TELEWORK'S IMPACT ON EMPLOYEE EFFECTIVENESS:

IS IT THE TIME OR THE PLACE THAT REALLY MATTERS?

A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

Telework is becoming increasingly common, with more workers reporting that they telework at least some of the time. Even though the amount of research on telework is increasing, all telework arrangements are not created equal. Many recent research studies confound the flexible location aspect of telework with a flexible time component, even though flextime is not part of the original telework definition. Due to this lack of consistency in defining and therefore measuring telework, it is not clear whether the change in the working location or hours is contributing to the outcomes associated with telework.

The goal of this study was to examine the relationships between flexibility in place and time, and various outcomes that are important to employee effectiveness. Specifically, the outcomes included task performance, contextual performance, and the withdrawal behaviors of presenteeism, lateness, absenteeism, and turnover intentions. Additionally, because we do not know *why* or *when* telework leads to these outcomes, research on the explanatory mechanisms underlying these relationships was conducted. Finally, a distinction was made between actual use of flexibility and perceptions of the availability of flexible work arrangements.

For the current study, data were collected in online surveys from two samples of employees: an organizational sample and a snowball sample, including a total of 1,046 participants. Additionally, data regarding employee performance and absenteeism were provided by the organization. Results of this study do not support a significant

relationship between flexplace or flextime and the outcomes of task or contextual performance. Of the relationships proposed with withdrawal, perceived flextime was negatively related to lateness and perceived flexplace was negatively related to turnover intentions. Additionally, some evidence was found for mediators and moderators of the relationships between flexibility and the outcomes. Specifically, autonomy mediated some of the perceived flexibility-outcome relationships and work-nonwork conflict mediated perceived flexplace-outcome relationships. Further, the wasted time dimension of work ethic moderated some of the actual flexibility-outcome relationships and perceived flextime moderated two perceived flexplace-outcome relationships. It is recommended that future research further examine these relationships, as some of the moderated relationships were not in the predicted direction and therefore difficult to interpret.

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INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Telework (or telecommuting) is becoming an increasingly common mode of working, with more and more workers reporting that they telework at least some of their working time (Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), 2010). In 2010, it was estimated that 26.2 million people teleworked, representing approximately 20% of the working adult population in the U.S. (WorldatWork, 2011). Additionally, the frequency of telework by employees increased from 2008 to 2011, with 84% of teleworkers reporting at least one day of telework per week in 2012, while only 72% of teleworkers reported teleworking one day per week or more in 2008 (WorldatWork, 2011). In a national survey, 50% of employers reported that they allowed some employees to work from home occasionally and 23% indicated that they allowed some employees to work from home on a regular basis (Executive Office of the President, 2010). Finally, telework is on the rise in countries outside of the U.S. (Korte & Wynne, 1996; Ruiz & Walling, 2005).

Because of this increase in teleworking employees and the changing nature of work, the study of telework and flexible work schedules is especially important for industrial/organizational psychologists (Kossek & Michel, 2011). The increased prevalence of telework has led to growth in research studies devoted to the topic. The current study seeks to examine the relationship between telework and various outcomes that are important to employee effectiveness. Specifically, the outcomes of interest

include task performance, contextual performance, and the withdrawal behaviors of presenteeism, lateness, absenteeism, and turnover intentions.

While research on telework has increased, researchers have noted that the definition of telework is not always clear and that the various definitions are often inconsistent (Garrett & Danzinger, 2007; McCloskey & Igbaria, 1998). In the current study, the distinction between flexible place and flexible time arrangements in the context of telework is of specific interest. This distinction is important because without making it, it is not possible to understand the reasons for outcomes associated with telework. Whereas the definition of telework originally contained only a flexible place component (Nilles, 1975), many recent studies include or assume a flexible time component as well (e.g., Golden, 2006; Morganson, Major, Oborn, Verive, & Heelan, 2010). As such, it is not clear whether the change in the working location or the working hours is contributing to the outcomes associated with telework. In a recent meta-analysis, it is noted that the specific form of flexibility that is offered to employees (e.g., flexplace, flextime) impacts the outcomes observed (Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, 2013), however that meta-analytic study is limited to the outcomes work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. In addition to teasing out the distinction between flexplace and flextime, this study also seeks to answer questions about *why* or *when* telework leads to the outcomes included in the study as existing research does not delineate these relationships (SHRM, 2010); therefore research on the explanatory mechanisms underlying these relationships and the conditions that intensify or inhibit these effects is needed.

The current study begins to answer these questions by testing the influence of flexible place and flexible time components of telework separately on performance and withdrawal. It also empirically examines potential mediators and moderators of these relationships.

Boundary Theory

The relationships between telework and its associated outcomes can be explained by boundary theory. Boundary theory is based on the idea that individuals participate in multiple roles in multiple domains, such as home and work (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000). Work and home are not separate "spheres" or unrelated domains; instead, they are interdependent and often have boundaries which allow overlap between the domains (Desrochers & Sargent, 2004; Kanter, 1977). According to boundary theory, individuals create boundaries around their roles in order to manage them (Bulger, Matthews, & Hoffman, 2007). Understanding these boundaries is important when researching telework, because having access to flexible place and time arrangements can alter the boundaries that an individual maintains.

Boundary theory and work/family theory have been used to describe the transitions between work and home domains (e.g., Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000). Boundary theory has been used to explain how individuals deal with role transitions between various roles throughout the day. Boundary theory is not limited to only the work and home domains, as it is a general cognitive classification that can be used to differentiate any number of domains (Lamont & Molnar, 2002). For example, boundary theory could be used to classify different racial groups (with each group being identified

by racial boundaries; Lamont & Molnar, 2002) or to separate one's life into different social domains including home, work, and church (Ashforth et al., 2000). Boundary theory centers on the ease with which individuals can transition between their various roles (Ashforth et al., 2000) and the meanings that are assigned to each domain (Nippert-Eng, 1996).

Work/family border theory (Clark, 2000) differs slightly from boundary theory in that where boundary theory applies to a variety of roles, work/family border theory is specific to work and family roles. Also, whereas boundary theory describes the transitions that individuals make between roles, work/family border theory focuses more on one's ability to balance and function in the work and family domains (Bulger et al., 2007). Specifically, the main outcomes of interest according to work/family balance theory are "satisfaction and good functioning at work and home, with a minimum of role conflict" (Clark, 2000, p. 751).

Although there are these few differences, work/family border theory has many of the same propositions as boundary theory. Because boundary theory and work/family border theory have many of the same basic tenets, instead of referring to both theories, the current paper will refer primarily to boundary theory, because it is the original theory regarding boundaries around various domains. Additionally, it is a broader theory and therefore can be conceived of as subsuming work/family border theory.

Boundary theory proposes that individuals create boundaries around their work and home domains (Bulger et al., 2007). One of the basic ideas of boundary theory is that individuals create, maintain, and cross boundaries, with maintenance and boundary

crossing occurring daily (Ashforth et al., 2000). The creation of boundaries is a means by which individuals simplify their environment and introduce some type of order that makes sense to them (Ashforth et al., 2000). Boundaries can be either physical, temporal, or psychological (Clark, 2000). In creating boundaries, individuals must choose what to include or exclude from each domain, sort out activities or content into each domain, and finally assign various things to each domain (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Often times, boundaries are created and maintained through a process of trial and error. The demands that a spouse or child places on an individual or the expectations of coworkers or supervisors can force someone to rethink their boundaries and adjust them in order to meet the needs of people in each domain (Nippert-Eng, 1996). For example, an employee's spouse may want the employee to be at home for dinner and family time every weekday at 5:30 pm. Therefore, the employee would have to understand these demands and set a boundary such that at 5:30 pm, every Monday through Friday evening s/he switches roles from employee to family member, no longer conducting work after this 5:30 pm boundary. This boundary is then based on the expectations or demands that an individual in one domain is placing on an individual. Boundary theory may be especially relevant for flexplace because there is not a physical boundary between the work and home domains.

Telework: Flexplace and Flextime

Telework is as an alternative work arrangement in which employees complete their work in a location other than the office (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Feldman & Gainey, 1997; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). It involves bringing work to the employee,

such as through the use of technology and telecommunications, rather than bringing the employee to work (Nilles, 1998). As such, a substitution of the place that a person works is inherent in telework. This substitution can move the work to the individual's home, a satellite office, or another location, but as a teleworker an employee must work at least part of the workweek from somewhere other than a traditional office (Garrett & Danzinger, 2007; Hill, Ferris, & Märtinson, 2003).

While a change in location is necessary for telework to occur, this may not be the only difference between traditional office workers and teleworkers. Individuals choose to telework for different reasons. Shockley and Allen (2012) recently identified two primary motives for flexible work arrangement use: life management and work-related. For example, some people may choose to telework in order to reduce commute times or expenses required for traveling into the office while others may choose to telework in order to help balance their work and home lives (i.e., being home in time to take a child to sports practice), as well as for other reasons that have not been fully explored (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). Both of the examples given have a time component to them, suggesting that in addition to altering the place where work is completed, telework can also alter the times in which work can be completed.

A problem in current telework research is that these flexible place and flexible time elements are not distinguished from one another. In fact, flexplace and flextime are often combined when measuring telework and it is therefore impossible to tease them apart. For example, Golden (2006) notes that "teleworking enables greater autonomy over when and how to carry out work activities" than do other working arrangements (p.

178). According to Morganson et al. (2010) "teleworking is defined broadly as working from anywhere at anytime" (p. 578). Additionally, Pinsonneault and Boisvert (2001) explain telework as "an expansion of the places and times considered auspicious for work" (p. 164). Due to issues such as these, it is not clear whether it is the flexibility in location of work, the flexibility in timing of work, or a combination of the two that lead to the positive outcomes associated with telework. This study will attempt to differentiate between flextime and flexplace by separating flexibility in place and flexibility in time in order to determine the individual effects that each of these types of flexibility have on the outcomes. Both flexplace and flextime will be measured independent of one another and examined in relation to the various outcomes included in the study.

While access to and use of telework is important for various outcomes, individual perceptions are likely to be at least as important, if not more, than the actual telework policies. Telework researchers suggest that policy use and availability be examined separately (Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006) and consistent with this recommendation, research has shown that the availability of flexible policies related differently to outcomes than does the actual use of the policies (Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2013). Specifically, using meta-analytic methods researchers showed that the availability of work-family support policies (e.g., flextime, telework) were more strongly related to the outcomes of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intentions than were the actual use of those policies (Butts et al., 2013).

Perceptions of flexibility will be unique to each individual and different from the structural telework policies that are in place. As such, it is necessary to assess how flexible individuals perceive the telework arrangement to be. For example, an employee may be allowed to participate in a telework arrangement, but if they feel that their boss or the organization does not support the arrangement, they are less likely to use the arrangements (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999) and less likely to report high levels of perceived flexibility. Because of this distinction between the actual flexibility and individual's perceptions of flexibility, both *actual* and *perceived* measures of flextime and flexplace will be included in this study, with the expectation that there may not be a high level of association between them. Each hypothesis will then be tested with regard to actual and perceived flexplace and flextime.

Flexible Place

According to Shockley and Allen (2007), flexplace arrangements "involve flexibility in the location where work is completed, often referring to work conducted at home (also known as telework or telecommuting)" (p. 480). This allows employees to work from home if they choose to do so (Feldman & Gainey, 1997), if they are not physically able to be in the office (McCloskey & Igbaria, 1998), or because of organizational initiatives (Feldman & Gainey, 1997). As noted previously, telework definitively means that there is a change in the work location, with home being the primary location in which telework occurs (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

One commonly cited outcome of flexplace arrangements is a decrease in time spent commuting (e.g., Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Ozcelik, 2010). As a result, flexplace

can be expected to decrease negative outcomes such as work-family conflict (WFC) because the elimination of commuting time enables individuals to allocate previous commute time to family (Noonan, Estes, & Glass, 2007). While many telework studies do not specify that they are only looking at flexplace arrangements, meta-analytic results have shown that telework is positively related to variables such as supervisor-rated performance, job satisfaction, perceived autonomy and negatively related to WFC and role stress (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

Multiple theories have been used to explain the theoretical reasons why flexplace should be related to various outcomes. Here, job characteristics theory, role theory, and distributed work are discussed.

Job Characteristics Theory. One theoretical explanation for the positive effects that are often expected as a result of flexplace comes from the job characteristics theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). According to this theory, characteristics of a job can lead to positive outcomes, such as increased task performance and satisfaction, by inducing certain psychological states in individuals. The job characteristic in this model that is specifically related to flexplace is autonomy. Flexplace is typically thought of as increasing autonomy because of the flexibility and control that it affords the individual in choosing where to complete work (Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1999). With high levels of autonomy, outcomes depend more on an individual's own decisions and efforts rather than those of a supervisor or specified procedures. Thus, the autonomy that can be associated with flexplace arrangements is likely to lead to increased positive outcomes.

Role Theory. Igbaria and Guimaraes (1999) also suggest that flexplace has a positive effect on relevant organizational outcomes because of reduced role stressors, such as role ambiguity and role conflict. According to role theory, role ambiguity and role conflict are undesirable because they lead to decreases in both satisfaction and performance as well as increases in stress and anxiety (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Meta-analytic results have supported the negative relationship between both role ambiguity and role conflict and job satisfaction (Fried, Shirom, Gilboa, & Cooper, 2008). Additionally, the negative relationships between both role ambiguity and job performance (Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Tubre & Collins, 2000) and role conflict and job performance (Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008) have been supported meta-analytically.

Consistent with their hypothesizing, Igbaria and Guimaraes (1999) found that teleworkers had lower role stressors than their counterparts who worked in the traditional office at all times. A possible reason suggested for this decrease in role stressors is that because teleworkers experience physical separation from their supervisor and the workplace, the teleworkers must communicate more with supervisors in order to stay current on the work situation, which decreases role ambiguity because what the worker needs to do is clearly defined (Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1999). This increased communication with supervisors can also decrease role conflict for teleworkers.

Distributed Work. Telework is the most well-known type of distributed work (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Distributed work is defined as work that does not occur on company premises or by employees who work at least part of their time at home

(Bélanger & Collins, 1996). As such, distributed work is solely referring to flexplace, and not flextime, arrangements. In describing why distributed work may have positive outcomes, Bélanger and Collins (1996) use the idea of fit between the telework arrangement and both individual and organizational characteristics. Here, fit is the coherence among multiple relevant attributes (Gestalt fit; Venkatraman, 1989). For example, an individual can experience a positive outcome of a flexplace arrangement because his/her personal skills, such as communication and dependability, fit well with what is needed in a distributed work situation. Additionally, organizations can experience positive outcomes, such as reduced costs, because the job in question fits well with flexplace. This fit could be because it is a job that does not require a great deal of supervision and as such the employee does not need to physically be in the office.

Flexible Time

Flextime is a type of alternative work schedule in which an employee's work schedule does not have to fit the typical 8-hour day, 40-hour a week schedule (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999). With flextime, employees are typically able to choose their own eight hour work day, but they are often required to work during a set of core hours (e.g., they must be in the office from 10am to 3pm). Meta-analytic studies have shown a positive relationship between flextime and important work outcomes. Specifically, Baltes et al. (1999) examined the outcomes of employee productivity, job satisfaction, satisfaction with the work schedule, and absenteeism and showed that each of these was positively affected by the implementation of a flextime program. Of the outcomes examined in this meta-analysis, flextime had the strongest relationship with

absenteeism. These effects were present for employees; however flextime did not show the same positive impact for managers/professionals. This could be due to the fact that managers can already be more flexible in their work hours and therefore do not experience the positive effects of a telework arrangement. The effects of flextime arrangements have been explained using various theoretical reasons including increases in employee control, job characteristics theory, and the work adjustment theory.

Control. It has been suggested that one reason why flexible work policies, such as flextime, impact work outcomes is because of the control that the employee is given over his/her own schedule (Kelly & Moen, 2007). There are three complementary theories that can be used to explain why flextime may lead to positive outcomes. First, theoretical reasoning is taken from the job demands-control model (Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). This model suggests that psychological stress and strain are highest when workers perceive high demands and low personal job control (or job decision latitude). In other words, the more control that individuals have over their tasks and conduct during the work day, the lower their stress and strain are likely to be. When employees are able to control their own work hours, they are less likely to suffer from high stress on the job which in turn leads to more positive outcomes such as higher job performance and job satisfaction and lower absenteeism and turnover (Kelly & Moen, 2007).

Job Characteristics Theory. A second, similar theoretical explanation for flextime comes from the job characteristics theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). As with flexplace, flextime fosters perceptions of autonomy. According to job characteristics

theory, autonomy is "the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out" (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, p. 258). As conveyed in this definition, a substantial portion of autonomy appears to come from the ability of individuals to choose the hours that they work. The autonomy that is given to employees when flextime is implemented can be expected to influence a variety of outcomes.

Work Adjustment Model. Finally, the work adjustment model (Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1968) has also been used to explain the benefits of flextime arrangements. According to this model, if there is a high correspondence between the individual and the job, especially in terms of the individual's ability and ability requirements of the job, then high performance can be expected (Baltes et al., 1999). This is similar to Venkatraman's (1989) explanation of Gestalt fit. One explanation for an increase in performance when telework is implemented that aligns with this model is that when employees are able to choose their own work schedules, they will be able to follow their own circadian rhythm rather than the typical work schedule (Pierce & Newstrom, 1980). If people are able to sleep when their body wants to sleep rather than try to awaken in order to get into the office at a prescribed time, it is likely that their performance will improve. Positive job attitudes can also be expected according to the work adjustment model when there is correspondence between the needs of the individual and the reinforcements that are provided by the organization (Baltes et al., 1999). Therefore, if

an employee has to be late to work because of an appointment and the organization allows that because of a flextime agreement, positive outcomes can be expected.

Flexplace versus Flextime

Researchers have acknowledged that while telework means that the work location is flexible, in some cases it can also mean that there is flexibility in the time at which employees can complete their work but this level of time flexibility will vary by organization (Allen, Renn, & Griffeth, 2003; Shockley & Allen, 2007). Although telework arrangements can include flexible work hours, not all of these arrangements will have flextime as an option for the employee. In fact, researchers have suggested that a solely flexplace work arrangement is very different from a combined flexplace and flextime arrangement. If employees do not have flextime as part of their telework arrangement, they do not have much more flexibility than employees who must go into the office for the work day (Shockley & Allen, 2007).

In looking at the distinction between flexplace and flextime arrangements and WFC, Shockley and Allen (2007) suggest that flextime may be more effective in reducing WFC than flexplace. This rationale is based in boundary theory, which suggests that individuals create boundaries to differentiate between various environments that are relevant to them, for example the work environment and the home environment (Ashforth et al., 1996). With flexplace arrangements, employees typically work in the home thus removing the boundary between the work and home environments and possibly increasing WFC. On the other hand, with flextime-only arrangements, the boundary between home and work is not removed, because employees

still work in the office, but not at typical work times. Accordingly, Shockley and Allen (2007) found that flextime arrangements had a stronger negative relationship with work interfering with family (WIF) than did flexplace arrangements. However, their study considered flextime and flexplace as separate arrangements and not necessarily both as part of a telework program. As such, the interaction between flexplace and flextime has not been explicitly examined. In addition, researchers have not studied the flexplace/flextime distinction in relation to workplace outcomes beyond WFC. Correspondingly, the distinction between flexplace and flextime will be made, with each variable being measured separately. Additionally, the interaction between flexplace and flextime on workplace outcomes will also be examined in the current study.

Telework Outcomes

Harrison, Newman, and Roth (2006) defined a broad behavioral criterion comprising desirable contributions that an employee makes to the organization. This broad criterion encompasses task performance, contextual performance, and withdrawal behaviors including lateness, absence, and turnover. Each of these constructs is important to the success of an organization, and in sum they provide a comprehensive picture of the effectiveness of employees (Harrison et al., 2006). While some scholars initially suggested that contextual performance and its predecessor is "extra-role" and distinct from required behaviors at work (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), more recently it has been acknowledged that contextual performance, along with related constructs such as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), are not necessarily discretionary and are part of expected performance that occurs on the job (Organ, 1997). Each of the pieces of

the behavioral criterion suggested will be examined in relation to telework, teasing out the effects of flexplace and flextime. Additionally, another withdrawal behavior variable that is newer to the I/O psychology literature, presenteeism, will be examined along with the more commonly studied withdrawal behaviors.

