimate	p-value	
FWAs use	-0.244	0.000	Effect of FWAs use on career harm in the presence of flexibility stigma. Use of FWAs decreases career harm when flexibility stigma is kept constant.
Flexibility Stigma	0.269	0.000	Effect of flexibility stigma on career harm in the presence of FWAs use flexibility stigma increases career harm when controlled for FWAs use
FWA*Stigma	0.078	0.010	Effect of FWAs use on career harm as flexibility stigma increases Use of FWAs increases career harm when flexibility stigma increases.
Equation 3			Interpretation of slope parameters (Muller et al., 2005)
Job satisfaction			
	Estimate	p-value	
FWAs use	0.190	0.001	The overall effect of FWAs use on Job satisfaction in the presence of Flexibility Stigma and career harm Use of FWAs increases Job satisfaction
Flexibility Stigma	-0.001	0.979	n.s.
FWA*Stigma	0.006	0.888	n.s.
Career Harm	-0.395	0.000	Effect of career harm on job satisfaction in the presence of FWAs use and flexibility stigma Career harm decreases job satisfaction
Harm*Stigma	0.016	0.695	n.s.

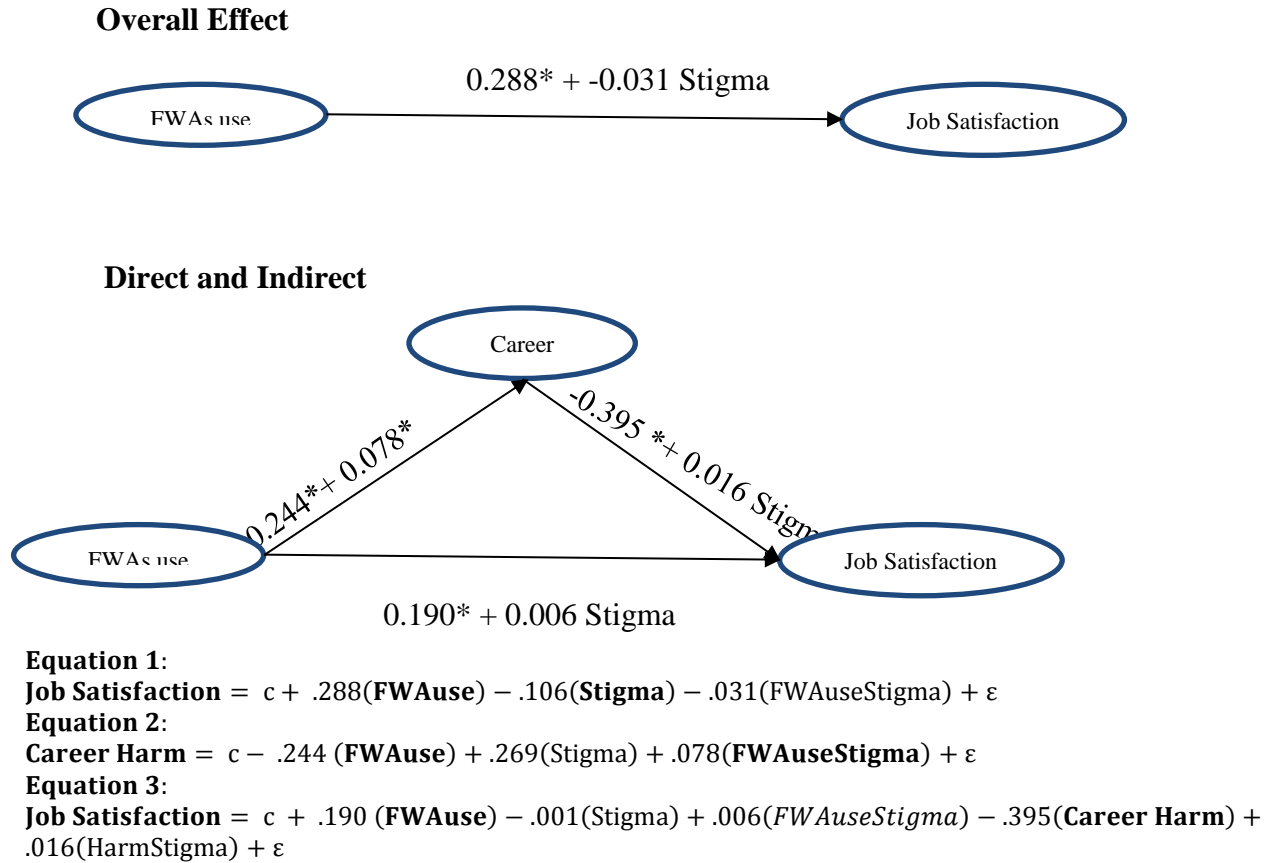


Figure 5 Conditional Process Analysis

* p value ≤ 0.05

3.6. Discussion

Hypothesis 1, predicted that FWAs use will have a significant positive impact on job satisfaction. I predicted in Hypothesis 2 that FWAs use will have a significant positive impact on Career Harm. In light of these relationships, I had predicted in Hypothesis 3 that flexibility stigma moderates the indirect effect of FWAs use on job satisfaction via career harm such that the indirect effect is negative for workers with higher rather than a lower level of flexibility stigma. The findings support the contentions.

More broadly, this study has implications for further elaboration of signaling theory in so far as FWAs are concerned, as was mentioned earlier, albeit briefly. Casper & Harris, (2008) summarized that Signaling theory “observable actions by an organization are interpreted as signals of less observable characteristics” (Spence, 1978). Workers would construe the availability of flexible work arrangements (observable characteristics) as a sign of organizations’ care. On the other hand, the use of FWAs may provide a signal of deviance from the ideal worker to the organization.

More specifically, Eisenberger et al., (1986) suggested that if workers perceive that the organization is committed to their well-being, they become committed to the organization as they develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which organizations care about their well-being. FWAs are clearly one such instance of the organizations’ attempts at increasing the well-being of their workers. If this attempt is perceived by the workers as adding to their well-being, then it should come as no surprise that their job satisfaction increases.

However, if the flexibility stigma prevails in the organizations then the signals are reversed. The user feels threatened by the system. Workers avoid using the available FWAs as they are concerned their participation will hinder chances of career advancement as it will be viewed as a sign weakness, ultimately resulting in lower job satisfaction.

Even though this study has important theoretical implications, it has relevance for Pakistan and other countries with similar cultures. This I claim for both general and specific reasons. In general, Pakistan has been viewed as a patriarchal society due to the household’s stereotypical domestic roles, cultural norms, and religious prescriptions (Rehman & Roomi, 2012). At the same time, dual earner households are playing an ever increasing role in Pakistan’s economy (Ferdoos, 2005; Nadeem & Abbas, 2009). Thus, it

is imperative for managers to understand the current organizational dynamics. Dual earners will require the use of FWAs to reduce their work-life conflict. This study may deliver insights to the management that the ideal worker has evolved. Stigmatizing the use of FWAs will result in lower satisfaction for their workers due to perceived career harm.

3.7. Future research and limitations

There are limitations to this research. First, the data collected was cross-sectional in nature. It was based on a single source. I did test for common method bias and did not find an indication that common method bias affected the data. However, it would be preferred to adopt a methodology of multiple source data. Second, the results are based on a cross-sectional study making it difficult to infer causality. Future research should also employ the experimental method or longitudinal design with a lag to understand the delay in FWAs' use and their causal impact on turnover intentions. Third, to provide further information on the extent of FWAs availability and use by workers in Pakistan, there is a need for additional quantitative research, using large samples of nationally representative employers. Fourth, in this study an individual unit of analysis has been used. It will be valuable to understand the influence of FWAs' use across teams and organizations because the frequent use of FWAs also has implications for the coordination and cooperation of workers within organizations. Fifth, the respondents for this study were spread across industries, and how this might have affected the results is unknown. I did control for the industry effect. It would be interesting to study industry-wide variations in FWAs' use.

Regarding further research, to begin with, the model proposed in this study investigated job satisfaction as an organizational outcome and did not examine other organizational outcomes e.g. work-life enrichment. Importantly, I have assumed that FWAs are beneficial for the workers from the organizational point of view and that all or

most workers agree. However, this research has not discussed the possibility of a) some, or even many workers being unhappy with FWAs' availability to others, on the grounds that these undermine work ethic and b) the consequent association of stigma with FWAs for those who feel the need of having recourse to them. This possibility is left for further research.