Much of the basis for the idea that telework will lead to increases in various outcomes is based social exchange theory, which states that actions by one entity are rewarded by the recipient (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976). When employers "take care of their employees," the employees are likely to repay this in ways that are beneficial to the organization, such as by displaying effective work behaviors (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 882). However, these rewards or repayment are only given if the recipient values the action directed toward him/her. Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), if employees value the benefit that is given to them (i.e., telework), then they are likely to give something extra back to the organization. Social exchange theory depends on a sense of obligation felt by the employee to repay the organization for the benefit that it provided (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), and the employee can give back to the organization in a variety of ways. Increased performance and decreased withdrawal behaviors have been shown to be related to this felt obligation (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). Additionally, the obligations felt by the employee can be repaid in the form of contextual performance (Lambert, 2000).

Task Performance

An increase in employee performance is often cited as a reason for organizations to implement telework (Pinsonneault & Boisvert, 2001). This is because employees are

able to work without distraction (Bailey & Kurland, 2002) and because individuals have more control over their work environment so they can make it match their preferences (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). While the lessened distractions explanation can be attributed to the flexplace aspect of telework (i.e., employees can choose to work in a place, such as a home office, where they are not disturbed by requests from coworkers or supervisors), the preference matching explanation seems to be more related to flextime, in that employees can tailor their schedule to fit their needs.

Empirical evidence does not provide extensive support for the popular statement that telework increases employee performance (e.g., $\rho = 0.01$ for self-rated performance, $\rho = 0.19$ for supervisor-rated performance, Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; $\rho = 0.06$ for job performance, Nicklin, Mayfield, Arboleda, Caputo, Cosentino, Lee, et al. 2008). One possible explanation for the inconsistent and often weak results could be the lack of consistency in how telework is implemented. Specifically, as previously noted, by definition telework is a flexplace arrangement, but can also incorporate flextime. It may be that the flextime aspect of telework leads to increased performance rather than the flexplace arrangement. Based on boundary theory, flextime arrangements mean that employees have flexible temporal boundaries (Desrochers & Sargent, 2004). Therefore, they can choose to schedule their work when they are most likely to be productive and experience the fewest interruptions. By choosing individual working times that are best for oneself, it is likely that performance will increase.

Shockley and Allen (2007) demonstrated that flextime had a greater impact on reduction of WFC than did flexplace. In a similar manner, it could be that flextime has a

stronger positive relationship with performance than does flexplace. Additionally, it might be that flextime arrangements are more flexible than flexplace arrangements. There are many options for the hours that one can choose to work, however there are a limited number of locations that are appropriate for conducting work.

Hypothesis 1a: Flexplace will be positively related to task performance.

Hypothesis 1b: Flextime will be positively related to task performance.

Hypothesis 1c: There will be a stronger relationship between flextime and task performance than flexplace and task performance.

Contextual Performance

Where task performance refers to technical knowledge and skills and meeting the requirements listed in a job description, contextual performance supports the "organizational, social, and psychological environment" within an organization rather than directly supporting the technical core (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p. 73).

Initially, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) suggested five dimensions of contextual performance, encompassing behaviors that involve helping others within the organization and going beyond activities listed in the job description. Borman and colleagues (Coleman & Borman, 2000; Borman, Buck, Hanson, Motowidlo, Stark, & Drasgow, 2001) further refined contextual performance by defining three narrower categories: personal support, organizational support, and conscientious initiative. Personal support consists of helping and cooperating with others, showing consideration and courtesy, and motivating coworkers (Motowidlo, 2003). Organizational support includes supporting, defending, and promoting the organization and following rules

(Borman et al., 2001). Finally, conscientious initiative encompasses persisting with extra effort and taking initiative (Borman et al., 2001).

It has been suggested that offering employees benefits that help them to balance their work and home lives will lead employees to reciprocate and give back to the organization (Lambert, 2000). This reciprocity often comes in the form of contextual performance; if employees perceive that the ability to telework helps balance their work and home lives, they will be more likely to help the organization with increased contextual performance. Correspondingly, Kelliher and Anderson (2010) found support for the notion that employees who are allowed flexible work arrangements demonstrated an intensification of work, meaning that they put more effort into their jobs while working. Similarly, recent research shows that telework does have beneficial associations with contextual performance as telework is positively related to two types of contextual performance: job dedication and interpersonal facilitation (Gajendran, Harrison, & Delaney-Klinger, in press). Conversely, Lautsch, Kossek, and Eaton (2009) did not find a significant relationship between telework and helping behaviors.

This discrepancy in findings regarding different dimensions of contextual performance could be due to the idea that even if employees feel that the ability to telework helps them, it is easier for them to engage in conscientious initiative behaviors than personal support behaviors. Because teleworking means that one is away from the office, it could be difficult to help others when not physically present. Therefore, telework will lead to increased personal support only if employees spend some time in the office, where they are in the presence of coworkers. However, an employee is able

to engage in conscientious initiative and organizational support behaviors whether they are in the office or working at home. Conscientious initiative is similar to the intensification of work that Kelliher and Anderson (2010) studied; employees are able to work with extra effort in their home. Additionally, organizational support behaviors, such as supporting and defending the organization, are likely to occur when people are outside of the organization and therefore being present in the office is not a requirement to perform these behaviors.

Hypothesis 2: Flexplace will be positively related to (a) conscientious initiative and (b) organizational support behaviors.

Hypothesis 3: Flextime will be positively related to (a) conscientious initiative and (b) organizational support behaviors.

Presenteeism

Although not part of the behavioral criterion previously discussed, another outcome that could be important to organizations is presenteeism. Presenteeism describes employees who are at work, but not working up to their full potential (Johns, 2010). Results from a recent survey suggest that nearly 75% of workers go into work when they are ill (WorldatWork, 2011). Presenteeism is included in the present study because Harrison et al.'s (2006) broad behavioral criterion suggests the importance of withdrawal behaviors to desired employee contributions, and presenteeism can help to increase our understanding of withdrawal behaviors (Johns, 2010). While presenteeism has a long history in other fields, such as occupational medicine (e.g., Goetzel, Long, Ozimkowski, Hawkins, Wang, & Lynch, 2004), this construct has not received a great

deal of attention in the I/O psychology and management fields. One reason that researchers do not often study presenteeism is that it is not always easily visible (Cascio, 2007). Unlike absenteeism, which is easy to measure because the employee is not physically at work, presenteeism is not always apparent as it is difficult to see when illness or some other medical condition hinders an employee's work.

Presenteeism has been defined in a variety of ways. While some definitions include causes of presenteeism besides being ill (e.g., "Going to work despite feeling unhealthy or experiencing other events that might normally compel absence," Evans, 2004) or consequences of presenteeism (e.g., "Reduced productivity at work due to health problems," Turpin, Ozminkowski, Sharda, Collins, Berger, Billotti, et al., 2004), the definition used in the current study is "attending work while ill" (Johns, 2010). This definition is chosen because it is the definition used by most scholars. Additionally, it does not unnecessarily ascribe motives or consequences to presenteeism behaviors. Presenteeism research can focus on a variety of illnesses, including seasonal allergies, asthma, migraines, arthritis, and depression, among other things (Hemp, 2004).

Presenteeism and absenteeism are often discussed together. One reason for this is that they are both forms of withdrawal and are related to one another. Correlations between presenteeism and absenteeism range from .14 to .24 (Johns, 2010). It is likely that presenteeism will occur when absence is not an option (Johns, 2008), such as if an organizational policy dictates an employee receives no paid leave or the employee has used up all of his/her paid sick leave. Additionally, engaging in presenteeism by

reducing output at work is a less extreme form of withdrawal than is absenteeism (Johns, 2008).

Presenteeism can occur for a variety of reasons. On a personal level, an employee may work when s/he is not feeling well because of personal financial insecurity, a lack of someone else to cover the position, or a personal investment in the job (Johns, 2008). The structure of the job or organization can also lead to presenteeism. For example, employees are more likely to engage in presenteeism if their job does not allow for sick leave or much of their work is completed in teams (Johns, 2008). Finally, on an economic level, downsizing and non-permanent work leads to job insecurity (Johns, 2008), and if employees are worried about losing their job, they are more likely to come into the office when they should not be doing so because of an illness.

Most studies take one of two approaches to measuring presenteeism (Johns, 2010). The first approach is to ask employees if, within a specified time frame, they have attended work even though they felt as if they should have taken sick leave. For measuring the act of presenteeism with questions such as this, Johns (1994) suggests using open-ended questions in order to reduce bias in responses. The second way presenteeism has been measured is to try to determine the amount of productivity loss incurred (Johns, 2010). This is typically done using a self-report measure of health and its estimated effect on productivity.

Even though many researchers study effects of absenteeism, they would be well served to consider presenteeism as well. There is agreement across studies that presenteeism actually has a greater cost than does absenteeism. Additionally,

presenteeism is likely more prevalent among employees than other withdrawal outcomes, such as absenteeism. Multiple studies have examined the monetary and productivity costs of presenteeism to organizations. Hemp (2004) suggests that presenteeism costs organizations in the United States $150 billion per year. When examining a single, large company, Burton, Conti, Chen, Schultz, and Edington (2002) found that it experienced over $24 million in costs due to presenteeism, which exceeded absenteeism costs by over $3 million. Other studies examine specific ailments rather than the overall cost of absenteeism. When specifically examining seasonal allergies one study found that during allergy season, the productivity of allergy suffers fell 7% below their allergy-free counterparts, with whom their performance was equal during the non-allergy season (Cascio, 2007). Yet another study showed that individuals experiencing a significant amount of pain while at work lost 3.14 days of work due to presenteeism in a 4 month period; the healthy comparison group lost only .29 days due to presenteeism (Allen, Hubbard, & Sullivan, 2005)

Not only can presenteeism have a negative impact on the organization, but it can also be detrimental to individual employees. When employees go into work despite illness they can actually worsen their physical condition and hurt the quality of their work life (Johns, 2010). Additionally, if their productivity is diminished because of presenteeism, it can lead supervisors to see them as ineffective or a poorer performer than they actually are. Furthermore, if an employee attends work when they are ill and contagious, their illness can also be detrimental to other employees in the organization if the illness spreads.

Until now, the relationship between telework and presenteeism has not been examined. One study did find that presenteeism is decreased if there is a match between an individual's desired and actual working hours (Böckerman & Laukkanen, 2009). This study defined presenteeism as the act of being at work while ill, so it only considered employees being at work when they reported being ill. Because flextime allows employees to work at times that are more convenient or desirable to them, it is likely that employees will be able to create a better match between their actual and desired hours, thus reducing presenteeism which has been shown to decrease presenteeism (Böckerman & Laukkanen, 2010).

Hypothesis 4a: Flextime will be negatively related to the act of presenteeism.

Unlike flextime, it can be expected that flexplace may actually increase the act of presenteeism. When employees are given flexplace arrangements, they are able to work from the comfort of their own home and with less monitoring by coworkers and supervisors. Some of the most cited reasons for employees to work when they are sick are that they have too much work do and others depending on them, it was too risky to take time off, and they were saving sick days for child or elder care emergencies (Miller, 2008). If a flexplace arrangement is available, each of these reasons could encourage a sick worker to work from home, rather than the office, while sick, thus increasing presenteeism for flexplace workers.

Hypothesis 4b: Flexplace will be positively related to the act of presenteeism.

Lateness

Returning to social exchange theory, lateness is a means by which the individual can withhold inputs from the organization (Harrison et al., 2006). In general, lateness is studied less frequently than other withdrawal behaviors and has been called a "neglected form of physical withdrawal behavior" (Blau, 2002, p. 161). Correspondingly, there is a lack of research on the relationship between lateness and both flexplace and flextime arrangements. However, Blau (2002) suggests that even with the increases in telework and flextime arrangements, lateness may still be an important variable to study. One could argue that having a flexplace arrangement would decrease lateness for multiple reasons. First, reduced commute times have been cited as a reason employees choose to telework (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). If an employee does not have to commute to work and worry about traffic, it will be easier to start working on time. Additionally, if an employee does not have to go to a location where they will be seen by others, they may spend less time getting ready for work, thus reducing the possibility of being late.

When considering flextime, one may think that it is not possible to be late because of the flexible nature of the work hours. However, individuals can still be late to work if they have a scheduled meeting to attend or core hours in which they are supposed to be working. In fact, given that 79% of organizations offering flextime have required core hours (WorldatWork, 2011), it is possible that individuals can be late, even when utilizing a flextime arrangement. While lateness is possible in a flextime arrangement, this does not mean that it is necessarily more likely to occur. Considering social exchange theory, if the organization is giving the employee the opportunity to use

a flextime arrangement, it is likely that the employee will be in the office and ready to work on time, even if this is at his/her home. An employee will be able to use the flextime in order to manage conflicts between his/her work and home lives.

Although both flexplace and flextime are expected to decrease lateness, flexplace arrangements will likely be more successful in reducing lateness than are flextime arrangements. As one of the stated reasons for choosing to telework is the reduced commute to work and lack of traffic, flexplace is likely to be an important element to aid in the reduction of lateness.

Hypothesis 5a: Flexplace will be negatively related to lateness.

Hypothesis 5b: Flextime will be negatively related to lateness.

Hyp1othesis 5c: There will be a stronger negative relationship between flexplace and lateness than flextime and lateness.

Absenteeism

Absenteeism is defined as "lack of physical presence at a behavior setting when and where one is expected to be" (Harrison & Price, 2003). Research suggests that as employee discretionary time increases, absenteeism decreases (Pierce, Newstrom, Dunham, & Barber, 1989). As such, flextime arrangements are suggested to decrease absenteeism because an employee is better able to manage conflicts with their home life if the time that they are able to work is flexible (Baughman, DiNardi, & Holtz-Eakin 2003). Previous findings also support this assertion that flextime work will decrease employee absenteeism (Baltes et al., 1999; Ralston & Flanagan, 1985). Whereas the relationship between flextime and absenteeism appears to be well established, there is

much less research regarding flexplace arrangements and absenteeism. While flexplace may reduce absenteeism because it allows workers to be present without a physical presence at the main worksite, such as by allowing a parent to stay home with a sick child, it is not likely that flexplace has a strong impact on the reduction of absenteeism. Thus, it is expected that flextime is a mechanism of telework that leads to decreased absenteeism.

Hypothesis 6a: Flexplace will be negatively related to absenteeism.

Hypothesis 6b: Flextime will be negatively related to absenteeism.

Hypothesis 6c: There will be a stronger negative relationship between flextime and absenteeism than flexplace and absenteeism.

Turnover Intentions

Research suggests that when employees perceive their organizations as offering flexibility in work arrangements, they are more likely to stay with the employer (Scandura & Lankau, 1997). Previous meta-analytic evidence also supports decreased turnover intentions as a potential benefit of telework (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Kossek et al. (2006) found that employees using a formal teleworking arrangement as well as those with a greater amount of teleworking had decreased turnover intentions. They attributed this decrease to a reciprocity effect in that because the organization is giving the employees flexibility, the employee is more likely to desire to stay with the organization. Golden (2006) also found a decrease in turnover intentions for employees who engaged in telework. Using the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll 1988, 1989), which proposes that individuals strive to maintain resources such as mental

energy, Golden suggested that this lessening in turnover intentions could be due to the physical distance that teleworking creates between the office and the employee. With flexplace, time resources are conserved because an employee does not have to commute to the office and emotional resources are conserved because of the ability to manage interactions and complete work as desired. Additionally, it is suggested that the altered work location facilitates the ability to maintain and manage personal resources. Flextime can also help individuals manage their time resources as individuals can conserve time resources and reallocate them to desired activities by working at the times that are best for the individual employee. Therefore, while both flexplace and flextime should be negatively related to turnover intentions, it is likely that the flexplace aspect of telework will have a greater influence on turnover intentions than flextime.

Hypothesis 7a: Flexplace will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 7b: Flextime will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 7c: There will be a stronger relationship between flexplace and turnover intentions than flextime and turnover intentions.

Mediators of the Telework-Outcome Relationships

In addition to the direct effects of flexplace and flextime on the outcomes of interest, the current study also seeks to examine why these telework variables affect the outcomes. Specifically, autonomy and work-nonwork conflict will be examined as mediators of the previously proposed relationships.

Autonomy

According to Hackman and Oldham (1975) autonomy is "the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out" (p. 162). Apparent in this definition is the concept of flexible time, as an employee allowed a flextime arrangement has control over when work is completed. Autonomy can also refer to discretion in where the work occurs, as is the case with a flexplace arrangement. As such, the increased freedom afforded by flexible work arrangements should increase autonomy (Feldman & Gainey, 1997).

Hackman and Oldham (1975) suggest that autonomy increases employee job satisfaction and work motivation. Additionally, autonomy has been shown to have a positive impact on many outcomes relevant to the work place, such as performance and turnover intentions (Spector, 1986). As such, it is likely that autonomy is a mediator of the relationships between telework and the outcomes examined in the current study. In fact, Gajendran and Harrison (2007) demonstrated that autonomy partially mediated the relationship between telework and both supervisor-rated performance and turnover intentions. They suggest that this occurs because of the control that a teleworking employee has over the location, timing, and way in which work is completed.

It is likely that control over both the place and time at which work occurs can be drivers of the relationship between telework and various outcomes. As such, it can be expected that autonomy will mediate the relationships between both flexplace and flextime and the relevant organizational outcomes.

Hypothesis 8: Autonomy will mediate the relationships between flexplace and (a) task performance, (b) contextual performance, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 9: Autonomy will mediate the relationships between flextime and (a) task performance, (b) contextual performance, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions.

Work-Nonwork Conflict

Another variable that has been suggested and tested as a mediator of various telework-outcome relationships is WFC. While telework research often examines the relationship between telework and WFC (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007), it is likely that individuals without children or family responsibilities can reduce their interrole conflict through the use of telework just as those with children can reduce their WFC. Research has shown that work-nonwork conflict has a stronger relationship with work related outcomes for individuals without a spouse or children at home, whereas WFC has a stronger relationship with work outcomes for individuals who have a spouse and/or children (Huffman, Youngcourt, Payne, & Castro, 2008). Work-nonwork conflict is broader than WFC. In fact, work-nonwork conflict can subsume WFC as family is a part of the non-work domain. Work-family or work-nonwork conflict could be important mediators of the relationships between telework and the outcomes examined in the current study, however because some individuals included in the study may have immediate traditional families (e.g., spouse/partner and children) while others do not,

WFC may not be as salient to all respondents. Therefore, the current study will examine work-nonwork conflict.

Hypothesis 10: Work-nonwork conflict will mediate the relationships between flexplace and (a) task performance, (b) contextual performance, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 11: Work-nonwork conflict will mediate the relationships between flextime and (a) task performance, (b) contextual performance, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions.

Moderators of the Telework-Outcome Relationships

One final purpose of the current study is to examine variables that augment and mitigate the proposed relationships. The perceived value of telework, work ethic, flextime, and preference for segmentation/integration will be examined as possible moderators of the relationships examined in the current study.

Perceived Value of Telework

One of the questions regarding telework that has been left unanswered in previous research is when telework leads to positive outcomes (SHRM, 2010). One construct that is likely to moderate the relationship between telework and each of the outcomes being examined is the perceived value of telework to the employee. Individuals are likely to differ in how much they value telework, or the importance that they place on being able to participate in a telework arrangement. There could be many reasons for these differences between individuals which are likely tied to why employees telework in the first place. For example employees who feel like they work best without interruptions may value

telework because they are able to work without interruptions from coworkers, whereas an employee who enjoys interacting with other employees during the workday at the main worksite may not value the opportunity to telework. The relationship between telework and work outcomes is likely to depend on the employee's perceived value of telework. The theoretical rationale for this is based on social exchange theory. As indicated earlier, social exchange theory suggests that any action on the part of the organization will be rewarded, or reciprocated, by the employee (Blau, 1964). Because social exchange theory requires actions that are valued by the employee, telework will have an even stronger effect on outcomes when it is something that the employee values.

Hypothesis 12: Perceived value of flexplace will moderate the relationship between flexplace and (a) task performance, (b) the contextual performance dimensions of conscientious initiative and organizational support, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions such that the more valuable the employee perceives telework to be, the stronger the relationship between flexplace and each outcome.

Hypothesis 13: Perceived value of flextime will moderate the relationship between flextime and (a) task performance, (b) the contextual performance dimensions of conscientious initiative and organizational support, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions such that the more valuable the employee perceives telework to be, the stronger the relationship between flextime and each outcome.

Work Ethic

Despite its relevance to the workplace and work-related behaviors, work ethic has received little attention in research studies (Miller, Woehr, & Hudspeth, 2002). Work ethic, which has been defined as "a commitment to the value and importance of hard work" (Miller et al., 2002, p. 452) is likely to be especially important for teleworkers. Supervisors are often reluctant to allow employees to telework because this means that the supervisor will not be able to directly observe the employee working and many supervisors do not have experience supervising teleworking employees (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Mello, 2008). Miller et al. (2002) noted that lower levels of work ethic have been suggested to be related to lower job performance (Yandle, 1992) as well as increased turnover and absenteeism (Klebnikov, 1993; Shimko, 1992). As such, teleworking employees will likely need a high level of work ethic in order to perform successfully as well as be at work on time, on their required work days. This is especially important for teleworkers given that there is not another person to check in and ensure that the employee is working as required.

Work ethic is a multidimensional construct (Furnham, 1990). Research supports seven dimensions of the overall work ethic construct (Miller et al. 2002). These dimensions and their definitions are presented in Table 1. Given this multidimensionality, it is likely that there are some dimensions of work ethic that are more relevant to telework than the other dimensions. Specifically, it is expected that the dimensions of centrality of work, hard work, and avoidance of wasted time will be especially important to the effectiveness of employees who telework.

Table 1
Dimensions and Definitions for the Multidimensional Work Ethic Profile (MWEP)

Dimension	Definition
Centrality of Work	Belief in work for work's sake and the importance of work
Self-Reliance	Striving for independence in one's daily work
Hard Work	Belief in the virtues of hard work
Leisure	Proleisure attitudes and beliefs in the importance of non-work activities
Morality/Ethics	Believing in a just and moral existence
Delay of Gratification	Orientation toward the future; the postponement of rewards
Wasted Time	Attitudes and beliefs reflecting active and productive use of time

Note. Adapted from Miller, Woehr, and Hudspeth (2002), p. 464.

Hard work refers to "attitudes toward and beliefs about the value of hard work" (Miller et al., 2002, p. 459). Some of the items in this dimension include "Working hard is the key to being successful" and "By simply working hard enough, one can achieve their goals." The hard work dimension of work ethic has been shown to be related to two types of OCB behaviors: helping and civic virtue, with the hard work dimension being positively related to these two types of OCB. While no studies were identified that examine the relationship between work ethic and contextual performance, because of its similarity to OCB, contextual performance likely displays a similar relationship with work ethic as does OCB. The hard work dimension has not been studied in relation to the other outcomes included in this study; however it can be expected that employees who value hard work will perform better, stay with the organization, and be present at work on time.

Because both flexplace and flextime give employees discretion over their work location and work time, employees may be able to "slack off" or not put in the same amount of effort as would be required if they were in the same location as other employees. As such, it can be expected that hard work will moderate the relationship between both of these variables and the employee performance and withdrawal constructs included in the study. Hard work will likely strengthen the positive relationship between both flexplace and flextime and job and contextual performance and are likely to be especially important for the conscientious initiative dimension of contextual performance.

Hypothesis 14: The hard work dimension of work ethic will moderate the relationship between flexplace and (a) task performance, (b) all three dimensions of contextual performance, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions such that the relationships are stronger when an employee reports a higher level of hard work.

Hypothesis 15: The hard work dimension of work ethic will moderate the relationship between flextime and (a) task performance, (b) all three dimensions of contextual performance, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions such that the relationships are stronger when an employee reports a higher level of hard work.

Centrality of work refers to how important work is in an individual's life. To further clarify this dimension of work ethic, some example items from the MWEP measure include "A hard day's work is fulfilling" and "Life without work would be very

boring." This dimension indicates that a person believes work is important in his/her life and as such will likely be important in increasing the effectiveness of teleworkers. Employees working from home and at times which they choose will likely be more effective if they believe work is important to their life. As such, centrality of work should help to explain when both flexplace and flextime arrangements lead to more positive outcomes.

Hypothesis 16: The centrality of work dimension of work ethic will moderate the relationship between flexplace and (a) task performance, (b) all three dimensions of contextual performance, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions such that the relationships are stronger when an employee reports a higher level of centrality of work

Hypothesis 17: The centrality of work dimension of work ethic will moderate the relationship between flextime and (a) task performance, (b) all three dimensions of contextual performance, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions such that the relationships are stronger when an employee reports a higher level of centrality of work.

A third dimension of work ethic that is likely to be especially relevant to telework arrangements is wasted time. This dimension describes individuals who dislike using time unproductively. Again, to further clarify this dimension, some example items are "It is important to stay busy at work and not waste time" and "I plan my workday so as not to waste time." This dimension of work ethic is likely to be important for teleworkers because it may be particularly easy for teleworkers to waste time while

working, for example by taking a nap, cooking dinner, or watching television, because there are not other individuals around to monitor these behaviors. Employees who dislike wasting time will be more likely to be successful in flexplace and flextime arrangements, where they are working outside of the traditional workplace and possibly work hours.

Hypothesis 18: The wasted time dimension of work ethic will moderate the relationship between flexplace and (a) task performance, (b) all three dimensions of contextual performance, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions such that the relationships are stronger when an employee reports a higher level of (wanting to avoid) wasted time.

Hypothesis 19: The wasted time dimension of work ethic will moderate the relationship between flextime and (a) task performance, (b) all three dimensions of contextual performance, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions such that the relationships are stronger when an employee reports a higher level of (wanting to avoid) wasted time.

Flextime

In addition to its direct effect, it is possible that flextime is also a moderator of the relationships between flexplace and the employee efficiency–related outcomes previously discussed. Because flextime has been shown to be related to relevant outcomes such as productivity and absenteeism (Baltes et al., 1999), it is likely that the flexplace-outcomes relationships are stronger *when* employees are able to choose their working hours in addition to their flexible location. Additionally, having the ability to

work flexible hours within a flexplace arrangement increases the amount of flexibility experienced by the employee (Shockley & Allen, 2007). This exponential increase in flexibility is expected to enhance the outcomes associated with flexplace beyond what a solely flexplace arrangement produces.

Hypothesis 20: Flextime will moderate the relationship between flexplace and both (a) task performance and (b) contextual performance such that the positive relationship is stronger when flextime occurs.

Hypothesis 21: Flextime will moderate the relationship between flexplace and (a) lateness, (b) absenteeism, and (c) turnover intentions such that the negative relationship is stronger when flextime also occurs

Hypothesis 22: Flextime will moderate the relationship between flexplace and presenteeism such that the relationship between flexplace and presenteeism is weakened when flextime also occurs.

Preference for Role Segmentation/Integration

Boundary theory proposes that (a) keeping the work and family domains separate makes managing the work-family boundaries easier, (b) that integration of the work and family domains eases transitions between the two domains, and (c) that either one of these strategies (separation or integration) can improve employee well-being, but this improvement is dependent on individual characteristics of employees or their situations (Desrochers & Sargent, 2004). Here, role segmentation and integration are explained further in addition to describing the individual characteristic preference for role segmentation/integration.

Role Segmentation. When roles are kept separate and boundaries are not crossed, it is unlikely that the roles will contaminate one another (Ashforth et al., 2000). This is indicative of role segmentation. If two roles are completely segmented, each role has its own distinctive characteristics in which everything belongs to only one role (e.g., work or home) and there is no overlap (Nippert-Eng, 1996). In fact, an individual who is a complete segmentor will switch between two different roles, playing one role in the home domain and a different role in the work domain. One benefit of segmentation is that because each role has temporal and physical boundaries in which it occurs and these times and setting do not overlap, there is little blurring between the roles and the transitions that one needs to make to switch between the roles is very clear (Ashforth et al., 2000). As such, there are fewer distractions from a role when someone is involved in a different role, because it is easier to compartmentalize each role individually. Contrarily, because of the separation between roles, role transitions can be much more difficult (Ashforth et al., 2000). With completely segmented roles, switching from one role to another can actually entail crossing multiple boundaries, including temporal and/or physical boundaries (Ashforth et al., 2000; see Figure 1). Boundary crossing can be difficult because it involves psychologically, and often times physically, leaving one role and then entering the other role. As can be seen in Figure 1, completely segmented roles are more distinct, making boundary crossing more difficult. In other words, when two roles are completely segmented, an individual must cross one boundary to leave the domain that they are in and then cross another boundary to enter the other domain.

These completely segmented roles require crossing more boundaries to switch roles, which can cause the transition to be more difficult than if the roles were less segmented.

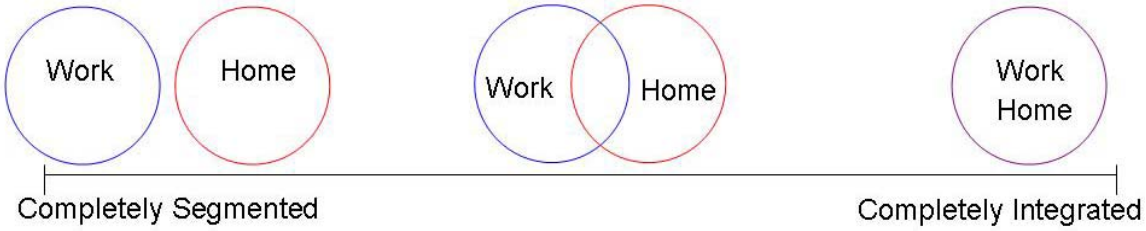

Figure 1. A role segmentation-integration continuum.

Role Integration. Contrary to role segmentation, integrated roles are those that are often not significantly different from each other, are flexible and not tied to specific times or places, and allow interruptions from the other domains (Ashforth et al., 2000). When two roles are fully integrated, there is no distinction between what belongs to one domain and what belongs to another (Nippert-Eng, 1996). With highly integrated roles, it is difficult for people to fully disengage from either role. Therefore, a benefit of role integration is that the small differences between roles simplify the process of crossing boundaries (Ashforth et al., 2000); with completely integrated roles, an individual would not have to cross boundaries to participate in the other domain. These small differences do not necessarily mean that the roles are the same, just that there is overlap between the roles that makes the boundaries blurrier. This can be seen in Figure 1, when looking at the fully integrated end of the spectrum. At this end, the work and home domains occupy exactly the same space, indicating that a transition between domains does not

require the crossing of physical or temporal boundaries. A negative aspect of integrated roles is that there is much more role blurring than with segmented roles (Ashforth et al., 2000). This is problematic because role blurring can cause difficulty in managing the demands of each role, often resulting in conflict (Clark, 2000).

Preference for Role Segmentation or Integration. The fit between the individual's personal preferences and the boundaries that are in place and acceptable can affect whether separation or integration is better for an employee (Desrochers & Sargent, 2004). Individuals, with different characteristics and in varying situations, may prefer a level of segmentation or integration that varies from another person. The amount of segmentation or integration that is best for each person will be different. In fact, individuals often have their own way of managing the relationship between their job and their home life (Kossek & Lautsch, 2007). Segmentors tend to keep work and nonwork separate and compartmentalized during the day. Integrators, on the other hand, prefer integration of their domains and will tend to blend work and nonwork activities throughout the day (Kossek & Lautsch, 2007).

Nippert-Eng (1996) suggests that preferences for role segmentation or integration can extend to things in everyday life, such as calendars and keys. The number or type of calendars that one keeps can be an indication of how much s/he chooses to segment or integrate the work and home domains. The more that people segment, the more calendars they will have. For example, someone with highly segmented work and nonwork domains will likely have two separate calendars: one for activities at work and one for activities outside of work. This segmentation will also mean that blocks of time

in the calendar are dedicated to one domain or the other, but cannot be available to both (Nippert-Eng, 1996). The same is true for keys. A segmentor may have one key ring for home and one for work, while an integrator is more likely to have one key ring that combines keys for home and work (Nippert-Eng, 1996). This segmentation or integration may also be seen in how an individual chooses to manage his/her email accounts. For example, a segmentor would likely choose to have two separate email accounts, one for work emails and one for personal correspondence. Conversely, an integrator, may prefer to have only one email account to use for both work and personal purposes.

Research has suggested that individuals do in fact have varying preferences for role segmentation or integration of their home and work domains. Just like segmentation and integration, an individual's preference for segmentation/integration lies on a continuum (Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). Both segmentation and integration can be feasible ways to manage both work and nonwork demands (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Lambert, 2000). There is no optimal level of preference for segmentation/integration as both strategies can have tradeoffs (Kossek & Lautsch, 2007).

Additionally, the fit between an individual's preference for segmentation or integration and the segmentation/integration policies offered by the organization is important in that this level of fit can affect outcomes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Rothbard et al. (2005) found that when employees who preferred segmentation were able to use integrating polices such as onsite childcare, they were less

satisfied and committed. On the other hand, when employees preferring segmentation were able to use segmenting policies, they were more committed to the organization. This suggests that preference for segmentation or integration can help to determine what type of arrangement will be best for each individual, and while segmentation may lead to the best outcomes for some individuals, integration will be better for others.

Research has shown that neither segmentation nor integration is a better option for managing two domains (Kreiner, 2006). Instead the interaction between individual preferences and what an organization will allow in terms of segmenting or integrating is what matters. For example, a match between actual segmentation and preference for segmentation has been associated with higher levels of well-being (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999) and greater job satisfaction and lower levels of stress (Kreiner, 2002). Because a flexplace arrangement is inherently integrated due to work occurring in the nonwork domain, an individual's preference for segmentation/integration will be especially important. Correspondingly, an individual's preference for role integration is expected to enhance the relationship between telework and various outcomes.

> *Hypothesis 23:* Preference for role segmentation/integration will moderate the relationship between flexplace and (a) task performance, (b) contextual performance, (c) presenteeism, (d) lateness, (e) absenteeism, and (f) turnover intentions such that the relationships are enhanced when an individual prefers integration.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants

Participants in this study came from two separate samples: a snowball sample and an organizational sample, which included employees of a large defense contractor. A snowball sample is one in which the sample is identified, not through a specific organization or group, but rather by sending an invitation to participate in the study to potential participants and asking them to forward the invitation on to additional individuals. The sample is then expected to grow as people continue to pass the survey invitation on to others. Because of this sampling design, participants in the snowball sample come from a variety of organizations.

The snowball sample consisted of 67 participants. In this sample, 68.3% of respondents were male and the most frequently reported ethnicity was Caucasian (80.6%), followed by Hispanic (4.5%). Approximately 15% of the snowball sample did not provide their race. Ages of participants in the snowball sample ranged from 23 to 68 years of age, with a mean of 41.9 years (SD = 8.91). With regard to marital status, 20.9% of the snowball sample was single, and 65.7% were married or in a committed relationship. On average, snowball sample participants had 1.45 children (SD = 1.33), with 67.9% of the sample reporting at least one child. Snowball respondents reported an average tenure with their organization of 7.13 years (SD = 4.41), with tenure ranging from a minimum of 4 months to a maximum of 19 years.

Participants in the organizational sample came from a large defense contractor, and were spread across multiple states. The Human Resources contact in this organization indicated that some supervisors allow more discretion than others in terms of when and where work is completed. Additionally, some of the participants in the study had an approved telework plan on file with the organization. The organizational sample included 979 participants of which 61.9% were male. The most frequently reported ethnicity was Caucasian (73.4%), followed by Hispanic (7.3%), African-American (5.6%), Asian (4.6%), and two or more races (2.3%). Ages of participants in the organizational sample ranged from a minimum of 21 years of age to a maximum of 64 years of age (M = 30.95, SD = 6.032). Approximately 32% of the organizational sample was single and almost two thirds (67.3%) of the sample was married or in a committed relationship. With regard to children, 46.9% of the sample had one or more children (M = 0.84, SD = 1.08). The average tenure of employees in the organizational sample was 6.30 years (SD = 4.55), with a minimum of 1.5 months and a maximum of 33 years.

Procedure

For the snowball sample, teleworkers or individuals who might know or work with teleworkers were identified through personal contacts and sent an email requesting participation in the survey with a link to the online survey. The email invitation that was sent out for the snowball sample is provided in Appendix A. The individuals who received the recruitment email for the snowball sample were also asked to pass the participation request along to others that they know, trying to create a "snowball effect,"

or an increase in the number of individuals seeing the request as anyone who received the survey participation request was asked to pass it on. To encourage people to participate in the survey, individuals who completed the survey were given the chance to win one of five $50 gift cards. After completing the survey, participants were asked to provide contact information for their supervisor so that ratings on the performance measures could be gathered. However, only 55.2% of the snowball sample respondents provided their supervisor's contact information. Each of the identified supervisors was contacted with a request to complete a survey about their employee. If supervisors did not complete the survey about their subordinate, they were sent a reminder email about the survey request.

For the organizational sample, employees received an email from the Vice President of Human Resources informing them of the study and indicating that they would be receiving an email requesting their participation in the study. Employees received a personalized email through Survey Monkey (a web-based survey host) from the researcher with a link to the online survey. The text for both of these messages, the message sent to employees from HR and the survey recruitment email, is provided in Appendix B. The organizational contact provided a subset of the entire sample consisting of approximately 200 employees for which supervisor surveys could be selected. When these employees completed the survey, an email request was sent to their supervisor through Survey Monkey to complete the supervisor survey.

Whether in the snowball sample or the organizational sample, all survey completion followed the same procedure. Survey participants all completed the survey

using a web-based survey programmed in Survey Monkey. Participants completed the flexibility items, followed by the items about the mediating variables, the moderating variables, and finally demographic variables. Prior to answering the demographic questions, participants in the organizational sample received additional questions that were requested by the organization for inclusion on the survey.

Supervisors who completed the survey about their employees also used a web-based survey. They were asked to respond to the task performance and contextual performance of the identified employee. Additionally, for the organizational sample, organizational records that included employee demographics, performance ratings, and hours worked and absent were provided. Organizational information was linked to employee surveys by employee ID number.

Measures

This section describes the measures that were included in the current study. A complete list of the items included in the survey is provided in Appendix C.

Flexibility Measures

Actual Flexplace. Actual flexplace was measured using Kossek et al.'s (2006) measure of telework volume. Respondents were first provided with a definition of telework which explained that, for the purposes of this study, telework was defined as working from somewhere other than the traditional office during normal business hours. As such, this definition does not include time spent working at home in the evenings to finish needed work. Respondents were then asked to indicate how many traditional hours per week (e.g., out of the 9/80 or 40 hours per week) they telework.

Actual Flextime. Actual flextime was measured with four items adapted from Shockley and Allen (2010). Example items included "I usually work outside of 'traditional' work hours" and "My work schedule varies from day to day." The coefficient alpha for flextime use was .78

Perceptions of Flexplace and Flextime Availability. Employee perceptions of the availability of flexplace and flextime arrangements (i.e., perceived flexplace and perceived flextime) were assessed using four items from Hyland (2000). An example item for perceived flexplace was "I have the freedom to work wherever is best for me – either at home or at work" while an example item for perceived flextime was "I have the freedom to vary my work schedule." Responses were be made on a five point scale, ranging from *Entirely not True* to *Entirely True*. The coefficient alpha was .82 for perceived flexplace and .88 for perceived flextime.

Outcome Measures

Presenteeism. Cascio (2007) suggests that because presenteeism is not always evident, it should be measured using self-report data. As such, respondents were asked to self-report presenteeism. Like absenteeism, open-ended, fill-in-the-blank questions are recommended for measuring the act of presenteeism (Johns, 2010). Therefore, presenteeism was measured using two items adapted from Hansen and Anderson (2008). These items were "How many days during the last six months have you gone into the office to work even though it would have been reasonable to take sick leave?" and "How many days during the last six months have you teleworked even though it would have been reasonable to take sick leave?" Total presenteeism was the sum of these two items.

Survey respondents reported an average of 5.62 days (*SD* = 16.28) of presenteeism during the past six months.

Lateness. According to Blau (2002), self-reports of employee lateness may be necessary. When collecting lateness data, Blau suggests following the same guidelines as suggested by Johns (1994) with regard to absenteeism. This means that self-report measures of lateness will likely benefit from having a manageable time frame as well as an open-response format. Lateness frequency was assessed by asking survey respondents "How many times were you late for work during the past six months?" (Somers, 2009). The average number of times that survey respondents were late to work in the past six months was 5.73 times (*SD* = 14.65).