An experimental investigation conducted by Munsch et al., (2014) indicated that workers who requested flextime accommodation experience lesser flexibility stigma than those who requested for flexplace accommodations. Future research can explore this piecemeal effect of the moderated mediation on different types of FWAs policies like compressed work week, and flexplace. Boyce, Ryan, Imus, & Morgeson, (2007) suggest that some temporary workers, in an effort to prove their supervisor wrong, may become engaged in work if they perceive stigmatization (Major, Wendy, Shannon, & Toni, 2000).

3.8. Conclusion

This applied the lens of signaling theory to view the availability of FWAs as one instance of the organizations' attempts at increasing the well-being of their workers. While the adoption of FWAs as a sign of deviance from the ideal worker. In this research it is proposed and tested that flexibility stigma will moderate the indirect effect of FWAs use on job satisfaction via career harm such that the indirect effect will be negative for workers with higher rather than lower level of flexibility stigma. In other words, in the presence of flexibility stigma, the use of FWAs may negatively affect job satisfaction; this reversal in the relationship will be due to flexibility stigma, and therefore presence of flexibility stigma is likely to act as a moderating variable. If higher frequency of use of FWAs will be perceived negatively in organizational cultures (in case of high flexibility stigma) then higher use of FWAs will lead to career harm; which will in turn decrease job satisfaction.

Therefore, a moderated mediation model (James and Brett, 1984) is proposed and tested. The strength of the indirect effect of the frequency of use of FWAs on job satisfaction will depend on the level of flexibility stigma, or in other words, the mediation relations of FWAs use and career harm and organizational outcomes will be contingent on the level of a flexibility stigma experienced by the responding workers (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007).

4. Paper III: Flexible work arrangements' use for the post-traditional men at work: moderating role of perceived organizational support

Abstract

Most organizations, even today, have structured management career paths with the expectations that those employed are men who have a wife to manage the household which allows their full attention to be directed towards the job. Thus, men in “post-traditional family structures” (Schneer & Reitman, 1993), may have problems succeeding within the organizational model planned for men from traditional family structures. This study stems from a need to explicitly examine the concepts of flexible work arrangements use for the post-traditional men at work. Thus, I focus on this cohort of married men, with working spouse and dependents. Specifically, I empirically test the mediation hypothesis that FWAs use may decrease work-life conflict, which may in turn increase their job satisfaction. More so, I examine the impact of organizational support as moderating the relationship between FWAs use and work-life conflict. The findings extend the existing literature on boundary theory and perceived organizational support theory.

Keywords: FWAs use, job satisfaction, work-life conflict, organizational support, post-traditional man

4.1. Introduction

Flexible working arrangements (FWAs) are characteristic of many labor markets globally (Lee & Kofman, 2012; Wilson, 2019). Even though extant literature has postulated that FWAs were inducted primarily for the female labor force, men also adopt flexible work arrangements to balance their work demands and life requirements (Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, & Weitzman, 2001; Thompson & Wheatley, 2019). For women, FWAs are popularly believed to be a solution to the work-life conflict but are increasingly being used by men (Emslie & Hunt, 2009). Family structures have evolved in most countries over the last few decades; especially there has been a rising trend in the number of dual earner households. There has been a decline in the number of “traditional families”, those with a stay at home mother and an employed father.

However, despite the above developments, organizations have failed to adequately recognize the implications of these changes for managerial careers, especially with regard to gender. Such demographic changes in the labor force are likely to have a different effect on the careers of both genders (men and women) (Schneer & Reitman, 1993; Verick, 2014). Most organizations, even today, have structured management career paths with the expectations that the worker has a wife/mother taking care of his household responsibilities so he can focus his entire attention towards the job (Besen-Cassino, 2019; Nieva, 1985). Thus, men in “post-traditional family structures”, may have problems succeeding within the organizational model designed for men in traditional families. They do not comply with the definition of the ideal worker who is able to channel all his energies to meeting work demands. The emphasis of this study is on the use of FWAs by such cohort of men, as predominately the labor force is comprised of men in Pakistan; recently there has been an increase in dual earner households in Pakistan.

A strand of research on FWAs and work-life conflict issues investigates the impact of organizational policies on organizational outcomes as mainly universal in nature (e.g. Pfeffer & Veiga, 2011), or reliant on certain contexts (Donaldson, 2014). The organizational culture is a key contextual factor that may affect the impact of such FWAs (Peretz et al., 2018; Rabl, Jayasinghe, Gerhart, & Kühlmann, 2014). Peretz et al., (2018) advocate that before implementing FWAs one must consider the national cultural characteristics in which the organization operates. A misfit between flexible work practices and national culture would possibly reduce the use of FWAs and increase the likelihood of employee turnover.

In this paper, I extend the above argument and investigate employee's perception of organizational support as a contingent factor enabling FWAs' use and decreasing work-life conflict. Such that perceptions of supportive organizations impacts on outcomes via FWAs' use; POS in combination with FWAs use will further decrease WLC.

According to Eisenberger et al., (1986)'s perceived organizational theory, the perception of support from the organization promotes employee participation as it results in positive attitudes towards the organization which triggers an initiative to give extra in return for additional benefits, through a felt obligation (Lambert, 2000). The availability of FWAs is viewed by the employee as an instance of concern for their well-being. Employee well-being includes lower work-life conflict (Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001).

Moreover, few contributions to date have examined the concepts of flexible work arrangements use for the post-traditional men at work. In this study, I analyze the effect of use of flexible work arrangements' use on job satisfaction. I test perceived organizational support as a moderator and work-life conflict as a mediator. This study makes a unique

contribution to the literature of FWAs by identifying a cohort of men with dependents and working spouse (labeled as post-traditional men at work).

Specifically, this research addresses two research questions (i) Does flexible work arrangements' use influence job satisfaction by decreasing the work-life conflict of the workers which in turn affects the job satisfaction of post-traditional men at work? (ii) Does organizational support strengthen the relationship between work-life conflict and use of flexible work arrangements for post-traditional men at work?

4.2.Theoretical Background

4.2.1 The Norm of Reciprocity

One of the most important theoretical concepts in both economics and sociology (and later, either as an explicit or, as is more likely, as an implicit mechanism, in business management) is the norm of reciprocity. Since this norm undergirds my research in this paper, I will spend some time on what this norm is and why this norm is relevant to business management, especially to Perceived Organizational Support (POS), a key construct in this paper. I will, in this process, draw on multiple disciplines and multiple related concepts.

Cicero, some two thousand years ago, wrote that no duty was more indispensable than that of returning a kindness. In his classic paper on reciprocity, which I quote from in detail, Gouldner, (1960) takes sociology giants such as Robert Merton and Talcott Parsons to task for assuming that if A serves B, then the functionality of this service is enough to arrive at and explain systemic stability (Gouldner, 1960, p 162-3). In a remarkably insightful paragraph, Gouldner, (1960, p 163) notes that in addition to asserting that A is functional for B, one must also assume that “B reciprocates A’s services” and “B’s service to A is contingent upon A’s performance.” In what I believe underpins not only this research but virtually all major research in business management around POS, Gouldner,

(1960, p 164) further remarks “It cannot be merely hypostatized that reciprocity will operate in every case; its occurrence must instead be documented.”

Gouldner, (1960) is careful to elaborate: 1) it is possible to obtain relationships where reciprocity does not work – in the “feudal notion of noblesse oblige”, in religious notions of generosity or in “Roman notions of clemency.” 2) Exploitation, originally an economics related concept, developed by Marx and Proudhon, can be construed as a relationship based on unequal exchange. In fact, if one agent is more powerful than the other, the relationship of reciprocity can be unhinged.

4.2.2 The Relationship between Employee and Organization

Drucker, (1954) raised a troubling question when he noted that an organization “has no life of its own apart from people. It, the organization, cannot therefore relate to people.” One of the first attempts to answer this question was made by Levinson, (2013) who noted that “man-organization relationships” were a topic of discussion because of two reasons 1) “phenomena with typical features of transference” were observable as “people project upon organizations human qualities and relate to them as if the organizations did in fact have human qualities” 2) many workers acted as “agents of the organization.” In fact, even though Levinson, (2013) does not cite Gouldner, (1960), the former comes very close to the latter’s work when he conceptualizes man-organization relationship as “a process of reciprocation.” It is precisely this reciprocation which allows workers to grow and find opportunities for himself besides benefitting the organization of which is now an integral part.

Levinson, (2013)’s anthropomorphism (even though he does not use the term in his paper) about a man-organization relationship is reflected in other areas of management as well. In a succinct treatment of anthropomorphism in branding, Brown (2004) and Fournier

(1998) claim that humans, in all cultures, have been known to anthropomorphize inanimate objects. This is explained by some kind of need to communicate with “the nonmaterial world” as postulated by theories of animism. Fournier, (1998), drawing on multi-disciplinary research, modelled the anthropomorphic relationship between consumers and brands, a relationship that she finds is purposive, multiplex and dynamic.

4.3.3 Perceived organizational support theory

Drawing on primarily Gouldner (1960) and Levinson (2013), as mentioned above, but also on Blau (1964), Buchanan (1974), Cook & Wall (1980) and Steers (1977) Eisenberger et al., (1986) formulated one of the first versions of POS theory. Building on Gouldner (1960)’s “anthropomorphic ascription of dispositional traits to the organization” they argued that if the organization was personified, then the employee would like to gauge and evaluate the organization for its valuing and rewarding the employee. This the workers accomplished by developing “global beliefs” about the organization as to whether it valued their contributions, would understand their absences because of illnesses, would forgive them for honest mistakes and so on (These statements are part of the Survey of POS scale in the same paper.)

Similarly, according to Eisenberger et al., (1986)’s organizational support theory (OST), perceived organizational support (POS) explains the worker's concern regarding the degree to which the organization cares about their wellbeing and values contributions Eisenberger & Stinglhamber (2011). OST has attracted interest because of the value it promises in terms of viewing the clarity of the construct, understanding the perspective of employee–organization relationship from the workers’ viewpoint, and the associations of POS with other attitudinal outcomes (including job satisfaction).

Workers' perceptions of organizational support stem from their desire to evaluate if their organizations care for them and value their contributions (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Support at the organizational level appears to be important when considered specifically within the context of supportive environments. For example according to Grant-Vallone & Ensher (2001), workers' perception of organizational sensitivity to work-life conflict depends on how the level of concern and responsiveness of the organization is to relevant issues of the worker. However, scant research exists on the effects of perceived organizational support but research in this area is promising (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2001). According to Vyas et al., (2017) future research should examine additional work practices of perceived organizational support for FWAs.

4.2.1. Boundary theory

FWAs have been defined by Rau & Hyland, (2002) as, "alternative work options that allow work to be accomplished outside of the traditional temporal and/or spatial boundaries of a standard workday." While the boundary theory argues that FWAs alters the psychological, physical, and temporal boundaries between work and life roles, such work-life roles may be altered to create challenges that might introduce conflict and in turn reduce performance (Greer & Payne, 2014).

Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, (2000) work on role transition and boundary theory propagates that work-life policies may not be effective in lowering inter-role conflict because workers have varying inclinations for integration versus segmentation of work-family roles. In terms of job attitudes, workers reporting lower levels of job satisfaction express high levels of WLC (Burke & Greenglass, 1999). For example, using FWAs has been shown to benefit some workers. However, for those workers with higher levels of

family responsibilities, using FWAs blurs the boundaries between home and work (see Hill, Miller, Weiner, & Colihan, 1998; Loscocco, 1997). Thus, a clear business case for FWAs has not been reported in the literature.

4.2.2. Job satisfaction and FWAs use

Post traditional men at work prefer flexible options compared to the traditional workplace structures that offer FWAs (Galinsky et al., 2008). Abbott et al., (1998) advocated that organizations must introduce FWAs to increase employee satisfaction. Job satisfaction has continued to demonstrate significant value within studies demonstrating importance of supportive work environments, work performance, and effective work-life practices (Allen, 2001; Brough et al., 2005).

One of the most commonly studied outcomes of FWAs is job (Lyness et al., 2012; Tims et al., 2014). It has been defined as “an employee’s affective or emotional reaction to a job, based on comparing actual outcomes with desired outcomes” (Lyness et al., 2012). Over the last ten years, research on determinants of job satisfaction has been on the rise, as it has been recognized as a summary measure for workers’ valuation of job characteristics (Hamermesh, 2001; Jahn, 2015). Workers are found to be experience higher levels of job satisfaction when their expectations are fulfilled (Locke, 1976).

Job satisfaction has been an outcome variable for various types of FWAs. Baltes et al., (1999) show that compressed job satisfaction is positively related to work schedules. Job satisfaction has also been associated with flextime use (Baltes et al., 1999). According to Gajendran & Harrison, (2007), part-time telecommuting is also related to higher levels of job satisfaction. Workers report having higher levels of satisfaction with their job on days they telework, as compared to working in the traditional office (Anderson et al., 2015;

Vega et al., 2015). Similarly, many researchers have claimed that the use of FWAs significantly increases job satisfaction (Allen, 2001; Almer & Kaplan, 2002; Wheatley, 2017). Overall, job satisfaction was positively related to FWAs (Allen, 2001; Baltes et al., 1999; Lyness et al., 2012; McCampbell, 1996; McNall et al., 2010; Rodgers, 1992; Shinn, Wong, Simko, & Ortiz-Torres, 1989; Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

However, I cannot discount the results of other notable studies that contradict these finds and claim that FWAs have a negative or no impact on job satisfaction (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Branine, 2003; Golden & Veiga, 2005; Pierce & Newstrom, 1983).

4.2.3. FWAs as a solution to Work-life Conflict

Work-life conflict (WLC) is another commonly studied phenomenon in FWAs literature. It is defined as, “an inter-role conflict, in which role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), resulting in an “unsatisfactory resolution of the tension generated by these competing priorities” (Carlson et al., 2000; Tims et al., 2014). FWAs were created to help workers manage such conflicts (Galinsky et al., 2008; Masuda et al., 2012). Consistent with (McNall, Masuda, et al., 2010), the focus of this research is on the direction of conflict flowing from work to family. There is evidence showing that work-to-family conflict is more strongly related to job satisfaction than family-to-work conflict (McNall et al., 2010; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006).

A conflict happens when requirements of one role exhaust resources that an individual needs to meet the requirements of the other role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Lapierre & Allen, 2012). This finding is mainly attributed to the fact that resources such as energy and time are finite and can be directed towards either work or family, after a certain threshold

is achieved (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Work-life conflicts are of two types, namely, time-based conflict and strain-based conflict (Chou & Cheung, 2013). A time-based conflict occurs when the requirements of time for one role exhaust the time requirements for the other role. A strain-based work-life conflict focuses on the stress of one role to be carried to the other role. This study aims to focus on the time-based conflict when work interferes with family (WIF) (Carlson et al., 2000).

Researchers have investigated the relationship between FWAs and WLC but fail to reach a consensus regarding the findings (Allen & Shockley, 2009). For example, studies have shown that FWAs relates to reducing WLC (e.g., Moshavi & Koch, 2005; Russell, O'Connell, & McGinnity, 2009), whereas other studies failed to find a relationship between the FWAs and WLC (e.g., Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Karhula et al., 2018). This discrepancy in research results is further demonstrated when a meta-analysis by Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, (2005) did not find a relationship between FWAs and WLC while another meta-analysis by Byron, (2005) concluded that FWAs were negatively related to WLC.

4.2.4. WLC as a mediator between FWAs use and JS

The work-life conflict has emerged as an important factor for an organization's employee retention strategies (Cappelli, 1999). The above discussed mixed findings suggest a need to further explore the relationship of FWAs with job satisfaction and work-life conflict (Baltes et al., 1999; Glass & Finley, 2002; Lyness et al., 2012). This study explores the probable cause of these contradicting results and presents a competing framework to explain the dichotomy. Azar, Khan, & Van Eerde, (2018) and Putnam et al., (2014) highlighted these contradictions in the flexibility research. Azar, Khan, & Van

Eerde, (2018) examine the mediating effect of job satisfaction and work-life conflict in the impact of turnover intentions and the use of FWAs.

The paper further explores these tensions and suggests that the probable reason for the positive relationship of job satisfaction and FWAs use is due to the mediating effect of work-life conflict. FWAs help to reduce the work-life conflict which in turn increases job satisfaction.

Thus, I hypothesize

H₁: Work-life conflict mediates the relationship between flexible work arrangements use and job satisfaction, such that the use of FWAs will reduce work-life conflict which will in turn increase job satisfaction.