Absenteeism. Johns (1994) advises that open-ended, fill-in-the-blank questions should be used when measuring absenteeism. He suggests that providing response options may influence respondents because the range provided for responses implies a frequency of the behavior that might be considered normal, even if this connotation is not correct (Johns, 2010). Consequently, an open-ended response format was used to ask respondents about their absenteeism. Specifically, the item read "In the past six months, how many days have you been absent from work?" This type of item has been used frequently in the literature to measure absenteeism (e.g., Bowling & Burns, 2010; Howard & Cordes, 2010; Somers, 2009). Survey respondents reported an average of 2.82 days of absence (*SD* = 5.09) over the past six months.

For the organizational sample, records of employee time cards were provided for employees who completed the survey. These time cards provided the number of hours

charged each week toward “absence time,” which includes time that employees take off from work when they are sick or for personal reasons. The time records were gathered from the launch of the survey and for the previous six months; as such, self-reports of absenteeism by the organization’s employees should be from a similar time frame as the organizational records’ indications of absence.

Turnover Intentions. Turnover intentions (TOI) were measured using three items adapted from Hom, Griffith, and Sellaro (1984) by Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, and Erez (2001). The three items are “I intend to leave my organization in the next 12 months" with response options ranging from *Strongly Disagree* to *Strongly Agree* "How strongly do you feel about leaving the organization within the next 12 months?” with response options ranging from *Not at all Strongly* to *Extremely Strongly,* and "How likely is it that you will leave the organization in the next 12 months?" with response options ranging from *Very Unlikely* to *Very Likely.* All responses were on a five-point scale. The coefficient alpha for these items was .88.

Mediator Measures

Perceived Value of Telework. The perceived value of telework was assessed by asking respondents “How valuable is a telework arrangement to you?” “How valuable is a flextime arrangement to you?” and “How valuable is a flexplace arrangement to you?” (Haar & Spell, 2004; Muse, Harris, Giles, & Field, 2008). The responses options for these items were on a 5-point scale, with responses ranging from *Not Valuable at All* to *Very Valuable*.

Preference for Role Segmentation. Individuals' personal preference for role segmentation was measured using nine items adapted from Kossek et al. (2006). These items ask about individuals' boundary management strategies, which are a measure of individual preferences for segmentation or integration. Respondents are first given the following prompt "With the increasing demands of work and home, employees may work in different ways to handle these demands" (Kossek et al., 2006, p. 357). They are then asked to respond to the nine items using an agreement scale, with item responses ranging from *Strongly Agree* (1) to *Strongly Disagree* (5). Examples of these items include "I only take care of personal needs at work when I am 'on break' or during my lunch hour" and "Throughout the work day, I deal with personal and work issues as they occur". Participants were also asked three questions about their boundary management behaviors. Coefficient alpha for these items was .75.

Moderator Measures

Work Ethic. Work Ethic was measured using 28 items from Miller et al.'s (2002) Multidimensional Work Ethic Profile (MWEP). These items come from the hard work, centrality of work, and wasted time dimensions of work ethic. Sample items for each of these dimensions include "Working hard is the key to being successful" for hard work, "I feel uneasy when there is little work for me to do" (reverse-coded) for centrality of work, and "It is important to stay busy at work and not waste time" for the wasted time factor. The coefficient alpha for hard work range was .89, .96 for centrality of work, and .81 for wasted time. Whereas these dimensions do not comprise the entire MWEP, the instrument's authors note that dimensions can be used separate from each other (Miller

et al., 2002). As such, only the items for the dimensions predicted to moderate the flexibility-outcome relationships were included in the survey.

Autonomy. Autonomy was assessed using three items developed by Langfred (2000). Example items include "How much control do you have over the pace of your work" and "How much authority do you have in determining tasks to be performed?" Each item is rated on a scale of 1 (*very little*) to 5 (*very much*). This measure has been found to be reliable in previous research (α = .90 and .71, Langfred, 2000; α = .78, Golden, Viega, & Simsek, 2006), however the coefficient alpha in the current study was only .68.

Work-Nonwork Conflict. Work-nonwork conflict was measured using seven items from O'Driscoll, Ilgen, and Hildreth (1992). The coefficient alpha for this measure was .87. Example items to measure work-nonwork conflict included "Worry or concern over my work interferes with my non-work activities and interests" and "My job prevents me from participating in many activities outside of work." Additionally, for completeness seven items were included to measure nonwork-work conflict; however these items were not used in the analyses for the current study.

Supervisor-Reported Measures

Task Performance. Supervisors were asked to rate their subordinate's task performance. Task performance was measured using the in-role performance measure developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). This task performance scale includes seven items; example items are "Adequately completes assigned duties" and "Fulfills

responsibilities specified in job description." In the overall sample, the coefficient alpha for this measure was .91.

Contextual Performance. Supervisors were also be asked to rate the contextual performance of their employees. Contextual performance was measured with 27 items identified by Coleman and Borman (2000). These items comprise the three dimensions of contextual performance: conscientious initiative, organizational support behaviors, and personal support. Example items for conscientious initiative, organizational support behaviors, and personal support include "This employee persists with enthusiasm on the job," "This employee maintains a positive attitude about the organization," and "This employee helps other organization members," respectively. The coefficient alpha was .92 for conscientious initiative, .95 for organizational support behaviors, and .94 for personal support.

Demographic Information

Various demographic variables were collected from participants. This information included sex, age, ethnicity, marital status, number of children, organizational tenure, job title, and telework experience. Any of the demographic variables that were significantly related to the dependent variables were treated as control variables in the study analyses (Becker, 2005).

Study Analyses

Each of the relationships proposed and tested in the current study are presented in Figure 2. The data analysis strategies used to test these relationships are presented in the following text. All hypotheses were tested for both actual and perceived flexibility.

Hypotheses 1 – 7, which proposed direct relationships between flexplace and flextime and the outcomes of task performance, contextual performance, presenteeism, lateness, absenteeism, and turnover intentions were tested using regression analyses, including significant control variables. As such, the control variables varied by the analyses being conducted. To test these hypotheses, flexplace and flextime were tested as predictors of each of the outcome variables.

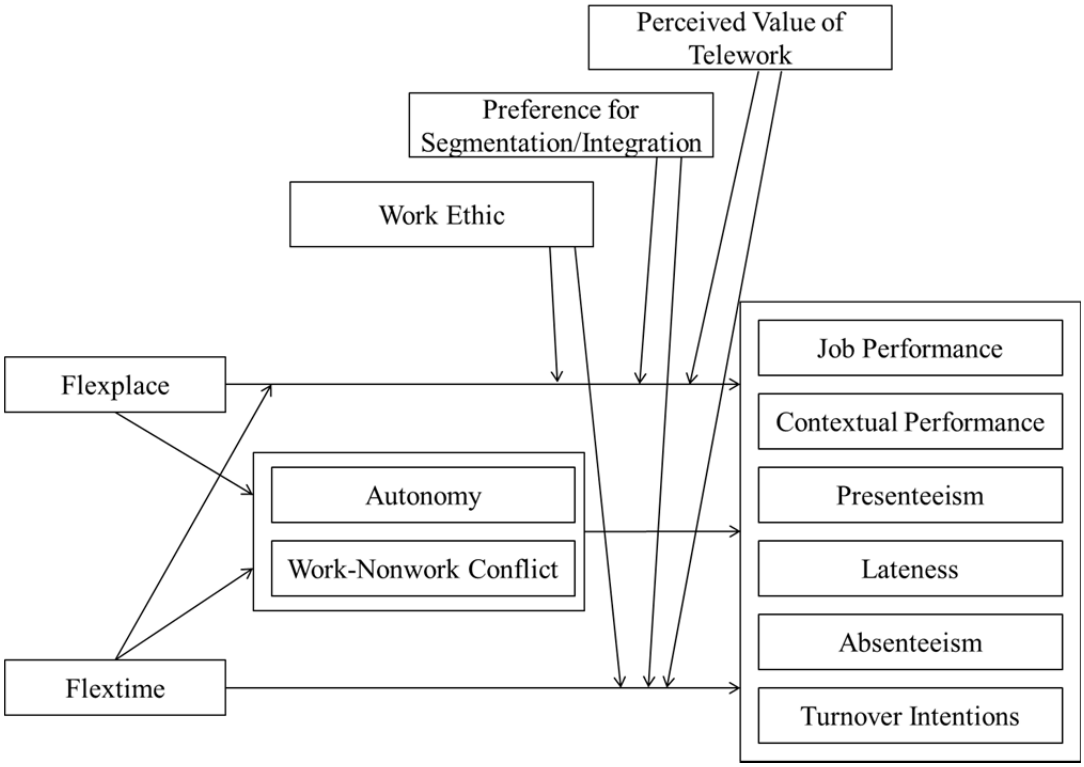

Figure 2. Model depicting relationships predicted in the current study.

Both Hypotheses 8 and 9, which proposed autonomy as a mediator of the flexplace/flextime-outcome relationships and Hypotheses 10 and 11, which proposed

work-nonwork conflict as a mediator of these same relationships were tested using mediation analyses. The procedure recommended by Preacher and Hayes (2004) was used to determine if the indirect effects were significant. Technically, a mediated effect is a "special case" of an indirect effect; when saying that a mediation effect is present it is implied that the direct effect between the independent variable (X) and the dependent variable (Y) is significant (Preacher & Hayes, 2004, p. 719). The Preacher and Hayes method is used in this study because they suggest that it is a more powerful way to test mediation than the traditionally used Baron and Kenny (1986) method, which only requires that there be a direct effect between X and Y (although this effect does not have to be significant) and that the indirect relationship through the mediator be statistically significant. To conduct analyses for the mediation hypotheses, the Preacher and Hayes' bootstrapping procedure was used to estimate the indirect effect and construct a 95% confidence interval around the indirect effect; if zero is not included in the confidence interval there is evidence for mediation (Preacher & Hayes, 2004).

The hypotheses that proposed moderators of the flexplace/flextime-outcome relationships, Hypotheses 12 – 23, were tested using moderated regression analyses. For these analyses, the predictor variables were centered before conducting the regressions (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). These hypotheses are supported if the interaction term between the independent variable (flexplace or flextime) and the moderator variable (perceived value of telework, work ethic, flextime, or preference for segmentation) accounts for a significant amount of variance in the outcome variable.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Initial analyses were conducted to screen for univariate and multivariate outliers and to examine measures of central tendency, variability, and distribution shape (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007). Based on these analyses, there were was no evidence for concern regarding the data. Table 2 provides descriptive statistics, correlations, and coefficient alphas for the overall sample. Descriptive statistics, correlations, and coefficient alphas for the organizational sample are provided in Table 3. The same information for the snowball sample is provided in Table 4.

Prior to combining the data from the two samples, independent samples t-tests were conducted to determine if there were any significant differences on any of the variables examined between the two samples. T-tests revealed differences between the samples for two demographic variables: age ($t_{(58)}$ = -9.05, $p < .01$) and number of children ($t_{(59)}$ = - 3.33, $p < .01$). Participants in the snowball sample were older (M = 41.88, SD = 8.90) and had more children (M = 1.44, SD = 1.33) than participants in the organizational sample (M = 30.95, SD = 6.03; M = 0.84, SD = 1.08, respectively). The samples also differed significantly on length of time teleworking ($t_{(89)}$ = -4.675, $p < .01$), with the snowball sample participants reporting on average more experience with telework (M = 7.45 years, SD = 6.54) than the organizational sample participants (M = 2.56 years, SD = 3.66).

With regard to the dependent variables in this study, there was a significant difference between the samples for lateness ($t_{(91)} = 2.99$, $p < .01$), with the organizational sample reporting, on average, a greater number of days late to work in the past six months ($M = 5.96$, $SD = 14.96$) than the snowball sample ($M = 2.40$, $SD = 4.70$). Participants in the snowball sample also reported greater flexibility in terms of both flexplace ($M = 31.98$ hours per week, $SD = 14.48$; $t_{(91)} = -3.68$, $p < .01$) and flextime ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 0.91$; $t_{(75)} = -2.983$, $p < .01$) arrangements, than the organizational sample ($M = 19.05$ hours per week, $SD = 17.84$; $M = 2.81$, $SD = 0.92$, respectively).

When examining the descriptive statistics for the overall sample, one anomaly that should be noted is the low number of respondents for the actual flexplace item; only employees who indicated that they had a formal or informal telework arrangement responded to this survey item which indicated how frequently they telework (i.e., number of hours in a normal week). As such, only 94 participants in the overall sample (with 28 of those in the organizational sample) responded to this item. Therefore, the sample size for analyses looking at actual flextime is much smaller than for other analyses in the study. Additionally, supervisor ratings of performance and contextual performance were quite high. The mean level of supervisor performance ratings was above 4.5 on a 5-point scale, and the mean of each of the contextual performance items fell between 4.15 and 4.35 on a 5-point scale. Of further note, most of the moderator variables, with the exception of the value of flexplace, have standard deviations of less than 1.00, indicating a low level of variability on these constructs. Finally, the reliability of autonomy is lower than desired ($\alpha = .68$).

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities and Correlations for Study Variables - Combined Samples

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Sex [a]	1.62	0.48	--												
2. Age	31.57	6.73	.03	--											
3. Ethnicity	1.51	1.21	-.08*	-.07*	--										
4. Marital Status [b]	1.68	0.47	.01	.25**	-.03	--									
5. # of Children	0.88	1.11	.05	.47**	-.05	.43**	--								
6. Org. Tenure [c]	6.35	4.54	.02	.68**	-.06	.22**	.36**	--							
7. Telework Exp. [d]	5.92	6.21	-.07	.42**	-.27*	.04	.15	.22*	--						
8. Actual FP [e]	28.09	16.57	-.02	.43**	-.07	.25*	.37**	.05	.14	--					
9. Actual FT	2.83	0.93	.12**	.14**	-.01	.05	.11**	.10**	.31**	-.01	(.78)				
10. Perceived FP	2.97	1.08	.18**	.07*	-.04	.00	.05	.03	.08	.01	.17**	(.82)			
11. Perceived FT	1.57	0.89	.09**	.29**	-.06	.05	.14**	.08*	.09	.15	.13**	.34**	(.88)		
12. Presenteeism [f]	5.62	16.28	-.06	.09**	.10**	-.02	.02	.04	.04	.17	.03	-.03	.03	--	
13. Lateness [f]	5.73	14.65	.00	.01	.04	-.04	.01	.08*	.04	-.20	.03	-.03	-.07*	.00	--
14. SR Absence [f]	2.82	5.09	-.10**	.03	.01	.06	.10**	.05	.04	-.13	.02	.02	.05	.05	.09*
15. OR Absence [f]	4.37	7.61	-.18**	.11*	-.01	.08	.21**	.11*	-.35	.27	-.04	-.05	.05	-.02	.00
16. TOI	1.89	0.96	-.04	-.03	.04	-.04	-.06	.01	-.03	-.04	.13**	-.10**	-.04	.02	.09**
17. Value of FP	3.74	1.03	-.08*	.11**	.08*	.02	.08*	.07*	.18	.30**	.13**	-.03	.03	.04	.06
18. Value of FT	4.21	0.78	.01	.01	.04	.01	.12**	.06	-.05	.08	.21**	.14**	-.04	.04	.12**

Table 2
Continued

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
19. Pref. for Seg.	3.42	0.58	.01	-.01	.07*	-.11**	-.12**	-.03	.09	-.08	-.04	-.16**	-.17**	.03	-.07*
20. WE: Hard Work	3.64	0.65	-.10**	-.08*	-.00	.02	.00	-.05	.00	-.01	.01	-.14**	-.06	.02	-.00
21. WE: Centrality	3.78	0.58	-.05	.00	.02	.07*	.10**	-.01	-.07	-.06	.11**	-.01	.00	.06	.02
22. WE: Wasted Time [g]	3.93	0.52	-.04	.04	.01	.10**	.10**	.06	.09	.32**	.04	-.13**	-.09**	.04	-.05
23. Autonomy	3.10	0.86	-.00	.23**	.01	.13**	.19**	.19**	.10	.09	.04	.10**	.20**	.10**	.03
24. W/NW Conflict	2.91	0.81	.05	.08*	-.01	.06	.05	.12**	.18	-.05	.31**	-.14**	-.07*	.01	.05
25. Sup. Reported Perf. [h]	4.61	0.48	-.010	-.18	-.06	-.04	-.02	-.01	.14	-.24	-.04	.15	-.02	-.37**	.06
26. OR Perf [i]	2.76	0.81	-.00	-.02	-.07*	.11**	.06	.05	.06	-.01	.08*	-.04	-.02	-.01	.02
27. CP: Consc. Initiative	4.35	0.61	-.12	-.25**	-.15	-.03	.01	-.05	.09	-.31	.02	.01	-.05	-.44**	-.09
28. CP: Org. Support Beh.	4.26	0.61	-.17	-.19*	-.03	-.10	.02	.01	.12	-.19	-.11	-.02	-.10	-.43**	-.06
29. CP: Personal Support	4.19	0.65	-.18	-.26*	-.10	-.11	-.02	-.06	.06	-.24	-.05	.02	-.09	-.47**	.03

Table 2
Continued

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
1. Sex [a]															
2. Age															
3. Ethnicity															
4. Marital Status [b]															
5. # of Children															
6. Org. Tenure [c]															
7. Telework Exp. [d]															
8. Actual FP [e]															
9. Actual FT															
10. Perceived FP															
11. Perceived FT															
12. Presenteeism [f]															
13. Lateness [f]															
14. SR Absence [f]	--														
15. OR Absence [f]	.19**	--													
16. TOI	.05	.10*	(.88)												
17. Value of FP	.08*	.13**	.12**	--											
18. Value of FT	.05	.10*	.09**	.34**	--										

Table 2
Continued

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
19. Pref. for Seg.	-.10**	-.12*	.02	-.10**	-.04	(.75)										
20. WE: Hard Work	-.02	.06	-.08*	.06*	.08*	.10**	(.89)									
21. WE: Centrality	.01	.01	-.07*	.11**	.09**	.14**	.40**	(.86)								
22. WE: Wasted Time [g]	-.00	.06	.03	.21**	.14**	.25**	.45**	.40**	(.81)							
23. Autonomy	.05	.07	-.12**	.06	.074	-.05	.09**	.15**	.12**	(.68)						
24. W/NW Conflict	.06	.06	.20**	.21**	.13**	.02	-.05	.01	.12**	-.04	(.87)					
25. Sup. Reported Perf. [h]	-.13	.02	-.14	-.03	.02	-.20*	-.08	-.13	-.11	.16	.14	(.91)				
26. OR Perf [i]	-.04	-.01	-.12**	.02	-.01	.07*	.09*	.07*	.13**	.13**	.11**	.44**	--			
27. CP: Consc. Initiative	-.16	.08	-.16	-.05	.03	-.12	.03	.00	.01	.09	.13	.75**	.48**	(.92)		
28. CP: Org. Support Beh.	-.17	.04	-.14	-.10	.02	-.04	-.01	-.07	-.03	.11	.20*	.80**	.44**	.87**	(.95)	
29. CP: Personal Support	-.11	.07	-.15	-.02	.07	-.12	-.02	-.10	-.04	.14	.18	.73**	.44**	.86**	.87**	(.94)

Note. N = 882-1023 for self-reported variables; N = 113 for supervisor-reported variables. Coefficient alphas reported on the diagonal. *$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, two-tailed test. [a] Female = 1, Male = 2; [b] Single = 1, Married/committed relationship = 2; [c] Organizational tenure, in years; [d] Telework experience, in years; [e] $n = 93$, metric = hours/week; [f] Timeframe = past six months; [g] (Wanting to Avoid) Wasted Time; [h] Supervisor-reported task performance; [i] Company records task performance rating, Range = 1-4 (Organizational sample only). Org. = Organizational; Telework Exp. = Experience with Telework; FP = Flexplace; FT = Flextime; SR = Self-reported; OR = Organizational Records; Pref. for Seg. = Preference for Segmentation; WE = Work Ethic; W/NW Conflict = Work/non-work conflict; CP = Contextual Performance (Supervisor-rated); Consc. Initiative = Conscientious Initiative; Org Support Beh. = Organizational Support Behaviors; Personal Support = Contextual Performance Personal Support.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities and Correlations for Study Variables - Organizational Sample