4.2.5. Perceived Organizational Support as a moderator between FWAs use and WLC

Perceived organizational support (POS) has been the focus of much research attention (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Bishop, Scott, Goldsby, & Cropanzano, 2005; Robert Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Eisenberger et al., (1986) defined POS as “an workers’ perception regarding the organization’s concern for their well-being and value of their contribution.” Paillé, Bourdeau, & Galois, (2010) suggested that perceived support may be viewed as an “intangible component of exchange” between the workers and their organization. The provision of FWAs is perceived by the employee as a positive initiative of the organization towards the employee’s well-being. One aspect of workers’ well-being is documented in the work-life conflict literature.

In the presence of perceived organizational support, the employee’s use of flexible work arrangements may result in a reduction of work-life conflict. The perception that the

organization is supportive will strengthen the relationship between FWA's use and WLC for the employee.

Scholars have issued a call for future researchers to examine work policies of organizational support for FWAs (Vyas et al., 2017). Theoretically, such FWAs create a sense of assurance for workers that their organizations considerate towards employee well-being and non-work related needs (Baral & Bhargava, 2010). Such feelings of supportiveness result in higher positive attitudes towards work like job satisfaction (Baral & Bhargava, 2010). Consistent with the findings of Baral & Bhargava, (2010), I hypothesize that workers in Pakistan are expected their organizations to take care of them as a return for their loyalty and hence, when provided with such supports may feel obliged towards their organization. Thus,

H₂: Perceived organizational support will strengthen the impact of FWAs use on and lowering work-life conflict

The conceptual framework for this study, showing the hypotheses, is presented in Figure 6.

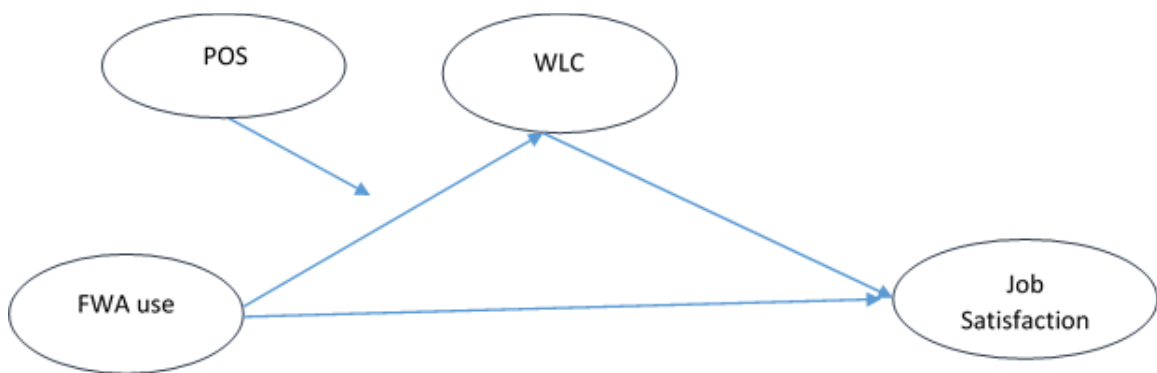


Figure 6 Conceptual Framework

4.3. Method

4.3.1. Sample and Procedure

Initially, a total of 8000 e-mail invitations were sent in October 2016 using the list generated from Lexis Nexis Corporate Affiliates for managers in Pakistan. The email described the study, requesting voluntary participation of male managers only. The pre-qualifier for participation in the survey was that the respondent had availed to a form of flexible work arrangement (either formal or informal), were married with a working spouse and had dependents at home (children or elder care). A total of 900 employees agreed to participate. Two reminder emails were sent to increase the response rate. After filtering incomplete responses and removing outliers, a total sample of 209 respondents was used for this research. This resulted in a 23% response rate. To check for non-response bias, Armstrong & Overton, (1977) assume that the data collection should be divided into early respondents (representing for respondent's opinion) and late respondents (representing for non-respondents). The early respondents for this research were responses received before the reminder emails were sent. The late respondents were responses received after the reminder emails were sent. Chi-square results were used to test the difference in early and late responses. Insignificant chi-square results indicate that there is no significant difference between the first wave and the second wave at the level of 0.05. This exhibited that the responses received represent an unbiased sample (Appendix F).

Of the 209 participants, 89 belonged to public/government organizations, while 120 belonged to private organizations. The average age of the respondents was 31.50 years with overall average work experience of 8 years and the average number of dependents was 2. Respondents were from a variety of industries in Pakistan, including healthcare (15%), telecommunication (32%), technology (19%), finance (11%), and manufacturing (23%).

The data were collected using a self-report questionnaire, which is commonly used and accepted in work-family research as it represents individuals' perceived circumstances (De Janasz et al., 2013; Near et al., 1980).

4.3.2. Measures

4.3.2.1 Flexible Work Arrangement Use (FWAs use)

The 4-item scale developed by Crowley & Kolenikov, (2014) was adopted to measure the use of flexible work arrangements. Participants were requested to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements such as “How much control do you exercise in scheduling your work hours—that is, how much control do you have in setting the time you arrive at work and leave every day?” on a 7-point scale (from 7= Full Control to 1= No Control).

4.3.2.2 Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

In this study, I elected to follow the example of (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002) for the measurement of POS. Eisenberger et al., (2002) selected three high-loading items from the SPOS (Items 1, 4 and 9; with factor loadings, of 0.71, 0.74 and 0.83, respectively; see Table I in (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The three items are as follows: “My organization appreciates my contribution;” “My organization considers my aspirations and values;” “My organization really cares about my well-being.” Participants were requested to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements on a 7-point scale (from 7 Strongly Agree to 1= Strongly Disagree).

4.3.2.4 Work Lift Conflict (WLC)

WLC was measured using 10 items developed by Carlson et al., (2000). Respondents were requested to rate the items (e.g., “My work keeps me from my family

activities more than I would like”) on a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree).

4.3.2.5 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction (e.g., “All in all, I am satisfied with my job”) was assessed with the 3-item Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, (1979) scale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire. Participants were requested to rate their agreement using a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree).

4.3.2.6 Control Variables

The research findings were controlled for age, number of children, number of dependents (elder care) and work experience in years, in accordance with previous practice in the literature (e.g., McNall et al., 2010).

4.4. Data Analysis

Structural Equation Modelling was used to test the hypotheses, using Amos 18. First, AMOS examines the measurement model, followed by the structural model. This study used a set of indices to determine the model fit (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)). Using multiple indices is superior to the application of a single index because each index has weaknesses and strengths (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011). RMSEA is likely to over-reject models at a small sample size (Hu & Bentler, 1999), while CFI is a relatively stable fit index (Gerbing & Anderson, 1992). The indices have rules to determine good fit as follows: CFI & GFI > 0.9 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980); and RMSEA < 0.08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1992).

4.5. Results

4.5.1. Measurement Model

4.5.1.1. Common Method Variance

Data were collected from the same respondent for independent and dependent variables; therefore, the presence of common method bias cannot be ruled out (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Harman's single factor test was conducted to determine if majority of the variance could be explained by a single factor. The test revealed five factors with Eigen values greater than one, explaining 64% of the variance. The first factor explained 30% of the total variance (Appendix D). This finding is evidence that common method bias is unlikely.

4.5.1.1. Means, Standard Deviation, and Correlations

A descriptive statistical analysis was performed to obtain a broad understanding of the data. Correlations were calculated to identify the strength of the relationships between all variables (Zou et al., 2003). Means, standard deviations and correlations for all variables are presented in Table 10.

Table 9 Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Job satisfaction	3.66	0.936	(0.848)			
2. FWAs use	3.29	1.265	0.306*	(0.798)		
3. Work-life Conflict	3.08	0.880	-0.269*	-0.192*	(0.672)	
4. Perceived Organizational Support	3.30	1.413	0.220*	0.132	-0.214*	(0.864)

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). $N = 209$

Standard Deviation (SD)

Parentheses indicate the value of the square root of Average Variance Extracted ($\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$)

4.5.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The reliability and validity of the constructs were established using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The reliability of the constructs was tested by composite reliability with the standardized solutions in CFA (Shook et al., 2004) using the benchmark of 0.7. The data were examined for convergent and discriminant validity. The confirmatory factor analysis for the proposed four-factor model obtained a good fit (Chi-square= 159.5, Degrees of freedom= 116, P, RMSEA=0.042, and CFI= 0.975). All items loaded significantly ($> .40$) on their respective factors (see Table 10). All three items of job satisfaction loaded significantly (0.883, 0.882, 0.840 for JS1, JS2, JS3, respectively). All three items of flexible work arrangements loaded significantly (0.751, 0.847, 0.778, 0.814 for FWAU1, FWAU2, FWAU3, FWAU4, respectively). All items for work-life conflict loaded significantly ranging from 0.400 to 0.780.