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Sex [a]	1.62	0.49	--												
2. Age	30.95	6.03	.04	--											
3. Ethnicity	1.53	1.23	-.07*	-.05	--										
4. Marital Status [b]	1.67	0.47	.02	.25**	-.03	--									
5. # of Children	0.84	1.08	.07*	.46**	-.03	.43**	--								
6. Org. Tenure [c]	6.30	4.55	.02	.75**	-.05	.23**	.37**	--							
7. Telework Exp. [d]	2.56	3.66	-.09	.48**	-.22	.19	.16	.44*	--						
8. Actual FP [e]	19.05	17.84	-.04	.51**	.14	.23	.53**	.27	.11	--					
9. Actual FT	2.81	0.92	.11**	.13**	.01	.06	.11**	.10**	.07	-.01	(.78)				
10. Perceived FP	2.91	1.06	.18**	.02	-.03	-.01	.03	.04	-.32	-.10	.15**	(.81)			
11. Perceived FT	1.44	0.71	.09**	.15**	-.01	.03	.09**	.10**	-.19	.04	.10**	.24**	(.83)		
12. Presenteeism [f]	5.64	16.30	-.07*	.08*	.10**	-.01	.02	.04	.36	.50*	.02	-.02	.06	--	
13. Lateness [f]	5.96	14.96	.00	.03	.04	-.03	.03	.08*	-.07	-.26	.03	-.01	-.04	.00	--
14. SR Absence [f]	2.84	5.11	-.12**	.06	.02	.07*	.12**	.05	-.23	.22	.02	.02	.07*	.06	.07*
15. OR Absence [f]	4.38	7.63	-.18**	.11*	-.01	.08	.21**	.11*	-.35	.28	-.04	-.05	.05	-.02	.00
16. TOI	1.90	0.96	-.04	-.01	.04	-.04	-.04	.02	-.05	.38	.12**	-.11**	-.05	.02	.10**
17. Value of FP	3.72	1.03	-.09**	.07	.09**	.01	.06	.07	-.01	.13	.13**	-.06	-.05	.04	.07*
18. Value of FT	4.22	0.77	-.00	.05	.03	.01	.13**	.07*	.03	.01	.22**	.14**	-.04	.05	.13**

Table 3
Continued

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
19. Pref. for Seg.	3.46	0.57	.01	.05	.06	-.11**	-.08*	-.039	.61**	.12	-.03	-.11**	-.03	.03	-.09**
20. WE: Hard Work	3.65	0.66	-.10**	.07	-.01	.01	.00	-.049	-.04	-.43*	.00	-.14**	-.03	.01	.00
21. WE: Centrality	3.79	0.57	-.05	.03	.02	.07*	.11**	-.003	.06	-.22	.11**	-.00	.02	.06	.03
22. WE: Wasted Time [g]	3.93	0.52	-.05	.06	.01	.10**	.09**	.059	.29	.18	.04	-.12**	-.09**	.04	-.04
23. Autonomy	3.07	0.85	-.01	.21**	.03	.13**	.18**	.211**	.36	.06	.02	.05	.12**	.10**	.05
24. W/NW Conflict	2.92	0.80	.04	.09**	-.01	.08*	.07	.108**	-.10	.12	.32**	-.13**	-.05	.01	.05
25. Sup. Reported Perf. [h]	4.61	0.49	-.09	-.22*	-.05	-.05	-.07	-.017	.23	-.36	-.06	.10	-.13	-.38**	.04
26. OR Perf [i]	2.76	0.81	-.00	-.02	-.07*	.11**	.06	.047	.06	-.01	.08*	-.04	-.02	-.01	.02
27. CP: Consc. Initiative	4.33	0.63	-.16	-.31**	-.14	-.03	-.03	-.040	-.04	-.39	-.02	-.06	-.18	-.45**	-.12
28. CP: Org. Support Beh.	4.26	0.62	-.17	-.26*	-.03	-.11	-.01	-.009	.04	-.15	-.14	-.06	-.18	-.46**	-.12
29. CP: Personal Support	4.19	0.65	-.16	-.29**	-.10	-.08	-.06	-.072	-.06	-.08	-.07	-.04	-.20	-.51**	-.03

Table 3
Continued

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
1. Sex [a]															
2. Age															
3. Ethnicity															
4. Marital Status [b]															
5. # of Children															
6. Org. Tenure [c]															
7. Telework Exp. [d]															
8. Actual FP [e]															
9. Actual FT															
10. Perceived FP															
11. Perceived FT															
12. Presenteeism [f]															
13. Lateness [f]															
14. SR Absence [f]	--														
15. OR Absence [f]	.19**	--													
16. TOI	.05	.10*	(.88)												
17. Value of FP	.08*	.12**	.14**	--											
18. Value of FT	.06	.10*	.12**	.35**	--										

Table 3
Continued

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
19. Pref. for Seg.	-.10**	-.12*	.01	-.09**	-.04	(.74)										
20. WE: Hard Work	-.02	.06	-.09**	.06	.08*	.10**	(.89)									
21. WE: Centrality	.00	.01	-.07*	.11**	.11**	.15**	.41**	(.86)								
22. WE: Wasted Time [g]	.00	.06	.03	.20**	.14**	.26**	.44**	.41**	(.82)							
23. Autonomy	.07*	.07	-.12**	.04	.07*	-.00	.09**	.17**	.13**	(.66)						
24. W/NW Conflict	.06	.06	.21**	.22**	.14**	.02	-.05	.01	.12**	-.02	(.87)					
25. Sup. Reported Perf. [h]	-.17	.02	-.11	-.06	-.06	-.18	-.06	-.11	-.05	.09	.19	(.91)				
26. OR Perf [i]	-.04	-.01	-.12**	.02	-.01	.07*	.09*	.07*	.13**	.13**	.11**	.44**	--			
27. CP: Consc. Initiative	-.20	.08	-.14	-.09	-.01	-.09	.01	.00	.07	.00	.14	.75**	.48**	(.93)		
28. CP: Org. Support Beh.	-.20	.04	-.15	-.11	-.02	-.05	-.00	-.06	.03	.04	.24*	.82**	.44**	.88**	(.95)	
29. CP: Personal Support	-.18	.07	-.14	-.06	-.03	-.08	-.01	-.06	.05	.04	.25*	.73**	.44**	.89**	.88**	(.94)

Note. N = 833-920 for self-reported variables; N = 98 for supervisor-reported variables. Coefficient alphas reported on the diagonal. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, two-tailed test. [a] Female = 1, Male = 2; [b] Single = 1, Married/committed relationship = 2; [c] Organizational tenure, in years; [d] Telework experience, in years; [e] $n = 28$, metric = hours/week; [f] Timeframe = past six months; [g] (Wanting to Avoid) Wasted Time; [h] Supervisor-reported task performance; [i] Company records task performance rating, Range = 1-4 (Organizational sample only). Org. = Organizational; Telework Exp. = Experience with Telework; FP = Flexplace; FT = Flextime; SR = Self-reported; OR = Organizational Records; Pref. for Seg. = Preference for Segmentation; WE = Work Ethic; W/NW Conflict = Work/non-work conflict; CP = Contextual Performance (Supervisor-rated); Consc. Initiative = Conscientious Initiative; Org Support Beh. = Organizational Support Behaviors; Personal Support = Contextual Performance Personal Support.

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities and Correlations for Study Variables - Snowball Sample

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Sex [a]	1.68	0.47	--												
2. Age	41.88	8.91	-.17	--											
3. Ethnicity	1.11	0.45	-.17	.13	--										
4. Marital Status [b]	1.76	0.43	-.31*	.23	.14	--									
5. # of Children	1.45	1.33	-.24	.47**	-.08	.47**	--								
6. Org. Tenure [c]	7.13	4.41	-.02	.35**	-.23	.09	.20	--							
7. Telework Exp. [d]	7.45	6.54	-.08	.33*	-.21	-.03	.11	.35**	--						
8. Actual FP [e]	31.98	14.48	-.03	.26	.01	.28*	.29*	.01	.01	--					
9. Actual FT	3.15	0.91	.14	-.04	-.13	-.23	-.05	.06	.34**	-.12	(.74)				
10. Perceived FP	3.81	0.94	.03	-.32*	.04	.04	-.11	-.29*	.05	-.11	.24*	(.86)			
11. Perceived FT	3.49	1.05	.07	-.28*	-.06	.04	-.09	-.27*	-.02	-.01	.15	.66**	(.73)		
12. Presenteeism [f]	5.39	16.17	.06	.37**	-.03	-.24	-.03	.13	.05	.06	.18	-.25*	-.17	--	
13. Lateness [f]	2.40	8.59	.09	.04	-.02	-.27*	-.23	.02	.08	-.20	.00	-.03	-.02	-.01	--
14. SR Absence [f]	2.51	4.70	.15	-.20	-.07	-.24	-.15	-.03	.14	-.28*	.19	.08	.11	-.04	.52**
15. OR Absence [f]	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
16. TOI	1.82	1.01	.03	-.25	.06	-.05	-.28*	-.12	.01	-.23	.30*	.09	.06	-.03	-.09
17. Value of FP	4.13	0.89	-.06	.22	.04	.17	.19	.08	.19	.36**	.06	-.03	.04	.15	-.04
18. Value of FT	4.11	0.90	.16	-.04	.05	-.02	.16	-.01	-.08	.09	.11	.32*	.17	.01	-.12

Table 4
Continued

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
19. Pref. for Seg.	2.99	0.59	.05	.27*	-.04	-.01	-.21	.19	.24	.08	.03	-.33**	-.42**	.06	.07
20. WE: Hard Work	3.52	0.58	.00	-.02	.19	.24	.10	.02	-.01	.16	.12	.05	-.10	.08	-.18
21. WE: Centrality	3.73	0.67	-.01	-.16	-.10	.16	.04	-.07	-.06	.03	.23	.03	.04	.05	-.27*
22. WE: Wasted Time [g]	3.91	0.54	.07	.04	.03	.32*	.23	.01	.08	.43**	-.02	-.16	-.20	.07	-.24
23. Autonomy	3.63	0.88	-.02	.01	-.04	.24	.13	-.18	.01	.08	.09	.41**	.33**	.12	-.14
24. W/NW Conflict	2.79	0.85	.11	.12	.03	-.09	-.07	.23	.31*	-.06	.36**	-.15	-.09	.03	.03
25. Sup. Reported Perf. [h]	4.66	0.42	-.31	.03	--	-.05	.28	.16	-.01	-.11	.02	.60*	.45	-.08	.23
26. OR Perf [i]	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
27. CP: Consc. Initiative	4.51	0.43	-.09	.16	--	-.07	.16	.21	.12	-.18	.18	.29	.16	-.05	.17
28. CP: Org. Support Beh.	4.26	0.57	-.23	.30	--	-.09	.18	.30	.16	-.20	.12	.24	.15	.05	.31
29. CP: Personal Support	4.19	0.70	-.32	.01	--	-.30	.13	.08	.12	-.34	.08	.47	.32	-.05	.31

Table 4
Continued

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
1. Sex [a]															
2. Age															
3. Ethnicity															
4. Marital Status [b]															
5. # of Children															
6. Org. Tenure [c]															
7. Telework Exp. [d]															
8. Actual FP [e]															
9. Actual FT															
10. Perceived FP															
11. Perceived FT															
12. Presenteeism [f]															
13. Lateness [f]															
14. SR Absence [f]	--														
15. OR Absence [f]	--	--													
16. TOI	-.03	--	(.82)												
17. Value of FP	.08	--	-.11	--											
18. Value of FT	-.09	--	-.17	.39**	--										

.

Table 4
Continued

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
19. Pref. for Seg.	-.17	--	.13	.04	-.19	(.74)										
20. WE: Hard Work	.01	--	.05	.29*	.06	-.05	(.88)									
21. WE: Centrality	.01	--	.00	.06	-.07	-.03	.35**	(.90)								
22. WE: Wasted Time [g]	-.10	--	-.06	.39**	.16	.22	.56**	.28*	(.81)							
23. Autonomy	-.20	--	-.06	.06	.24	-.26*	.18	.08	-.02	(.73)						
24. W/NW Conflict	.06	--	.07	.12	.01	.05	-.07	.06	.00	-.19	(.88)					
25. Sup. Reported Perf. [h]	.05	--	-.50	.19	.54*	-.32	-.22	-.31	-.43	.62*	-.17	(.92)				
26. OR Perf [i]	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--			
27. CP: Consc. Initiative	-.02	--	-.21	.13	.39	-.11	.10	-.15	-.30	.61*	.14	.79**	--	(.87)		
28. CP: Org. Support Beh.	-.05	--	-.15	-.02	.27	-.03	-.04	-.15	-.35	.61*	-.05	.68**	--	.82**	(.95)	
29. CP: Personal Support	.16	--	-.35	.24	.63*	-.39	-.09	-.31	-.42	.69**	-.17	.78**	--	.70**	.78**	(.94)

Note. N = 60-66 for self-reported variables; N = 15 for supervisor-reported variables. Coefficient alphas reported on the diagonal. *$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, two-tailed test. [a] Female = 1, Male = 2; [b] Single = 1, Married/committed relationship = 2; [c] Organizational tenure, in years; [d] Telework experience, in years; [e] Metric = hours/week; [f] Timeframe = past six months; [g] (Wanting to Avoid) Wasted Time; [h] Supervisor-reported task performance; [i] Company records task performance rating, Range = 1-4 (Organizational sample only). Org. = Organizational; Telework Exp. = Experience with Telework; FP = Flexplace; FT = Flextime; SR = Self-reported; OR = Organizational Records; Pref. for Seg. = Preference for Segmentation; WE = Work Ethic; W/NW Conflict = Work/non-work conflict; CP = Contextual Performance (Supervisor-rated); Consc. Initiative = Conscientious Initiative; Org Support Beh. = Organizational Support Behaviors; Personal Support = Contextual Performance Personal Support.

Control Variables

Control variables were included in analyses for which demographic variables were significantly related to the dependent variables (Becker, 2005). As such, age was included as a control variable in regression analyses with the two contextual performance dimensions of conscientious initiative and organizational support behaviors, presenteeism, and organizationally reported absence as the dependent variables. Sex served as a control variable in all regression analyses for both self-reported absence and organizationally reported absence. Ethnicity was included as a control variable for presenteeism and the organizationally reported performance ratings. Organizational tenure served as a control variable in regression analyses with lateness and organizationally reported absence as the dependent variable. Marital status was significantly related to the organizationally reported performance ratings and was therefore included as a control variable in the regression analyses with this performance measure as the outcome. Finally, number of children was included as a control variable for regression analyses with both self-reported absence and organizationally reported absence as the dependent variables.

Tests of Study Hypotheses

The following sections provide results of the tests for each of the hypotheses proposed in this study. This includes results of tests of direct relationships, mediated relationships, and moderated relationships.

Direct Relationships (Hypotheses 1-7)

The first set of hypotheses focused on direct relationships between the actual and perceived flexibility variables and the proposed outcomes. An overview of the hypotheses as well as the regression results (betas) is provided in Table 5. Hypothesis 1, which predicted that flexplace and flextime would be positively related to task performance, was not supported for actual or perceived flexibility. Similarly, Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported, with both of the OCB measures not significantly related to either actual or perceived flexplace or flextime. Of the withdrawal variables, perceived flextime was significantly negatively related to lateness ($\beta = -0.07$, $p = .04$, supporting Hypothesis 5b for perceived flexibility) and perceived flexplace was significantly negatively related to TOI ($\beta = -0.10$, $p = .00$, supporting Hypothesis 7a for perceived flexibility). The relationship between actual flextime and TOI was significant ($\beta = 0.13$, $p = .00$), however it was in the opposite direction of the hypothesis.

For each of the outcomes, hypotheses were also proposed that predicted whether flexplace or flextime would be more strongly related to the outcome variables. These hypotheses were supported for lateness with actual flexibility (Hypothesis 5c) as flexplace showed a stronger negative relationship with lateness than did flextime. Similarly, actual flextime had a stronger negative relationship with absenteeism from organizational records than did flexplace (supporting Hypothesis 6c). For perceived flexibility, perceived flexplace had a stronger negative relationship with TOI than did perceived flextime (supporting Hypothesis 7c).

Table 5
Summary of Hypotheses and Results –Direct Relationships

Hypothesis		Result	
		Actual Flexibility	Perceived Flexibility
1a	Flexplace positively related to task performance.	β = -0.24, *p* = .25	β = 0.15, *p* = .10
1b	Flextime positively related to task performance.	β = -0.04, *p* = .68	β = -0.02, *p* = .86
1c	Stronger positive relationship with task performance for flextime than flexplace.	*Not Supported*	*Not Supported*
2a	Flexplace positively related to conscientious initiative.	β = -0.27, *p* = .16	β = 0.04, *p* = .71
2b	Flexplace positively related to organizational support behaviors	β = -0.27, *p* = .16	β = -0.00, *p* = .98
3a	Flextime positively related to conscientious initiative.	β = 0.03, *p* = .76	β = 0.01, *p* = .91
3b	Flextime positively related to organizational support behaviors.	β = -0.10, *p* = .31	β = -0.07, *p* = .51
4a	Flextime negatively related to presenteeism	β = 0.02, *p* = .65	β = 0.01, *p* = .87
4b	Flexplace positively related to presenteeism.	β = 0.03, *p* = .83	β = -0.04, *p* = .28
5a	Flexplace negatively related to lateness.	β = -0.20, *p* = .06	β = -0.03, *p* = .43
5b	Flextime negatively related to lateness.	β = 0.03, *p* = .44	β = -0.07, *p* = .04
5c	Stronger negative relationship with lateness for flexplace than flextime.	*Supported*	*Not Supported*
6a	Flexplace negatively related to absenteeism (self-reported).	β = -0.11, *p* = .32	β = 0.03, *p* = .50
6b	Flextime negatively related to absenteeism (self-reported)	β = 0.04, *p* = .28	β = 0.06, *p* = .08
6c	Stronger negative relationship with absenteeism (self-reported) for flextime than flexplace.	*Not Supported*	*Not Supported*
6a	Flexplace negatively related to absenteeism (organizational records).	β = 0.03, *p* = .94	β = -0.04, *p* = .44
6b	Flextime negatively related to absenteeism (organizational records)	β = -0.05, *p* = .28	β = 0.03, *p* = .61
6c	Stronger negative relationship with absenteeism (org. records) for flextime than flexplace.	*Supported*	*Not Supported*
7a	Flexplace negatively related to TOI.	β = -0.04, *p* = .71	β = -0.10, *p* = .00
7b	Flextime negatively related to TOI.	β = 0.13, *p* = .00	β = -0.04, *p* = .18
7c	Stronger negative relationship with TOI for flexplace than flextime.	*Not Supported*	*Supported*

Note. Significant effects, and therefore the hypotheses that are supported, are highlighted in the table.

Mediation Relationships (Hypotheses 8-11)

The next set of hypotheses proposed autonomy and work-nonwork conflict as mediators of the various flexibility-outcome relationships. As with the direct relationships, the hypotheses were tested both for actual flexibility and perceived flexibility. Table 6 provides the results of the mediation analyses for actual flexplace and flextime and Table 7 provides these results for perceived flexplace and flextime.

Hypothesis 8 predicted autonomy as a mediator of the flexplace-outcome relationships. None of these mediated relationships were significant for actual flexplace. Similarly, Hypothesis 9 was not supported as autonomy did not mediate the actual flextime-outcome relationships. Hypothesis 10 and Hypothesis 11 predicted work-nonwork conflict as a mediator of the flexibility-outcome relationships. Hypothesis 10 was not supported for actual flexplace as work-nonwork conflict was not a mediator of any of the actual flexplace-outcome relationships. A significant indirect effect of actual flextime on TOI through work-nonwork conflict was found (β = .06), supporting Hypothesis 11f. This relationship can be seen in Figure 3.

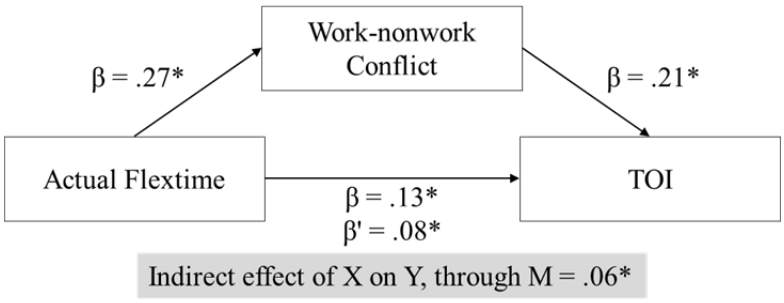

Figure 3. Significant indirect effects of actual flexibility on TOI (through work-nonwork conflict). Note that in this figure, in this figure, β' equals the effect of actual flextime (X) on TOI (Y), controlling for work-nonwork conflict (M).