Convergent validity indicates the extent to which the items of a scale that are theoretically related are also related in reality. Convergent validity is ensured by comparing the item loadings, Composite Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values. As provided in Table 10, all items have significant ($p < 0.05$) path loadings greater than the threshold of 0.7 recommended by Fornell & Larcker, (1981). All constructs have CR values between 0.87 and 0.90, fulfilling the recommended value proposed by (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1979). For discriminant validity to hold, the square root of every AVE value belonging to each latent construct was found to be larger than the correlation among the pair of latent constructs (Table 10). Overall, these tests of reliability and validity signify a high degree of confidence regarding the items used in testing the research model.

Table 10 Reliability and Validity

	Items	Loadings
Perceived Organizational Support		
CR: 0.918	POS1	.882
AVE: 0.747	POS2	.912
	POS3	.827
Job Satisfaction		
CR: 0.902	JS1	.883
AVE: 0.754	JS2	.882
	JS3	.840
FWAs use		
CR: 0.875	FWAU1	.751
AVE: 0.637	FWAU2	.847
	FWAU3	.778
	FWAU4	.814
Work-life Conflict		
CR: 0.888	WLC1	.712
AVE: 0.452	WLC2	.620
	WLC3	.400
	WLC4	.751
	WLC5	.773
	WLC6	.461
	WLC7	.655
	WLC8	.783
	WLC9	.689
	WLC10	.780

CR = Composite Reliability AVE = Average Variance Extracted

All factor loadings were significant at $p < .001$

4.5.3. Testing the mediation hypothesis

The study examines how FWAs' use has an impact on job satisfaction through mediating variable (work-life conflict), while controlling for the impact of age, experience, number of children, and number of dependents (elder care). The study consequently leads to an assessment of the total and direct effects of the FWAs use construct on the dependent variable (job satisfaction and the indirect effects via the mediators (work-life conflict). The bootstrapping approach is used to test the mediating effects: a non-parametric resampling

procedure that does not impose an assumption of normality on the sampling distribution (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The total impact of FWAs' use on job satisfaction was examined. Then, the mediator was added in the model to check for direct and indirect effects (see Table 11). To test Hypotheses bootstrap method (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) was used. In total, 5000 bootstraps based on 210 observations with a 95% bias-corrected confidence interval and bootstrapped percentile for indirect effects were generated. Results showed that the full mediation model fitted the data (RMSEA=0.043, CFI=0.975, GFI=0.921). Fig. 7 describes a significant total effect of FWAs' use on work-life conflict ($\beta=-0.233$, p-value=0.001). Table 11 shows the test results of the mediating effect. In the presence of job satisfaction, the direct impact of FWAs on work-life conflict was not significant ($\beta=-0.163$, p-value=0.012), while the indirect effects were significant ($\beta=-0.042$, p-value=0.016). Fig. 7 describes the direct effects of FWAs' use on overall job satisfaction and the mediator (work-life conflict). The data supports Hypotheses, indicating that work-life conflict mediates the impact of FWAs' use on work-life conflict.

Table 11 Mediation Analysis

Total Effect	Estimate	p-value	Bootstrap CI
Flexible Work Arrangements Use -> Job Satisfaction	0.233	0.001	0.014,0.357
Direct Effect	Estimate	p-value	
Flexible Work Arrangements Use -> Work-life Conflict	-0.163	0.012	-0.285,-0.041
Work-life Conflict -> Job Satisfaction	-0.255	0.010	-0.285,-0.041
Indirect Effect	Estimate	p-value	
Flexible Work Arrangements Use -> Work-life Conflict -> Job Satisfaction	0.192	0.004	0.067,0.312

Model fit indices: RMSEA 0.043, CFI 0.975, GFI 0.921

Independent Variable: Flexible Work Arrangements Use

Mediating Variables: Work-life Conflict,

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Control Variables: Age ($\beta = 0.005$, p -value = 0.408), Number of Children ($\beta = 0.071$, p -value = 0.129), Work Experience ($\beta = -0.015$, p -value = 0.023), Number of Dependents (elder care) ($\beta = 0.031$, p -value = 0.425)

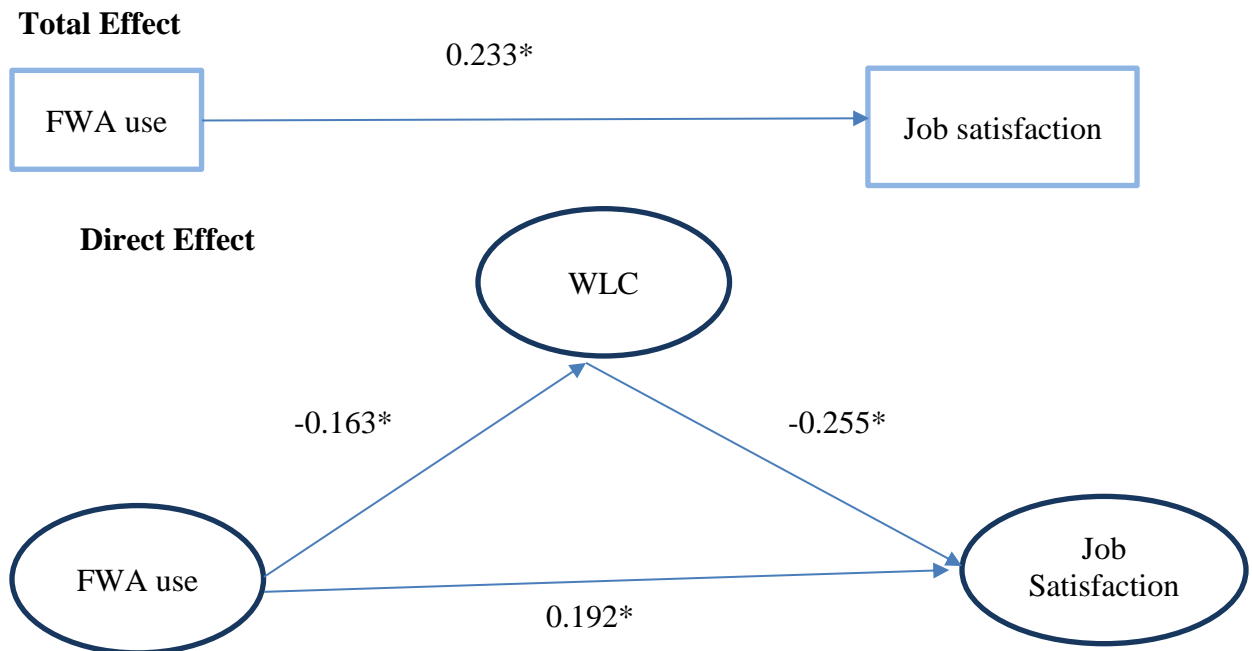


Figure 7 Mediation Analysis

* p -value < 0.05

4.5.4. Moderating Effect of Perceived Organizational Support

To test the second hypothesis, which state that perceived organizational support would moderate the relationship of FWAs' use with (a) job satisfaction and (b) work-life conflict,

hierarchical multiple regression analysis procedure was used to test the moderator effect (Ro, 2012) on the relationship between perceived organizational support and work-life conflict (Hypothesis 2). The variables were standardized (by calculating z-score) to reduce the problems associated with multicollinearity among the variables in the moderation analysis (Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004). In the first step of the regression, the independent variable (FWAs' use) and the moderator (perceived organizational support) were entered into the model as predictors of the outcome variable (work-life conflict). At this point, the independent variable and/or moderating variable do not need to be significant predictors of the dependent variable to test for interaction. FWAs' use had a significant impact on work-life conflict ($\beta = -0.162$, $p\text{-value} = 0.017$). Perceived organizational support depicted a significant impact on work-life conflict ($\beta = -0.192$, $p\text{-value} = 0.005$). In the next step, an interaction term, the product of FWAs' use and perceived organizational support (which represents the moderator effect) was added to the model. As shown in Table 12, the interaction term (FWAs' use * POS) explained a statistically significant amount of variance in work-life conflict ($\beta = -0.166$, $p\text{-value} = 0.020$). Thus, combined effect of FWAs and POS on WLC is statically significant. However, in the presence of high organizational support, the higher usage of FWAs lowers the work-life conflict indicated in Fig 8.