Table 6
Summary of Hypotheses and Results – Mediation Relationships (Actual Flexibility)

Hypothesis		β	95% CI Lower	95% CI Upper
8a	Autonomy mediates flexplace-task performance (supervisor rated) relationship.	.01	-.00	.02
8a	Autonomy mediates flexplace-task performance (organizational rating) relationship.	.00	-.00	.01
8b1	Autonomy mediates flexplace-conscientious initiative relationship.	.01	-.01	.02
8b2	Autonomy mediates flexplace-organizational support behaviors relationship.	.01	-.00	.02
8c	Autonomy mediates flexplace-presenteeism relationship.	.01	-.03	.08
8d	Autonomy mediates flexplace-lateness relationship.	-.00	-.02	.01
8e	Autonomy mediates flexplace-absenteeism (self-reported) relationship.	-.00	-.02	.01
8e	Autonomy mediates flexplace-absenteeism (organizational records) relationship.	.02	-.08	.27
8f	Autonomy mediates flexplace-TOI relationship.	-.00	-.00	.00
9a	Autonomy mediates flextime-task performance (supervisor rated) relationship.	.01	-.01	.02
9a	Autonomy mediates flextime-task performance (organizational rating) relationship.	.00	-.01	.01
9b1	Autonomy mediates flextime-conscientious initiative relationship.	.00	-.02	.02
9b2	Autonomy mediates flextime-organizational support behaviors relationship.	.01	-.01	.03
9c	Autonomy mediates flextime-presenteeism relationship.	.07	-.03	.22
9d	Autonomy mediates flextime-lateness relationship.	.02	-.03	.11
9e	Autonomy mediates flextime-absenteeism (self-reported) relationship.	.01	-.01	.04
9e	Autonomy mediates flextime-absenteeism (organizational records) relationship.	-.02	-.12	.04
9f	Autonomy mediates flextime-TOI relationship.	-.01	-.02	.01

Table 6
Continued

Hypothesis		β	95% CI Lower	95% CI Upper
10a	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-task performance (supervisor rated) relationship.	.00	-.00	.00
10a	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-task performance (organizational rating) relationship.	.00	-.00	.01
10b1	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-conscientious initiative relationship.	.00	-.00	.01
10b2	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-organizational support behaviors relationship.	.00	-.00	.00
10c	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-presenteeism relationship.	.00	-.03	.04
10d	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-lateness relationship.	-.00	-.01	.01
10e	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-absenteeism (self-reported) relationship.	-.00	-.02	.01
10e	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-absenteeism (organizational records) relationship.	.01	-.06	.19
10f	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-TOI relationship.	-.00	-.00	.00
11a	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-task performance (supervisor rated) relationship.	.02	-.00	.05
11a	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-task performance (organizational rating) relationship.	.03	.00	.04
11b1	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-conscientious initiative relationship.	.02	-.01	.06
11b2	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-organizational support behaviors relationship.	.04	-.00	.01
11c	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-presenteeism relationship.	-.03	-.38	.27
11d	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-lateness relationship.	.21	-.17	.58
11e	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-absenteeism (self-reported) relationship.	.09	-.02	.21
11e	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-absenteeism (organizational records) relationship.	.19	-.00	.43
11f	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-TOI relationship.	.06*	.03	.08

Note. β = Indirect effect of *X* on *Y* through *M,* using bootstrapping with 5000 samples. * = significant indirect effect as 95% CI does not include zero, indicating a supported hypothesis.

Table 7
Summary of Hypotheses and Results – Mediation Relationships (Perceived Flexibility)

Hypothesis		β	95% CI Lower	95% CI Upper
8a	Autonomy mediates flexplace-task performance (supervisor rated) relationship.	.01	-.01	.04
8a	Autonomy mediates flexplace-task performance (organizational rating) relationship.	.01	-.00	.02
8b1	Autonomy mediates flexplace-conscientious initiative relationship.	.01	-.01	.04
8b2	Autonomy mediates flexplace-organizational support behaviors relationship.	.01	-.01	.05
8c	Autonomy mediates flexplace-presenteeism relationship.	.15*	.03	.32
8d	Autonomy mediates flexplace-lateness relationship.	.05	-.05	.17
8e	Autonomy mediates flexplace-absenteeism (self-reported) relationship.	.03	-.00	.07
8e	Autonomy mediates flexplace-absenteeism (organizational records) relationship.	.04	-.03	.16
8f	Autonomy mediates flexplace-TOI relationship.	-.01	-.02	-.00
9a	Autonomy mediates flextime-task performance (supervisor rated) relationship.	.02	-.00	.05
9a	Autonomy mediates flextime-task performance (organizational rating) relationship.	.02*	.01	.04
9b1	Autonomy mediates flextime-conscientious initiative relationship.	.01	-.01	.05
9b2	Autonomy mediates flextime-organizational support behaviors relationship.	.02	-.01	.06
9c	Autonomy mediates flextime-presenteeism relationship.	.34*	.10	.63
9d	Autonomy mediates flextime-lateness relationship.	.15	-.09	.43
9e	Autonomy mediates flextime-absenteeism (self-reported) relationship.	.05	-.01	.12
9e	Autonomy mediates flextime-absenteeism (organizational records) relationship.	.10	-.08	.37
9f	Autonomy mediates flextime-TOI relationship.	-.03*	-.04	-.01

Table 7
Continued

Hypothesis		β	95% CI Lower	95% CI Upper
10a	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-task performance (supervisor rated) relationship.	-.00	-.01	.01
10a	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-task performance (organizational rating) relationship.	-.01	-.02	-.00
10b1	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-conscientious initiative relationship.	-.00	-.02	.02
10b2	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-organizational support behaviors relationship.	-.00	-.03	.03
10c	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-presenteeism relationship.	-.00	-.14	.14
10d	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-lateness relationship.	-.09	-.24	.05
10e	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-absenteeism (self-reported) relationship.	-.04*	-.08	-.01
10e	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-absenteeism (organizational records) relationship.	-.05	-.15	.01
10f	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flexplace-TOI relationship.	-.02*	-.04	-.01
11a	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-task performance (supervisor rated) relationship.	-.01	-.03	.01
11a	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-task performance (organizational rating) relationship.	-.00	-.02	.00
11b1	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-conscientious initiative relationship.	-.01	-.03	.01
11b2	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-organizational support behaviors relationship.	-.01	-.04	.01
11c	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-presenteeism relationship.	-.01	-.09	.07
11d	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-lateness relationship.	-.04	-.15	.03
11e	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-absenteeism (self-reported) relationship.	-.02	-.06	-.00
11e	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-absenteeism (organizational records) relationship.	-.04	-.14	.03
11f	Work-nonwork conflict mediates flextime-TOI relationship.	-.01	-.03	-.00

Note. β = Indirect effect of *X* on *Y* through *M,* using bootstrapping with 5000 samples. * = significant indirect effect as 95% CI does not include zero, indicating a supported hypothesis.

Next, Hypotheses 8-11 were tested for perceived flexplace and flextime relationships. For Hypothesis 8, there was a significant indirect relationship between perceived flextime and presenteeism through autonomy (β = .15), supporting Hypothesis 8c. There was also a significant indirect effect through autonomy for the relationships between perceived flextime and the organizational rating of task performance (β = .02, supporting Hypothesis 9a), presenteeism (β = .34, supporting Hypothesis 9c), and TOI (β = -.03, supporting Hypothesis 9f). These relationships are depicted in Figure 4.

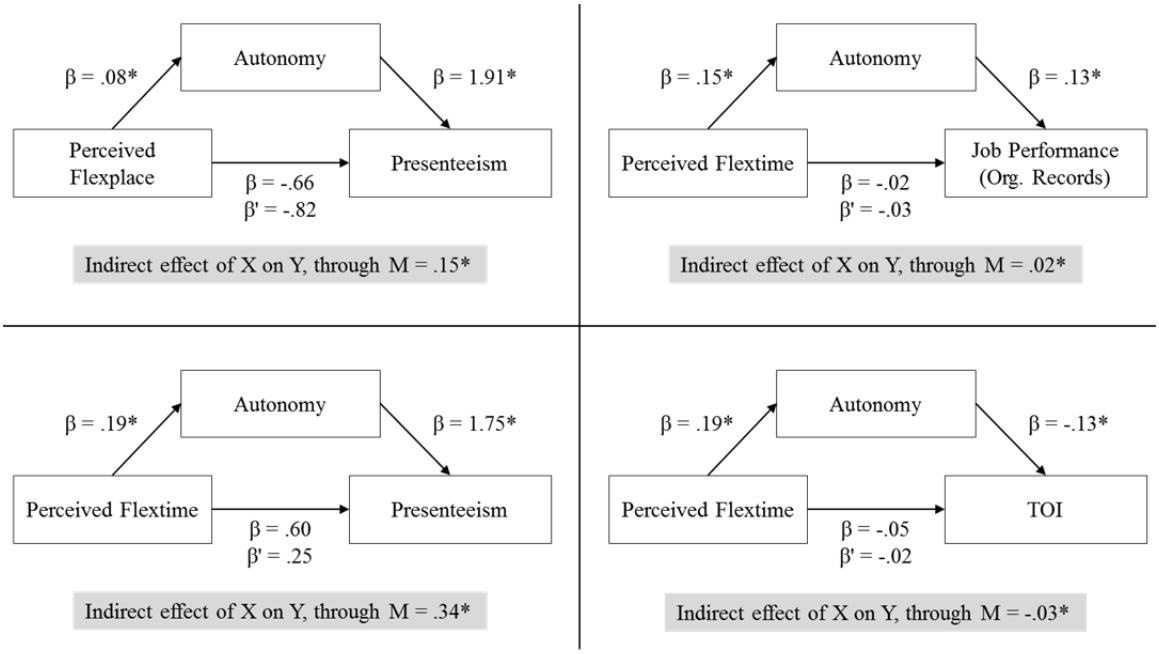

Figure 4. Significant indirect effects of perceived flexibility on various outcomes (through autonomy).

Hypotheses 8-11 were also examined for perceptions of flexible arrangement availability. A significant indirect effect of perceived flexplace on absenteeism through

work-nonwork conflict was found (β = -.04), supporting Hypothesis 10e. Similarly, supporting Hypothesis 10f, a significant indirect effect of perceived flexplace on TOI through work-nonwork conflict was found (β = -.02; see Figure 5). Hypothesis 11, which proposed work-nonwork conflict as a mediator of the flextime-outcome relationships, was not supported for perceived flextime.

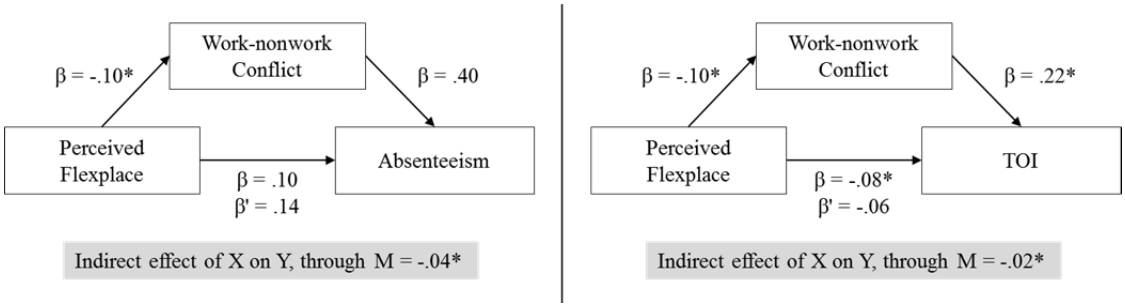

Figure 5. Significant indirect effects of perceived flexibility on absenteeism and TOI (through work-nonwork conflict).

Moderation Relationships (Hypotheses 12-23)

Hypotheses 12-23 proposed perceived value of telework, preference for segmentation, three dimensions of work ethic, and flextime and moderators of the flexibility-outcome relationships. As with the previous analyses, the hypotheses were tested for reports of actual flexibility as well as perceived flexibility. The majority of these moderation hypotheses were not supported. Specifically, perceived value of a flexplace arrangement did not moderate any of the flexplace-outcome relationships for actual flexibility or perceived flexibility, failing to support Hypothesis 12. Similarly, Hypothesis 15 was not supported as the hard work dimension of work ethic did not

moderate any of the flextime-outcome relationships. The centrality of work dimension of work ethic did not moderate the proposed flexplace-outcome or flextime-outcome relationships, failing to support Hypotheses 16 and 17. Additionally, flextime did not moderate the relationship between flexplace and presenteeism, failing to support Hypothesis 22. For each of the other moderation hypotheses (i.e., Hypotheses 13, 14, 18, 19, 20, and 23) at least one of the proposed moderated relationships was supported. All of the supported moderated relationships are discussed individually in the subsequent text. An overview of all of the moderation hypotheses, as well as the results of the moderation tests, is provided in Table 8.

Hypothesis 13a proposed that the perceived value of a flextime arrangement would moderate the relationship between flextime and task performance, such that the flextime-task performance relationship would be stronger when a flextime arrangement was seen as more valuable. This moderation analysis for this relationship was significant for organizational records of employee performance. While the moderation term was significant, contrary to expectation, the relationship between the availability of flextime and task performance ratings was negative, and this negative relationship was stronger with high levels of perceived value of flextime. This moderated relationship can be seen in Figure 6.

Table 8
Summary of Hypotheses and Results –Moderation Relationships

Hypothesis				Result	
#	Moderator	IV	DV	Actual Flexibility	Perceived Flexibility
12a			Task Performance (Supervisor-rated)	β = -0.01, *p* = .95	β = 0.00, *p* = .98
12a			Task Performance (Org. Records)	β = 0.36, *p* = .12	β = -0.02, *p* = .60
12b1			Conscientious Initiative	β = 0.02, *p* = .96	β = 0.03, *p* = .77
12b2			Organizational Support Behaviors	β = -0.12, *p* = .74	β = 0.05, *p* = .60
12c	Perceived Value of Flexplace	Flexplace	Presenteeism	β = -0.08, *p* = .48	β = 0.05, *p* = .11
12d			Lateness	β = -0.13, *p* = .25	β = -0.02, *p* = .62
12e			Absenteeism (Self-reported)	β = 0.01, *p* = .95	β = -0.00, *p* = .96
12e			Absenteeism (Org. Records)	β = 0.09, *p* = .94	β = -0.00, *p* = .94
12f			Turnover Intentions	β = -0.19, *p* = .09	β = -0.04, *p* = .21
13a			Task Performance (Supervisor-rated)	β = -0.12, *p* = .22	β = -0.00, *p* = .98
13a			Task Performance (Org. Records)	β = -0.03, *p* = .42	β = -0.09, *p* = .01
13b1			Conscientious Initiative	β = -0.16, *p* = .09	β = -0.07, *p* = .51
13b2			Organizational Support Behaviors	β = -0.14, *p* = .15	β = -0.01, *p* = .89
13c	Perceived Value of Flextime	Flextime	Presenteeism	β = 0.02, *p* = .52	β = -0.01, *p* = .77
13d			Lateness	β = 0.01, *p* = .82	β = -0.04, *p* = .19
13e			Absenteeism (Self-reported)	β = 0.05, *p* = .20	β = -0.04, *p* = .27
13e			Absenteeism (Org. Records)	β = -0.01, *p* = .82	β = -0.01, *p* = .87
13f			Turnover Intentions	β = 0.02, *p* = .49	β = -0.02, *p* = .56

Table 8
Continued

Hypothesis				Result	
#	Moderator	IV	DV	Actual Flexibility	Perceived Flexibility
14a			Task Performance (Supervisor-rated)	β = 0.09, *p* = .69	β = 0.12, *p* = .25
14a			Task Performance (Org. Records)	β = 0.32, *p* = .24	β = 0.03, *p* = .47
14b1			Conscientious Initiative	β = 0.33, *p* = .16	β = 0.07, *p* = .52
14b2			Organizational Support Behaviors	β = 0.10, *p* = .68	β = 0.20, *p* = .05
14c	Hard Work (Work Ethic)	Flexplace	Presenteeism	β = -0.16, *p* = .13	β = -0.06, *p* = .10
14d			Lateness	β = 0.19, *p* = .09	β = 0.00, *p* = .98
14e			Absenteeism (Self-reported)	β = 0.06, *p* = .64	β = 0.00, *p* = .96
14e			Absenteeism (Org. Records)	β = -0.34, *p* = .30	β = -0.06, *p* = .18
14f			Turnover Intentions	β = -0.04, *p* = .70	β = 0.03, *p* = .43
15a			Task Performance (Supervisor-rated)	β = -0.13, *p* = .23	β = 0.12, *p* = .23
15a			Task Performance (Org. Records)	β = -0.04, *p* = .23	β = -0.03, *p* = .53
15b1			Conscientious Initiative	β = -0.14, *p* = .20	β = 0.05, *p* = .61
15b2			Organizational Support Behaviors	β = -0.13, *p* = .25	β = 0.11, *p* = .31
15c	Hard Work (Work Ethic)	Flextime	Presenteeism	β = 0.05, *p* = .17	β = 0.02, *p* = .53
15d			Lateness	β = -0.05, *p* = .11	β = -0.03, *p* = .41
15e			Absenteeism (Self-reported)	β = -0.03, *p* = .45	β = 0.01, *p* = .89
15e			Absenteeism (Org. Records)	β = 0.02, *p* = .76	β = 0.03, *p* = .56
15f			Turnover Intentions	β = 0.01, *p* = .74	β = 0.02, *p* = .53

Table 8
Continued

	Hypothesis			Result	
#	Moderator	IV	DV	Actual Flexibility	Perceived Flexibility
16a	Centrality of Work (Work Ethic)	Flexplace	Task Performance (Supervisor-rated)	β = -0.10, *p* = .67	β = -0.05, *p* = .63
16a			Task Performance (Org. Records)	β = 0.13, *p* = .55	β = -0.02, *p* = .63
16b1			Conscientious Initiative	β = 0.12, *p* = .62	β = 0.00, *p* = .99
16b2			Organizational Support Behaviors	β = -0.11, *p* = .65	β = 0.04, *p* = .71
16c			Presenteeism	β = 0.01, *p* = .95	β = 0.01, *p* = .79
16d			Lateness	β = 0.17, *p* = .12	β = 0.03, *p* = .38
16e			Absenteeism (Self-reported)	β = 0.17, *p* = .14	β = 0.05, *p* = .17
16e			Absenteeism (Org. Records)	β = -3.52, *p* = .16	β = 0.01, *p* = .85
16f			Turnover Intentions	β = -0.03, *p* = .76	β = 0.05, *p* = .11
17a	Centrality of Work (Work Ethic)	Flextime	Task Performance (Supervisor-rated)	β = -0.13, *p* = .20	β = -0.01, *p* = .95
17a			Task Performance (Org. Records)	β = -0.01, *p* = .73	β = 0.01, *p* = .90
17b1			Conscientious Initiative	β = -0.18, *p* = .07	β = -0.05, *p* = .62
17b2			Organizational Support Behaviors	β = -0.18, *p* = .08	β = 0.04, *p* = .70
17c			Presenteeism	β = 0.03, *p* = .31	β = -0.01, *p* = .74
17d			Lateness	β = 0.04, *p* = .21	β = -0.01, *p* = .70
17e			Absenteeism (Self-reported)	β = -0.01, *p* = .74	β = 0.02, *p* = .52
17e			Absenteeism (Org. Records)	β = 0.02, *p* = .64	β = 0.04, *p* = .42
17f			Turnover Intentions	β = 0.01, *p* = .75	β = 0.01, *p* = .68