To examine this interaction in more detail, regression lines representing the relationship between FWAs use and WLC were plotted, as shown in Figure 7, at high and low levels of perceived organizational support (i.e., 1 SD above and below the mean; cf. Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Figure 8 shows the interaction pattern hypothesized in Hypothesis 2 (using regression coefficients: Independent variable: -0.225, Moderator: -0.151, Interaction: -0.166, Intercept/Constant: 3). Perceived Organizational Support

strengthened the negative relationship of FWAs' use and WLC. In other words, POS in combination with FWAs helped to further decrease WLC.

Table 12 Moderation Analysis

	Step 1		Step 2	
	Estimate	p-value	Estimate	p-value
Perceived Organizational Support -> Work-life Conflict	-0.192	0.005	-0.225	0.001
FWAs use -> Work-life Conflict	-0.162	0.017	-0.151	0.026
POS*FWAs use -> Work-life Conflict			-0.166	0.020

Model Fit Step 1: RMSEA 0.169, CFI 0.718, GFI 0.970

Model Fit Step 2: RMSEA 0.088, CFI 0.906, GFI 0.986.

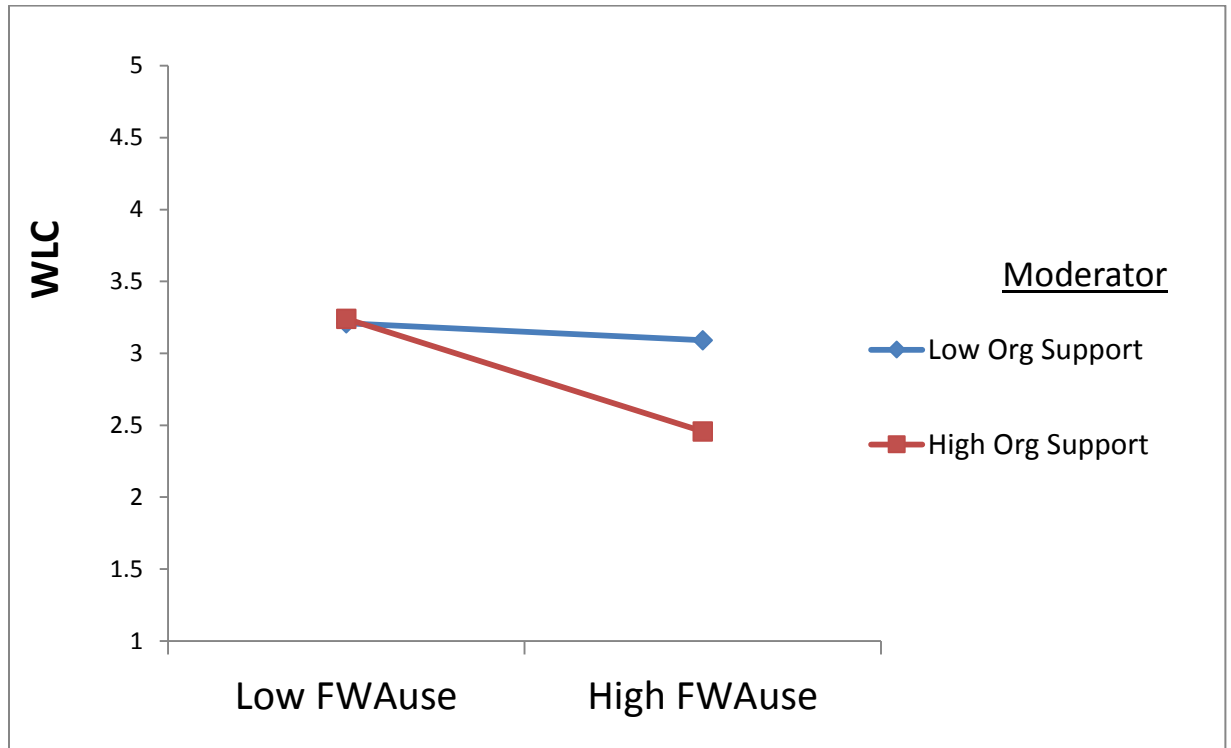


Figure 8 Moderation Analysis

4.6. Discussion

This study originated from the observation that the nature of work in organizations has changed. One such change is steered by the popularity of flexible work arrangements (Burke & Ng, 2006). It is also noted that, while in the past, FWAs have been shown to

affect organizational outcomes (Masuda et al., 2012), there was confusion regarding the distinction between the availability of such arrangements and their usage (Allen et al., 2013; Allen & Shockley, 2009). Thus, scholars have encouraged researchers to focus on the usage of FWAs rather than their mere availability (Azar et al., 2018).

Furthermore, it was hypothesized and shown that flexible work arrangements' use influences job satisfaction by decreasing the work-life conflict of the post-traditional workers which in turn affects their job satisfaction. The use of flexible work arrangements by this cohort, married men with working spouse and dependents, has a significant impact in reducing the work-life conflict which in turn positively impacts job satisfaction. I find this relationship to be a key insight. This relationship implies that the linkage between FWAs' use and job satisfaction should not be assumed and that companies are well advised to focus on WLC to maximize the impact of FWAs. To us, this assumption is worth exploring.

Additionally, the findings extend previous research by addressing perceived organizational support that has received scant attention in connection with FWAs use. I explored that one way to focus on work-life conflict is from the lense of perceived organizational support. POS was found to have a significant moderating impact on the use of flexible work arrangements' relationship with work-life conflict. This relationship implies that the perceived positive initiative of the organization provides a signal to the employee that the organization cares about their well-being. This support acts as a catalyst in this relationship.

Generally, this study has implications for further elaboration of boundary theory. So far the relatively nascent FWAs performance literature scarcely mentions the impact of

FWAs use on the maintenance of work and family boundaries. Boundary theory asserts that humans create boundaries in order to understand and cope with their environments (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Workers often create boundaries between their work and family lives; these abstract borders advise individuals when to fulfill the family role vs. the worker role (Ashforth et al., 2000). The findings suggest that using FWAs facilitates the worker managing the boundaries thus reducing work-life conflict, in the presence of support from the organization.

Interference between work and non-work responsibilities has a number of negative outcomes that have been well established in the literature. In terms of job attitudes, workers reporting high levels of WLC tend to exhibit lower levels of job satisfaction (Burke & Greenglass, 1999) and vice versa. The findings suggest that for the post-traditional worker using FWAs facilitates the worker managing the boundaries thus reducing work-life conflict and in turn increasing job satisfaction.

4.7. Future research and limitations

Flexible work arrangements comprise of various family friendly policies. For the purpose of this study, I focus on flexible timings and flexible place as they are the most popular flexible work arrangements (Coenen & Kok, 2014; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Other dimensions of flexible work arrangements can be investigated in future research such as compressed work weeks, job sharing, and part-time work. More so, this study is limited to the post-traditional man at work. A comparative study examining the differences between the hypothesized relationships for gender variations or generational differences will also provide valuable insights.

Self-evaluated instruments are used to measure the constructs used in this study, thus, the study is restricted to the opinions of the respondents and their emotions and feelings related to their workplace. Also, the study is cross-sectional in nature, and although the associations are carefully proposed, only a longitudinal design can additionally study in-depth dynamic relationships hypothesized and tested. Future research should also employ the experimental method with a lag to understand the delay in FWAs' use and their causal impact on work-life conflict.

4.8. Conclusion

The empirical findings recommended that work-life conflict mediated the relation between job satisfaction and the use of flexible work arrangements. Moreover, perceived organizational support strengthened the impact of FWAs' use on reducing work-life conflict. In addition to contributing to the theoretical knowledge of FWAs, the current findings have managerial implications. The findings suggest management should increase their focus on facilitating the use of FWAs and providing organizational support. Management can achieve this objective by demonstrating that providing flexibility to workers can increase workers' satisfaction by reducing their WLC. Flexible work arrangements are probably perceived by the workers as a positive initiative of the organization showing concern for the workers' well-being.

5. Conclusion

5.1. Introduction

At the beginning of the thesis, it was argued that both the nature of work and the nature of the relationship between employee and organization, have changed. In fact, the very idea of the “ideal” worker has changed. In parallel to these changes, the demographics of the workers, as well as the family work structure, have changed, as seen by the rising percentage of women in work. This has put pressure not only on women but also men to seek some flexibility in work. In turn this has put pressure on organizations to provide more flexibility in the rigid structure of work. Organizations have resorted to FWAs in order to cope with these pressures and to keep their best workers loyal to and working for them.