Table 8
Continued

	Hypothesis			Result	
#	Moderator	IV	DV	Actual Flexibility	Perceived Flexibility
18a	Wasted Time (Work Ethic)	Flexplace	Task Performance (Supervisor-rated)	β = -0.42, *p* = .04	β = -0.11, *p* = .26
18a			Task Performance (Org. Records)	β = 0.01, *p* = .98	β = -0.01, *p* = .83
18b1			Conscientious Initiative	β = -0.34, *p* = .13	β = -0.10, *p* = .29
18b2			Organizational Support Behaviors	β = -0.49, *p* = .02	β = -0.02, *p* = .81
18c			Presenteeism	β = 0.13, *p* = .24	β = -.06, *p* = .06
18d			Lateness	β = 0.10, *p* = .38	β = -0.03, *p* = .42
18e			Absenteeism (Self-reported)	β = 0.02, *p* = .88	β = 0.02, *p* = .48
18e			Absenteeism (Org. Records)	β = -1.09, *p* = .21	β = 0.01, *p* = .85
18f			Turnover Intentions	β = -0.04, *p* = .72	β = 0.04, *p* = .27
19a	Wasted Time (Work Ethic)	Flextime	Task Performance (Supervisor-rated)	β = -0.12, *p* = .24	β = -0.18, *p* = .08
19a			Task Performance (Org. Records)	β = -0.01, *p* = .83	β = -0.01, *p* = .86
19b1			Conscientious Initiative	β = -0.19, *p* = .07	β = -0.18, *p* = .07
19b2			Organizational Support Behaviors	β = -0.15, *p* = .15	β = -0.12, *p* = .26
19c			Presenteeism	β = 0.08, *p* = .02	β = -0.00, *p* = .99
19d			Lateness	β = -0.04, *p* = .23	β = -0.02, *p* = .59
19e			Absenteeism (Self-reported)	β = -0.02, *p* = .63	β = -0.01, *p* = .80
19e			Absenteeism (Org. Records)	β = 0.03, *p* = .53	β = 0.02, *p* = .65
19f			Turnover Intentions	β = -0.03, *p* = .36	β = 0.01, *p* = .72

Table 8
Continued

	Hypothesis			Result	
#	Moderator	IV	DV	Actual Flexibility	Perceived Flexibility
20a	Flextime	Flexplace	Task Performance (Supervisor-rated)	β = 0.08, p = .74	β = 0.04, p = .81
20a			Task Performance (Org. Records)	β = -0.18, p = .45	β = -0.07, p = .13
20b1			Conscientious Initiative	β = 0.08, p = .76	β = 0.04, p = .80
20b2			Organizational Support Behaviors	β = 0.29, p = .26	β = -0.01, p = .94
21a	Flextime	Flexplace	Lateness	β = -0.00, p = .99	β = 0.02, p = .62
21b			Absenteeism (Self-reported)	β = 0.15, p = .21	β = 0.01, p = .80
21b			Absenteeism (Org. Records)	β = -0.14, p = .93	β = -0.12, p = .03
21c			Turnover Intentions	β = -0.03, p = .36	β = 0.12, p = .00
22	Flextime	Flexplace	Presenteeism	β = 0.00, p = .98	β = -0.00, p = .99
23a	Preference for Role Segmentation	Flexplace	Task Performance (Supervisor-rated)	β = -0.22, p = .37	β = 0.01, p = .96
23a			Task Performance (Org. Records)	β = 0.38, p = .24	β = 0.02, p = .58
23b1			Conscientious Initiative	β = -0.58, p = .04	β = 0.02, p = .83
23b2			Organizational Support Behaviors	β = -0.38, p = .20	β = 0.14, p = .16
23c			Presenteeism	β = 0.20, p = .07	β = 0.03, p = .40
23d			Lateness	β = 0.06, p = .59	β = -0.03, p = .29
23e			Absenteeism (Self-reported)	β = 0.11, p = .37	β = 0.02, p = .63
23e			Absenteeism (Org. Records)	β = -1.09, p = .12	β = 0.10, p = .05
23f			Turnover Intentions	β = 0.22, p = .06	β = -0.02, p = .52

Note. β = Standardized β for the interaction term in the moderation analyses. Shading indicates significant effects, $p < .05$.

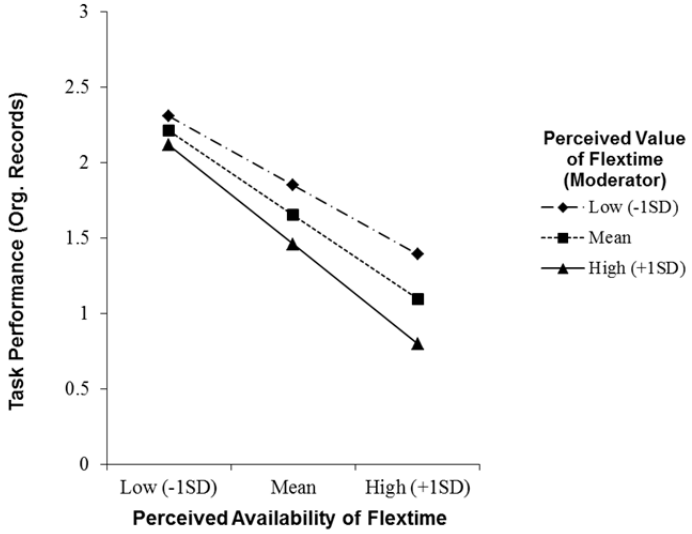

Figure 6. Hypothesis 13a: Interaction of perceived availability of flextime and value of flextime on task performance, controlling for ethnicity and marital status

Hypothesis 14b predicted that the hard work dimension of work ethic would moderate the relationship between flexplace and contextual performance, such that the relationship would be stronger when an employee reports higher levels of hard work. This hypothesis was supported for the relationship between organizational support behaviors and perceived flexplace (see Figure 7). The positive relationship between perceived flexplace and supervisor ratings of employee organizational support behaviors was strongest for employees who reported valuing hard work.

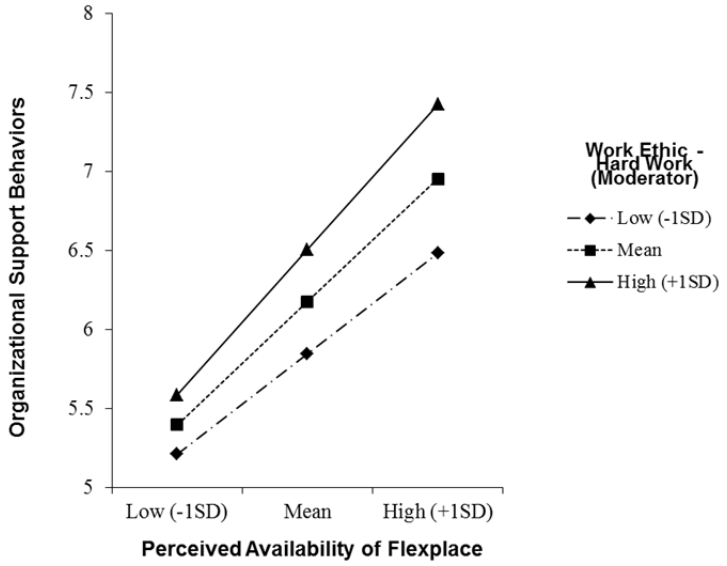

Figure 7. Hypothesis 14b: Interaction of perceived flexplace and hard work on organizational support behaviors, controlling for age

Hypothesis 18a and 18b proposed that the wasted time dimension of work ethic would moderate the flexplace-task performance relationship and the flexplace-organizational support behaviors relationship, respectively, such that the positive relationships would be stronger when employees reported high levels of wanting to avoid wasted time. While the moderated relationships for these hypotheses are both significant for actual flexplace, the relationships are in the opposite direction than expected. Specifically, reports of actual flexplace use are negatively related to both supervisor-rated task performance and supervisor-reported organizational support behaviors. For both of these hypotheses, the negative relationship is stronger when employees report high levels of the wanting to avoid wasted time dimension of work ethic. These two moderated relationships are provided in Figure 8.

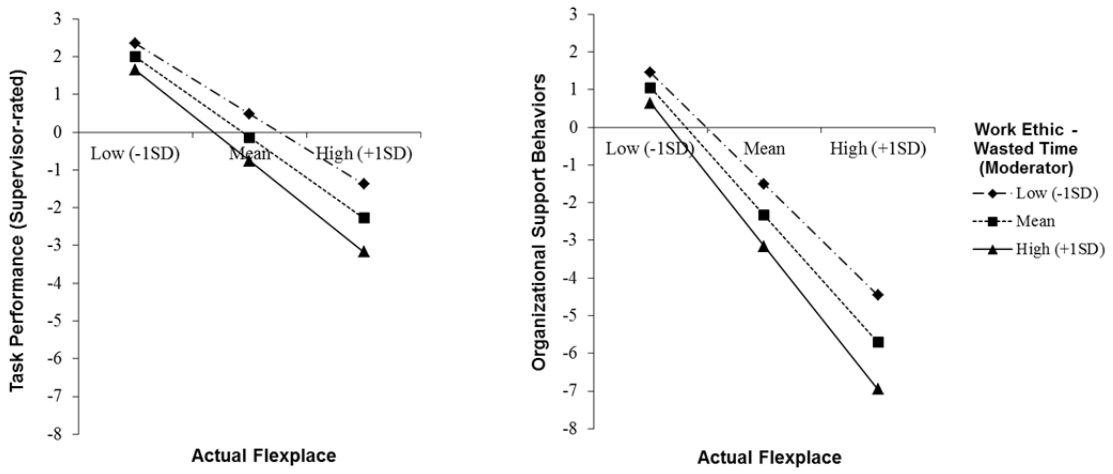

Figure 8. Hypothesis 18a and 18b: Interaction of actual flexplace and wasted time on task performance and the Interaction of actual flexplace and wasted time on organizational support behaviors, controlling for age

Another moderation relationship that was significant was the wanting to avoid wasted time dimension of work ethic as a moderator of the relationship between actual flexplace and presenteeism. Hypothesis 19c proposed that wanting to avoid wasted time would moderate the flextime-presenteeism relationship such that the positive relationship would be stronger when employees reported high levels of wanting to avoid wasted time. This hypothesis is supported for actual flextime, with the strongest positive relationship for high levels of the work ethic dimension of wanting to avoid wasted time (see Figure 9).

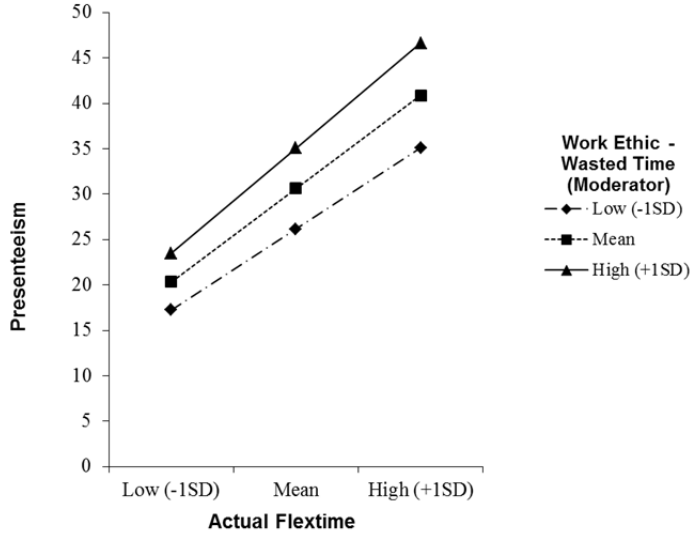

Figure 9. Hypothesis 19c: Interaction of actual flextime and wasted time on presenteeism, controlling for age and ethnicity.

Hypothesis 21b and 21c proposed that the flexplace-absenteeism and the flexplace-TOI relationships would be moderated by flextime such that the negative relationship would be stronger when employees have both flextime and flexplace. The moderated regression analyses showed significant interaction terms for each of these relationships when examining perceived flextime. For the relationship between perceived flexplace relationships and organizational records of absenteeism, there is a stronger negative relationship when employees report higher levels of perceived flextime, supporting Hypothesis 21b. On the contrary, for Hypothesis 21c regarding the relationship between perceived flexplace and TOI moderated by the perceived flextime, the relationship is almost non-existent at low levels of the moderator (perceived flextime) while it becomes more positive at high levels of the moderator. This is in the

opposite direction of the predicted relationship. These two relationships are presented in Figure 10.

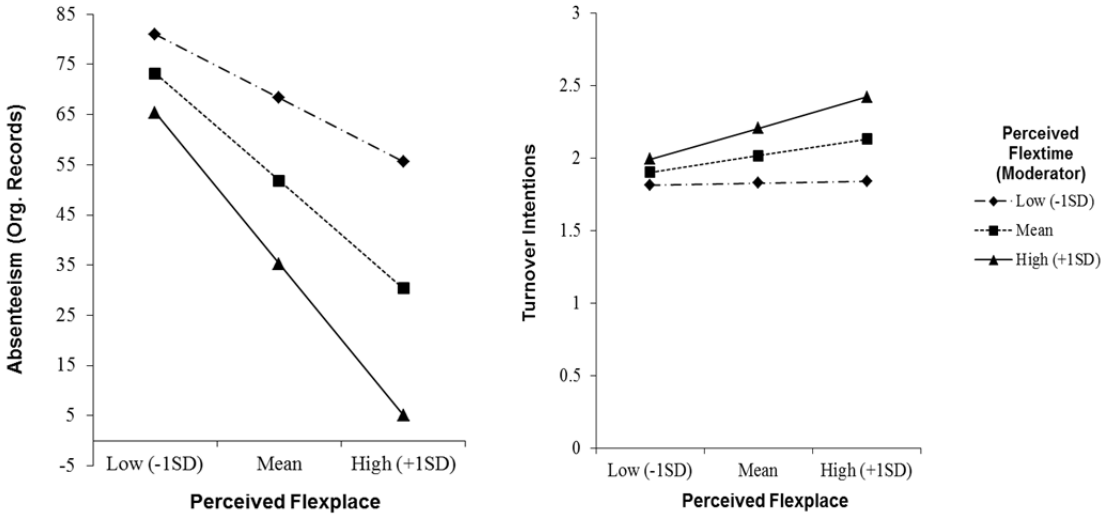

Figure 10. Hypothesis 21b and 21c: Interaction of perceived flexplace and perceived flextime on absenteeism (org. records) controlling for sex, age, children, and tenure and the Interaction of perceived flexplace and perceived flextime on turnover intentions

Hypothesis 23b predicted that the positive relationship between flexplace and conscientious initiative would be moderated by preference for segmentation such that the relationship would be stronger when an individual prefers integration. For this relationship, when an individual prefers segmentation, there is a stronger negative relationship between actual flexplace and conscientious initiative than when an individual prefers integration. This relationship is presented in Figure 11.

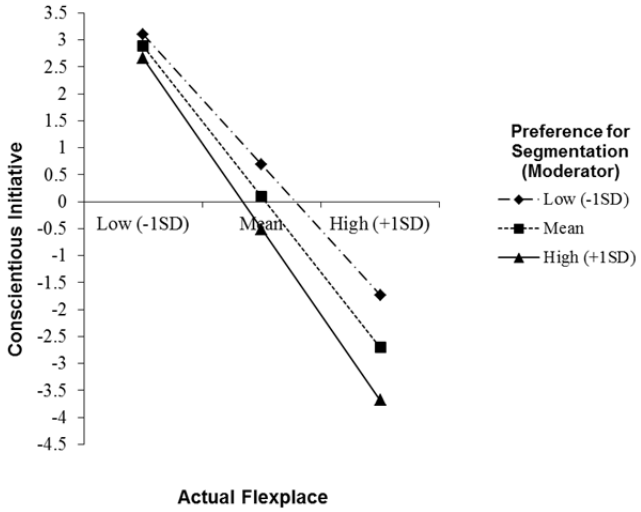

Figure 11. Hypothesis 23b: Interaction of actual flexplace and preference for segmentation on conscientious initiative, controlling for age.

Finally, Hypothesis 23e predicted that preference for role segmentation would moderate the relationship between flexplace and absenteeism such that the relationships are enhanced when the individual prefers integration. The results show that the relationship between actual flexplace and conscientious initiative is positive and strongest when there is a preference for segmentation. As such, this does not support Hypothesis 23e. This moderated relationship can be seen in Figure 12.

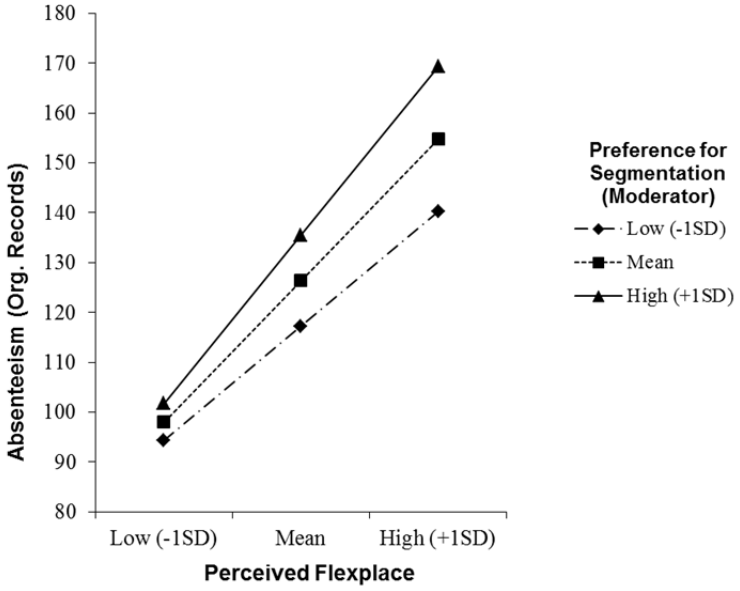

Figure 12. Hypothesis 23e: Interaction of perceived flexplace and preference for segmentation on absenteeism (org. records), controlling for sex, age, children, and tenure

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The use of telework in organizations is becoming increasingly common, with more and more workers reporting that they utilize telework. However, the empirical evidence regarding the benefit of these types of arrangements has been mixed. One potential reason for these mixed findings is the lack of consistency in the definition of telework. The current study was designed to examine those differences and make a distinction between flexibility in time and flexibility in place, as many empirical examinations of telework do not distinguish between these different types of flexibility. Additionally, this study parses out differences between actual use of flexibility in time and place and the perceived availability of these two types of flexible work arrangements (FWAs). In this study, various outcomes relevant to employee effectiveness are examined to determine their relationships with flexible place and flexible time arrangements. Specifically, task performance, contextual performance, and the withdrawal behaviors of presenteeism, lateness, absenteeism, and turnover intentions were examined.

Distinction among Types of Flexibility

One of the aims of this study was to explore the differential relationships between flexplace and flextime arrangements and various organizational outcomes. Because telework arrangements can have flexibility in terms of both time and place, it is necessary to understand how each of these components contributes to outcomes

associated with telework. This lack of consistency in the definition of flexibility has been identified as contributing to inconsistent findings in telework research (Allen & Shockley, 2009). In fact, research has shown that different types of flexibility (i.e., place, time) result in finding different effects (Allen et al., 2013), which highlights the need to separate these two types of flexibility. Similar to these results, the current study indicates differences between flexplace and flextime. When looking at flexplace and flextime, it appears that those employees who have flexibility in where they work do not necessarily have flexibility in when they work, and vice versa. A negative, although non-significant, zero-order correlation between actual flexplace and actual flextime highlights that a distinction should be made between these two types of flexibility. Further, the relationships of flexplace and flextime with the various outcome variables studied differed. For some of the outcomes studied, the relationships with flexplace and flextime were in the opposite direction, or there was a relationship with one of the flexibility variables but not with the other. For example, concerning the relationship between actual flexibility and lateness, there was a negative relationship with flexplace but a near zero, positive relationship with flextime. Similarly, with turnover intentions as an outcome there is a positive relationship with actual flextime but a slightly negative, near zero relationship with flexplace.

In addition to making the distinction between types of flexibility, this study also examines the distinction between actual flexibility (when employees report using FWAs during the workweek) and perceived flexibility (when employees report on their perceptions of the availability of FWAs to them). Kossek et al. (2006) argue for the

separate examination of policy use and availability. Consistent with this recommendation, Butts et al. (2013) found that the availability of work-family support policies was more strongly related to attitudinal outcomes, such as job satisfaction and commitment, than was the actual use of the policies. In general, this trend did not hold true for the outcomes examined in the current study. While a consistent pattern did not emerge regarding the relationship between reports of actual flexibility and perceived flexibility, many of the relationships with the outcomes were stronger for actual flexibility than perceived flexibility. It could be that availability of policies is a stronger predictor of attitudes than is actual use of policies, but this does not carry over to relationships with performance and withdrawal behaviors.

Relationships between Flexibility and Employee Effectiveness Outcomes

In addition to examining the distinctions between flexibility in place and time, this study also sought to determine relationships between flexibility and outcomes related to employee effectiveness. These relationships are described in the following sections.