My thesis aims to make important contributions to the literature on FWAs by examining the effects of flexible work arrangements (FWAs) on job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is one of the most important outcomes of FWAs (Tims et al., 2014). However, the literature has failed to find persistent effects of FWAs on job satisfaction (Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, 2013; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Researchers have been aware of the variance, and have attempted to explain the inconsistent results. One group of researchers has focused on definitional and methodical issues. The second stream of research on FWAs, which I label as “the supervisor-as-gatekeeper stream” focuses on and claims that the role of the manager in the actual administration of FWAs’ influences rewards and penalties for the workers, and thus is a crucial link in explaining the anomalous results that I have referred to earlier. The third stream of research has accused

organizational cultures of not helping, even undermining, the application of FWAs within organizations. I have examined the extant literature and in my thesis, i.e. in the three research papers, have explored alternative models, or modified models, to explain some of this variance.

Chapter 1 introduced a brief background of flexible work arrangements. It also outlined the research question raised for empirical investigation. The significance of this study was discussed by pointing out the research gaps in the extant literature, and the relevance of selecting a developing country as a research context was clarified.

In Chapter 2 Theory of social exchange (Blau, 1964) has been used to explain that the workers will feel obligated to reciprocate in ways that are important to the organization after the workers perceive that they were given a favorable benefit i.e. FWAs (Blau, 1964; Chen & Fulmer, 2018; Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). In Chapter 3 I argued that, in addition to the three possible explanations that I have mentioned above, there is a fourth, plausible, explanation which I labeled as The Stigma Stream, which can be called upon to resolve the inconsistencies in the FWAs literature. Chapter 4 examined the relationship of FWAs and job satisfaction in the light of Organization support theory (OST). According to OST, perceived organizational support strongly depends on workers' attributions concerning the organization's intent behind their receipt of favorable or unfavorable treatment (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

5.1. Key Findings

It was mentioned above that this thesis aims to make important contributions to the literature by examining the effects of flexible work arrangements on job satisfaction.

Broadly, the empirical results indicate that using FWAs results in higher job satisfaction for the employee. This thesis further explores three facets to unveil the specific conditions for the impact of FWAs' use on job satisfaction. Firstly, I add to the existing literature on theory of social exchange and boundary theory. The empirical results in Chapter 2 suggested that job satisfaction and work-life conflict mediated the relationship between flexible work arrangements' use and turnover intentions. Moreover, planning behaviour strengthened the impact of FWAs' use on reducing WLC; however, it did not strengthen the relationship between FWAs' use and job satisfaction. Using the lens of signaling theory, Chapter 3 supported the claim that the probable reason why the positive impact of FWAs use on job satisfaction becomes negative is because of the conditional mediating effect of career harm in the presence of flexibility stigma. The empirical evidence from Chapter 4 advances the literature on the boundary theory and perceived organizational support theory. The results suggested that work-life conflict mediated the relationship between flexible work arrangement use and Job satisfaction. Moreover, perceived organizational support strengthened the impact of FWAs' use on reducing work-life conflict.

5.2. Theoretical Implications

This thesis adds to the existing literature on the theory of social exchange. I applied the lens of theory of social exchange to view FWAs as one instance of the organizations' attempts at increasing the well-being of their workers. Theory of social exchange (Blau, 1964) was used to explain why FWAs can contribute to an attachment to the organization (McNall et al., 2010). As suggested by the theory of social exchange, workers perceived the option to use FWAs as favourable treatment by the organization and therefore

reciprocated the exchange with positive organizational outcomes like job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions.

Additionally, this thesis has implications for further elaboration of signaling theory in so far as FWAs were concerned. The research paper (published in JBR, October 2019) explored the probable cause of contradicting results regarding job satisfaction and FWAs use and presented a competing framework to explain the dichotomy using the lens of signaling theory (Spence, 1978). The use of signaling theory directed us to theorize that the adoption of FWAs by employee was a sign of deviance from the ideal worker. This paper applied the lens of signaling theory to view availability of FWAs as one instance of the organizations' attempts at increasing the well-being of their workers. While the adoption of FWAs as a sign of deviance from the ideal worker. In this research it was proposed and tested that flexibility stigma moderated the indirect effect of FWAs use on job satisfaction via career harm such that the indirect effect was negative for workers with higher rather than lower level of flexibility stigma.

This thesis also has implications for further elaboration of organizational support theory in so far as FWAs were concerned. According to the theory of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986), the perception of support from the organization generates positive attitudes towards the organization and promotes employee participation (Lambert, 2000). The availability of FWAs is viewed by the employee as an instance of concern for their well-being. It was empirically tested and the results supported that perceived organizational support strengthened the negative relationship of FWAs' use and WLC. In other words, POS in combination with FWAs helped to further decrease WLC.

5.3. Managerial Implications

This study originated from the observation that the nature of work in organizations has changed. One such change is steered by the popularity of flexible work arrangements. This research has established the benefits of using FWAs, which include lower work-life conflict, higher job satisfaction, and lower turnover intentions. Managers should not only make available FWAs but also provide an enabling environment for the use of FWAs. The use of time management behavior (planning behavior) is emphasized in Chapter 1. Planning behavior strengthened the relationship between FWAs use and work-life conflict. Thus, organizations should focus on providing training for the development of such behaviors. Chapter 2 identified the negative impact of flexibility stigma. If managers fail to provide conducive environment for the use of FWAs then the benefits are reversed and cause career, which will in turn reduce job satisfaction. Additionally, chapter 3 provided empirical support to the positive effects of perceived organizational support on the wellbeing of the user of FWAs by lowering work-life conflict. Thus, reinforcing that it imperative for the management to offer a favorable environment for the use of FWAs in order to benefit from the positive organizational outcomes.

5.4. Limitations and Future Research

There are some limitations in this thesis that are recognized in inferring the findings. First, the data collected in this research was cross-sectional in nature and based on a single source. This study tested for common method bias and did not find any indication that it

affected the data. However, it would be preferred if future research could use multiple source data, including performance data, rather than attitudes only. Self-evaluated instruments are used to measure the constructs used in this study, thus, the study is restricted to the opinions of the respondents and their emotions and feelings related to their workplace. Multi-source data can enrich the literature. Second, the results are based on a cross-sectional study making it difficult to infer causality. Future research should also employ the experimental method or longitudinal design with a lag to understand the delay in FWAs' use and their causal impact on turnover intentions. Third, there is a need to include quantitative studies that collect data from large samples of nationally representative employers. This will provide further information on the extent of FWAs availability and use by workers in Pakistan. Fourth, in this study an individual unit of analysis has been used. It will be valuable to understand the influence of FWAs' use across teams and organizations because the frequent use of FWAs also has implications for the coordination and cooperation of workers within organizations.

Fifth, the respondents for this study were spread across industries, and how this might have affected the results is unknown. It would be interesting to study whether there are industry-wide variations in the impact of FWAs' use. It can be argued that the impact of FWAs' use might be different across industries. Thus, for example in industries or contexts where more individual creativity carries a premium, such as software development, or academic writing, FWAs' use might have pronounced impact insofar as the organizations involved have a higher reward for induction of such practices. In industries or contexts where visible team effort is required, or where individual presence carries a premium, FWAs' use might be directly or indirectly discouraged. Additionally, growth rate of a firm

within an industry may also affect the use of FWAs. Such firms may use FWAs to address institutional problems. For instance, a small sized business (or a startup) may benefit from FWAs in order to relieve the situation without resorting to an expensive expansion.

Sixth, flexible work arrangements comprise of various family friendly policies. For the purpose of this study, I focus on flexible timings and flexible place as they are the most popular flexible work arrangements (Coenen & Kok, 2014; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Other dimensions of flexible work arrangements can be investigated in future research such as compressed work weeks, job sharing, and part-time work. The scope of this research has incorporated the use of FWAs however future research can explore a piecemeal effect of the different types of FWAs policies on organizational outcomes. Additionally, a comparative study examining the differences between the hypothesized relationships for gender variations or generational differences will also provide valuable insights.

With regard to flexibility stigma, future researchers may investigate the threshold of flexibility stigma that may be different from the mean value of the construct. This would be very helpful, especially for managers, as the organization would know that if stigma crosses this threshold, the mechanism I have conceptualized and elaborate in Chapter 3, would kick in and the organization would suffer adverse consequences. This threshold for flexibility stigma may vary across industries. For example, as discussed above, technology industry might have a high threshold for flexibility stigma as the focus may be on individual performance outcomes.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Operational definitions of variables understudy

Career Harm Crowley and Kolenikov, (2014)

Please rate the following questions on a scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree or Never) to 5 (Strongly Agree or Very often) considering 3 as neutral (neither agree or disagree)

- At this job, do you believe that you were ever paid less than a worker doing a comparable job
- At this job, do you believe that you were ever denied a raise or a promotion
- At this job, do you believe that you have ever received a negative job evaluation

Flexible Work Arrangements Crowley and Kolenikov, (2014)

Please rank the following from Never, Rarely in less than 10% of the times, Occasionally about 30% of the times, Sometimes in about 50% of the times, Often, in about 75% of the times, Always.

- How much control do you exercise in scheduling your work hours—that is, how much control do you have in setting the time you arrive at work and leave every day?
- How much control do you exercise in making sure your schedule is predictable? In other words, how much control do you have with regard to working overtime, extra hours, or some hours different than your regularly scheduled hours?
- How much control do you exercise in the number of hours you work, such as being able to work part-time if you're full-time or full-time if you work part-time
- Some people are required to work at one employer-specified location, while other people have the choice of working at that location, or at another of the employer's locations, or at home. With that in mind, how much control do you exercise over where you work?

Flexibility Stigma Cech and Blair-Loy, (2014)

Please rate the following questions on a scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree or Never) to 5 (Strongly Agree or Very often) considering 3 as neutral (neither agree or disagree)

- Female employee who have young or school-aged children are considered to be less committed to their careers than colleagues who are not mothers
- Male employee who have young or school-aged children are considered to be less committed to their careers than colleagues who are not fathers
- For those in my department who choose to use formal or informal arrangements for work-life balance, the use of such arrangements often has negative consequences for their careers

Job Satisfaction Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh, (1979)

Please rate the following questions on a scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree or Never) to 5 (Strongly Agree or Very often) considering 3 as neutral (neither agree or disagree)

- All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
- In general, I like my current job.
- In general, I like working in this organization.

Time-based Work-Family Conflict (WIF) Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams(2000)

Please rate the following questions on a scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree or Never) to 5 (Strongly Agree or Very often) considering 3 as neutral (neither agree or disagree)

- My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like
- On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.
- The demands of my job make it difficult for me to maintain the kind of relationship with my spouse and children that I would like.
- My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends
- My work often interferes with my family responsibilities.
- I often bring work home to do on the evenings and weekends.
- The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities
- I feel I don't have enough time to fulfill my responsibilities at home due to time I have to spend on my career
- I feel guilty for spending too much time at work and not enough time with my family
- I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities

Time Management Macan et al., (1994)

Please rate the following questions on a scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree or Never) to 5 (Strongly Agree or Very often) considering 3 as neutral (neither agree or disagree)

- When I decide on what I will try to accomplish in the short term, I keep in mind my long-term objectives.
- I review my goals to determine if they need revising.
- I break complex, difficult projects down into smaller manageable tasks.
- I set short-term goals for what I want to accomplish in a few days or weeks.
- I set deadlines for myself when I set out to accomplish a task.
- I look for ways to increase the efficiency with which I perform my work activities.
- I finish top priority tasks before going on to less important ones.
- I review my daily activities to see where I am wasting time.
- During a workday I evaluate how well I am following the schedule I have set down for myself.
- I set priorities to determine the order in which I will perform tasks each day

Turnover intentions Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh, (1979)

Please rate the following questions on a scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree or Never) to 5 (Strongly Agree or Very often) considering 3 as neutral (neither agree or disagree)

- I often think about quitting my job.
- I am currently looking for a job outside my organization.
- I would leave this company if I could find a similar position at another organization.

Appendix B: Harman's Single Factor**Total Variance Explained**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.628	22.095	22.095	6.628	22.095	22.095
2	4.747	15.822	37.917	4.747	15.822	37.917
3	3.127	10.423	48.340	3.127	10.423	48.340
4	2.224	7.412	55.752	2.224	7.412	55.752
5	1.042	3.474	59.225	1.042	3.474	59.225
6	1.018	3.395	62.620	1.018	3.395	62.620
7	.899	2.996	65.616			
8	.768	2.561	68.177			
9	.726	2.421	70.598			
10	.706	2.354	72.952			
11	.686	2.288	75.240			
12	.639	2.128	77.368			
13	.605	2.018	79.386			
14	.559	1.862	81.247			
15	.527	1.756	83.003			
16	.502	1.672	84.675			
17	.498	1.659	86.334			
18	.483	1.609	87.943			
19	.434	1.448	89.391			
20	.421	1.405	90.796			

21	.383	1.277	92.073
22	.353	1.176	93.249
23	.331	1.104	94.353
24	.315	1.051	95.403
25	.283	.945	96.348
26	.276	.921	97.269
27	.249	.831	98.101
28	.243	.810	98.910
29	.181	.602	99.512
30	.146	.488	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix C: Harman's Single Factor**Total Variance Explained**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.266	32.818	32.818	4.266	32.818	32.818
2	2.109	16.221	49.039	2.109	16.221	49.039
3	1.675	12.882	61.921	1.675	12.882	61.921
4	1.054	8.105	70.026	1.054	8.105	70.026
5	.780	5.998	76.025			
6	.616	4.742	80.766			
7	.560	4.308	85.074			
8	.480	3.693	88.767			
9	.430	3.308	92.075			
10	.323	2.482	94.557			
11	.301	2.318	96.876			
12	.228	1.750	98.626			
13	.179	1.374	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix D: Harman's Single Factor

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.010	30.052	30.052	6.010	30.052	30.052
2	2.975	14.877	44.928	2.975	14.877	44.928
3	2.121	10.606	55.534	2.121	10.606	55.534
4	1.837	9.187	64.721	1.837	9.187	64.721
5	.901	4.506	69.227			
6	.847	4.237	73.464			
7	.647	3.234	76.698			
8	.580	2.901	79.599			
9	.523	2.613	82.213			
10	.476	2.380	84.592			
11	.452	2.260	86.852			
12	.431	2.154	89.007			
13	.362	1.812	90.818			
14	.334	1.669	92.487			
15	.318	1.589	94.076			
16	.299	1.493	95.569			
17	.264	1.322	96.890			
18	.238	1.192	98.083			
19	.198	.988	99.071			
20	.186	.929	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix E: Non response bias test

Variables	Total Response	Early Response	Late Response	Chi-square test
Managerial Level				
Top managers	105	47	58	$\chi^2 = .503$
Middle level managers	174	77	97	Df = 2
Other managers	10	6	4	$p = 0.787$
Type of Organization				
Public	108	64	44	$\chi^2 = .531$
Private	181	88	93	Df = 1
				$p = 0.467$
Organization Sector				
Manufacturing	70	37	33	$\chi^2 = 1.442$
Finance	61	42	19	df = 4
Healthcare	64	23	41	$p = 0.230$
Telecommunication	55	23	32	
Technology	40	16	24	
Marital status				
Married	205	98	108	$\chi^2 = 0.964$
Single/Divorced	83	47	36	Df = 1
				$p = 0.555$

Appendix F: Non response bias test

Variables	Total Response	Early Response	Late Response	Chi-square test
Managerial Level				
Top managers	45	18	27	$\chi^2 = .501$
Middle level managers	125	58	67	Df = 2
Other managers	39	18	21	$p = 0.977$
Type of Organization				
Public	89	44	45	$\chi^2 = .530$
Private	120	59	61	Df = 1
				$p = 0.467$
Organization Sector				
Manufacturing	49	22	27	$\chi^2 = 4.73$
Finance	44	21	23	df = 4
Healthcare	46	21	25	$p = 0.230$
Telecommunication	45	19	26	
Technology	25	14	11	

Appendix G: Alternative Analysis (Multigroup)

Flexibility Stigma

Indirect Effect	Low		High	
	Estimate	p-value	Estimate	p-value
FWA use -> career harm -> Job Satisfaction	0.048	0.594	-0.171	0.01

Direct Effect	Low		High	
	Estimate	p-value	Estimate	p-value
FWA use -> career harm	-0.092	0.594	0.323	0.010
FWA use -> job satisfaction	0.160	0.121	0.128	0.079
career harm -> job satisfaction	-0.521	0.010	-0.528	0.010

Total Effect	Low		High	
	Estimate	p-value	Estimate	p-value
FWA use -> job satisfaction	0.208	0.050	0.299	0.010