Flexibility and Performance

Many theories (e.g., Job Characteristics Theory, Hackman & Oldham, 1976; work adjustment model, Dawis et al., 1968) and previous research (e.g., Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Gajendran et al., in press) suggest that flexplace and flextime will lead to positive outcomes in terms of performance for employees and organizations. Unfortunately, the results of this study did not support the hypotheses regarding performance. Specifically, Hypothesis 1 predicted a positive relationship between task

performance and both flexplace and flextime arrangements. For actual telework, there was a non-significant relationship between flexplace and task performance, as rated by the supervisor. However, the sample size available to test this hypothesis was small, thus the estimate for the effect may not be accurate. When examining flexibility and performance, a significant relationship was not found for actual flextime and performance. Beauregard and Henry (2009) suggest that practices such as flextime can lead to increased productivity because employees can choose to work during the peak of their personal productivity or when the organization has peak times. However, it may be that the use of flexibility does not lead to increased productivity or performance because employees utilizing flexibility do not adjust their work time in this manner, do not know or recognize what those peak working times are, or their own peak times do not align with coworkers' hours and they need to work at the same time as those coworkers to collaborate.

Similarly, the relationships between flexible arrangements, both in terms of place and time, and the two dimensions of contextual performance studied were not significant. Contrary to Kelliher and Anderson (2010), which found that the use of FWAs was related to intensification of work, and Gajendran et al. (in press), which found that telework was positively related to contextual performance, the results of this study do not show that the use of flexible place or flexible time arrangements relates to conscientious initiative behaviors for either actual or perceived flexibility. However, the results of this study are consistent with Lautsch et al.'s (2009) finding that there was not a significant relationship between telework and helping behaviors.

Flexibility and Withdrawal

In reference to the relationships between flexibility and the withdrawal behaviors the only significant relationship for actual flexibility was between actual flextime and turnover intentions, however this relationship was positive and therefore in the opposite direction than predicted. One reason for this could be that employees are not using flextime in way that benefits them but rather have to vary their work hours based on organizational reasons or needs. Employee feelings of control over their work have been shown to be associated with lower levels of turnover intentions (Spector, 1986) and job dissatisfaction (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). As such, if employees feel that they do not have control over the hours in which they work but they have to work outside of typical working hours or vary their working hours based on organizational needs, that lack of control could contribute to increased desire to leave the organization.

In looking at the hypotheses for perceived flexibility and the withdrawal outcomes, perceived flexplace was significantly negatively related to turnover intentions. This means that when employees believe that flexplace arrangements are available, they are less likely to indicate that they want to leave the organization. This is consistent with previous research that suggests the availability of flexplace policies is related to decreased turnover intentions (e.g., Butts et al.; 2013, Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Additionally, a significant negative relationship was found between perceived flextime and lateness such that when an employee perceives that flextime arrangements are available they are less likely to report being late to work. It could be that because employees perceive that there is flexibility in their work hours, that no matter what time

they arrive at work they do not feel that they are tardy. In fact, one of the benefits of flextime that has been identified in the literature is a decrease in employee tardiness (Ralston, 1989). Some researchers even suggest that with a flextime arrangement, conforming to a specified work schedule is not meaningful because of the ability to vary the times at which work is conducted (Harrison, 2002). Using this explanation, it is apparent that flextime arrangements would lead to decreases in employee lateness.

When and Why Relationships between Flexibility and Outcomes Occur

Beyond the direct relationships proposed, a number of mediators were proposed as possible explanations for why flexibility relates to various outcomes. A set of moderators were also proposed as potential circumstances or conditions in which flexibility leads to beneficial outcomes. One limiting factor when looking at the proposed mediated and moderated relationships in this study was a lack of significant direct relationships between study variables. However, all proposed mediated and moderated relationships were tested and are described in the following sections.

Mediators of Flexibility-Outcome Relationships

Of the indirect relationships tested for actual flexibility, only one was supported: the indirect effect of actual flextime on turnover intentions through work-nonwork conflict. This significant indirect effect helps to explain the unexpected result that using flextime is positively related to employee turnover intentions. Specifically, results show that actual flextime is related to higher levels of work-nonwork conflict; this suggests that employees are using flextime in a way that negatively impacts their personal lives

and their work is impeding on their non-work time. This higher level of work-nonwork conflict is related to higher rates of turnover intentions.

In contrast, other studies have shown negative relationships between flextime and work-nonwork conflict (e.g., Allen et al., 2013). It may be that there is something about this sample or the organization from which most of the participants were sampled that encourages employees to work at times which are not convenient for their non-work lives and that the actual flextime items included in the survey do not measure a beneficial flextime, but rather a need imposed by the organization or the job to work overtime or non-traditional hours, which can increase work-family conflict. Research has shown that telework during non-traditional hours (i.e., overtime) leads to exhaustion and resource drain (Golden, 2012). Because of the higher level of conflict associated with working extra or non-traditional hours, employees are more likely to want to leave the organization.

When looking at the indirect relationships between perceived flexibility and the hypothesized outcomes, autonomy was found to be a significant explanatory mechanism for relationships between perceived flexplace and presenteeism as well as between perceived flextime and presenteeism, organizational ratings of task performance, and turnover intentions. Perceived flexplace and perceived flextime were both positively related to autonomy, suggesting that when employees feel that they are able to alter the places or times at which they conduct work, they also feel higher levels of autonomy at work. It is through these increases in autonomy that perceived flexplace is related to presenteeism and perceived flextime is related to organizational ratings of task

performance, presenteeism, and turnover intentions. With regard to presenteeism, while one would hope that flexibility in where and when to work would encourage workers to work when they feel best, it appears that when employees perceive they have flexibility in where and when to work that, through autonomy, they are choosing to work when they are ill or not feeling well.

Finally, a significant indirect effect was found for perceived flexplace relating to both absenteeism and turnover intentions through reduced work-nonwork conflict. It has been well established in the empirical literature that flexplace arrangements allow employees to better manage their non-work responsibilities (e.g., Allen et al., 2013; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). The results of this study show that through work-nonwork conflict, perceived flexplace results in lower levels of employee absence and turnover intentions. This is interesting because it is not that employees are necessarily *using* flexplace arrangements to reduce this conflict, but rather that having the freedom or option to work from where is best for them that relates to reductions in work-nonwork conflict.

To determine if actual flexibility in time led to outcomes through perceived flexibility in time, indirect relationships between actual flextime and various hypothesized outcomes through perceived flextime were tested. However, these indirect effects were not significant, failing to provide additional evidence for relationships between flextime and outcomes. Again, the measurement of these variables may explain these non-intuitive findings such that actual measures capture working overtime and perceived measures capture the discretion to alter temporal and physical boundaries.

Moderators of Flexibility-Outcome Relationships

The majority of the moderated relationships that were tested were not shown to be significant. This could be in part because of the low variability of the moderators that were included in the study. However, some of the proposed moderations were found to be significant. One interesting variable that was explored as a moderator in this study was employee work ethic, as work ethic has not previously been examined with regard to flexplace and flextime. Miller et al. (2002) suggest that work ethic can positively impact employee contextual performance. In this study, it was proposed that when an employee values hard work, there will be a stronger positive relationship between perceived flexplace and the contextual performance dimension of organizational support behaviors. This was found to be true, with a stronger positive relationship between these two variables when the employee places a high value on high work.

When looking at the relationship between actual flexplace and presenteeism, it was proposed that this positive relationship would be moderated by the work ethic dimension of (wanting to avoid) wasted time. This finding suggests that employees will work from home when they are sick, and this is especially true if the employee is averse to wasting time and values using their time productively.

Interactions between flexplace and flextime were also hypothesized. Results showed that the negative relationship between perceived flexplace and employee absenteeism is strongest when there are high levels of perceived flextime. In other words, when employees report high levels of both perceived flexplace and perceived flextime, the greatest reductions in absenteeism are reported. Previous research findings

show that flexplace (Stavrou, 2005) and flextime (Kossek & Michel, 2011) are associated with lower rates of absenteeism; however these studies have not investigated the impact of having *both* flexplace and flextime through examining their interaction. The results of this study in terms of the interaction between flexplace and flextime show that having both types of flexibility can have an additive effect and lead to lower levels of absenteeism than having only one type of flexibility.

The same was not true when looking at perceived flextime as a moderator of the relationship between perceived flexplace and turnover intentions. Specifically, the results of the current study show that perceiving a high level of flextime creates a positive relationship between perceived flexplace and turnover intentions. When employees report high perceptions of both flexplace and flextime, they report the highest level of turnover intentions.

Some of the significant moderated relationships in the current study were not in the hypothesized direction (e.g., perceived flextime-task performance, moderated by value of flextime; actual flexplace-task performance and actual flexplace-organizational support behaviors; moderated by wasted time; actual flexplace-conscientious initiative, moderated by preference for segmentation). As such, these interactions are difficult to interpret and do not make intuitive sense. Future research could be used to further test and better understand the results of these interactions.

Limitations, Practical Implications and Future Research Directions

One limitation of this study was the sample size for actual telework analyses. For example, the observed power for actual flexplace predicting supervisor ratings of

performance was 0.21. This is lower than would be desired. According to the organization that provided access to employees for the sample, there should have been approximately 100 individuals actively participating in telework arrangements, however less than 20 individuals reported having a telework arrangement. It could be that organizational records of teleworkers were not accurate, that teleworkers did not perceive themselves to have a formal or informal telework arrangement, or that for some reason (e.g., organizational culture) it is undesirable to report that they participated in a telework arrangement.

Another limitation of the current study was the skip logic used in the online survey. The survey included skip logic based on the response to the question about whether employees had a formal, informal, or no telework arrangement. When participants indicated that they did not have a formal or informal teleworking arrangement, they did not receive the survey questions regarding actual telework. This limited the sample size for the actual flexplace analyses as most of the organizational sample did not report having a telework arrangement. It might be the case that even those individuals who do not perceive themselves as having a telework arrangement in place may participate in some amount of flexplace. As such, it would have been beneficial to have the actual telework questions provided to all survey participants, even those that did not indicate they had a telework arrangement.

An additional limitation of the current study was that the autonomy items included in the study were not specifically about flexplace or flextime arrangements. Correspondingly, they showed fairly weak relationships with each of the perceived

flexibility variables. The autonomy items assessed overall autonomy on the job (i.e., discretion over how work is conducted) rather than autonomy over where and when work is conducted. Some researchers have pointed out that the conceptualization and operationalization of autonomy varies on when, where, and how dimensions and this may have a meaningful impact on work experiences (Breaugh, 1989; Thompson, 2013). That said, autonomy over where and when work is conducted is likely quite similar to if not the same thing as perceived flextime and flexplace. For example, the items used to measure schedule flexibility (e.g., "I have control over the scheduling of my work"; Breaugh, 1989) are very similar to the items used to measure perceived flextime (e.g., "I have the freedom to vary my work schedule").

Another aspect of this study that limited findings was the low variability of responses to the survey items, specifically the supervisor-rated task performance and contextual performance outcome measures, the moderators, and somewhat the flextime measures. Because of range restriction, it is more difficult to find significant relationships between the study variables.

If doing this study again, another area for improvement would be in the measurement of absenteeism. The question asked to respondents about their absences was "In the past six months, how many days have you been absent from work." Similarly, the organizational reports of employee absenteeism were based on paid time off which combines absences for all reasons. While absenteeism is considered a form of withdrawal, the measurement of absenteeism here combines this with other reasons for absences, such as sickness, family needs, or personal travel. The potential impact of

using paid time off as a measurement for absence in this study can be seen in that relationships between perceived flexplace and two forms of withdrawal (absenteeism and turnover intentions) are in opposite directions although you would expect two different measurements of withdrawal to have effects in the same direction. More accurate results for absenteeism might be obtained if a focus is placed on withdrawal rather than overall absence in the measurement of the variable.

Practical Implications of Study Findings

One implication of this study is that when considering employee effectiveness outcomes, it is not sufficient to just offer telework or flexible work arrangements, it is necessary to consider the type of flexibility that is available to employees. Different types of flexibility will relate to different outcomes. Additionally, the distinction between availability of flexibility and actual usage should also be considered. Results of this study show initial support in this area, specifically when examining the mediated and moderated relationships. Further research should continue to examine these differences, especially given the small number of employees who reported actual flextime in this study. Further, when organizations want to offer FWAs to their employees, they should consider the value that employees place on these benefits. When organizations offer employees benefits (e.g., FWAs) that they value, the employees are more likely to have high organizational commitment, task performance, and contextual performance (Muse et al., 2008). Results of this study show that employees value flextime arrangements more than flexplace arrangements. This provides further evidence that the distinction between types of flexibility is important.

There was not a significant relationship found between flexplace or flextime and task performance. While this does not support the study hypotheses, it is actually a positive finding for organizations. Although telework is not associated with higher levels of employee performance, there is also not a detriment to performance for those employees who utilize flexplace and flextime. As such, these FWAs are not hurting the task performance of employees. Similarly, non-significant relationships between flexplace and flextime and the contextual performance variables show that although there are not gains in conscientious initiative or organizational support behaviors when employees utilize flexible arrangements, there are also not losses in terms of employees displaying less initiative or supporting the organization less when they use flexplace or flextime.

The results of this study had positive implications for the organization that provided participants. Based on the study results regarding employees' perceived value of flexible arrangements and desire to be given more flexibility in terms of when and where their work could be completed the organization decided to implement a Workplace Flexibility Initiative. Specifically, flextime was implemented such that employees do not need to work a traditional 9am-5pm workday, but rather need to be present during core hours in the middle of the day which provides the ability to vary work start and stop times based on personal needs or preferences. Additionally, prior to this study some employees were not allowed to complete any work from home but the Workplace Flexibility Initiative that is being implemented allows employees to do work at home in the evening to complete their days (i.e., to charge their full 8 hours of time for

the day). The HR contact at the organization indicated that there was an overwhelmingly positive response to these increases in flexibility, both in time and in place, from employees.

Another practical implication of this research is not reported in this study, but results from the survey that was conducted as additional questions beyond the scope of this study were included on the survey. Specifically, information was provided regarding perceived supervisor support (PSS) for FWAs and the subsequent impact on employee perceptions of FWA availability and actual use of the flexible arrangements. The results suggest that PSS, and especially support specific to FWAs, is important for employees to perceive that these work arrangements are available to them. Additionally, the positive relationship between PSS and actual flextime was fully mediated by the perceived availability of flextime arrangements. These results show the importance of having supervisors that are supportive of FWAs if they are to be used within an organization.

Future Research Directions

One future area of research to pursue based on this study is the distinction between perceived and actual flexibility and their relationships with outcomes with another sample. Butts et al. (2013) found that perceptions of the availability of family supportive policies were more strongly related to attitudinal outcomes than were the actual use of those policies. The results of this study, on the other hand, indicate that the outcomes examined were more strongly related to actual flexibility than perceived flexibility. One difference between the Butts et al. study and the current study is that

their study examined attitudinal outcomes while this study examined performance and withdrawal outcomes. It would be interesting to determine if these different types of outcomes are differently related to actual flexibility and perceived flexibility. As such, future research should examine if performance and withdrawal type outcomes are in fact more strongly related to flexibility use than to perceived flexibility.

Another future direction for research is to focus on presenteeism. Presenteeism has not traditionally been included in the work research literature, but it could be an important variable for I/O Psychologists and HR managers to study further and better understand given that the cost and productivity losses that are associated with presenteeism can be greater than those experienced when employees are absent (Hemp, 2004; Schultz & Edington, 2007). Halbesleben, Whitman, and Crawford (2014) suggest that absences due to sickness and presenteeism should be studied together, as they are part of the same decision. That is, when an employee is sick he or she must decide to stay home or go to work despite the illness. However, these constructs have rarely been integrated in research studies. Research could examine factors that increase the occurrence of presenteeism (e.g., short job tenure; service industry careers) as well as the impact of presenteeism on employee and organizational outcomes.

Although hypotheses in the current study regarding the relationships between flexibility and presenteeism were not supported, zero-order correlations between presenteeism and other study variables can help to provide an initial understanding of presenteeism. For example, when considering factors that might be related to higher reports of presenteeism, autonomy shows a significant positive relationship with

presenteeism. In other words, employees who report that they feel they have control over their work are also likely to report working more days when ill. Additionally, the study correlations can be used to examine potential outcomes of presenteeism, such as employee performance. Results show negative correlations between presenteeism and supervisor reports of task performance and all three dimensions of contextual performance. This demonstrates that supervisors are likely noticing the impact of employees working sick and it subsequently leads them to give these employees lower ratings. Similarly, Halbesleben et al. (2014) noted that presenteeism can negatively impact both the quality and quantity of employees' work. Results of the current study suggest that this negative impact is not only on task work, but also on contextual performance behaviors.

Conclusion

In conclusion, telework is becoming an increasingly common means of work for today's employees. However, a lack of consistency in the definition and implementation of telework may be confounding research findings regarding telework. Specifically, while telework is defined as comprising a flexible place component, many times teleworking employees are also afforded flexibility in terms of the hours worked. The goal of this study was to examine the relationships between flexibility in place and in time, and the outcomes of task performance, contextual performance, presenteeism, lateness, absenteeism, and turnover intentions as well as mediators and moderators of these relationships. While the results of the current study did not support relationships between flexibility and either task performance or contextual performance significant

relationships were found between flexibility and some of the withdrawal variables. Specifically, perceptions of greater availability of flexplace were related to decreased turnover intentions and perceptions of greater availability of flextime were related to decreased employee lateness. Additional research is needed to further examine the mediators and moderators of the relationships flexplace and flextime and the various performance and withdrawal outcomes.

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APPENDIX A

SNOWBALL SAMPLE RECRUITMENT EMAILS

Snowball Sample Recruitment Email

Hello,

As a doctoral student in the Psychology Department at Texas A&M University, I seek your help as a participant in my dissertation study - the final stage toward completion of my degree. My study examines the experiences of teleworkers. Telework is defined as a work arrangement in which work is completed from a location other than the office, such as from home. The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between telework and employee performance and withdrawal from the organization as well as when and why these relationships occur.

If you telework for at least part of your time and you agree to participate, you will be asked to complete a 20-minute online survey. You will also be asked to provide your supervisor's e-mail address, so that I can also ask him/her to complete a very brief survey about your work performance. If you complete the survey, you will be eligible to win one of five $50 gift cards. Prizes will be awarded to five randomly chosen participants after all survey responses have been collected.

The survey can be accessed at the following link:
[Survey Monkey web link]

Please be assured that your answers are confidential, and all information gathered will be stored securely and will only be accessed by me. Please complete the complete the survey by DATE.

If you know of other individuals who telework for any part of their work time, please forward this email to them to invite them to participate in this study.

Additionally, if you have any questions or concerns, please contact me at the email address or phone number listed below.

Thank you for your participation.

Snowball Sample Supervisor Recruitment Email

Dear XXXXXXX,

As a doctoral student in the Psychology Department at Texas A&M University, I seek your help as a participant in my dissertation study – the final stage toward completion of my degree. My study examines the experiences of teleworkers. Telework is defined as a work arrangement in which work is completed from a location other than the office, such as from home. The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between telework and employee performance and withdrawal from the organization as well as when and why these relationships occur.

You have been asked to complete a survey because one of your staff members, Jay White, participated in this study and indicated you as their supervisor. They provided your email address because they thought that you might like to participate in the study. To enhance the usefulness of the data received from the employee's survey, we request that you complete a 5-minute web-based survey about Jay's performance on the job.

The survey can be accessed at the following link:
[Survey Monkey web link]

Please be assured that your answers are confidential, and all information gathered will be stored securely and will only be accessed by me. Please complete the survey by DATE.

If you have any questions or concerns about how the results will be used, please contact me at the email address or phone number listed below.

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX B

ORGANIZATIONAL SAMPLE INFORMATION AND RECRUITMENT EMAILS

Organizational Sample Survey Information Email

DATE: XXXX

TO: Department Employees

FROM: XXXXXXX XXXXX, Vice President Human Resources

SUBJECT: Texas A&M Research Survey

One of the findings from the last employee survey was that employees are interested in more options for balancing and integrating their work with their personal lives and pressures outside work. Therefore, we met with researchers from Texas A&M University to discuss a research project assessing the experiences of employees who may or may not have access to flexible work arrangements, such as working from home, while on travel, etc.

The XXXXXX organization is constantly looking for ways to stay on the cutting edge of providing you with a meaningful work experience. We have partnered with Texas A&M to participate in a survey investigating the current use of flexible work arrangements as well as the value or desirability of these types of arrangements to employees. We believe that the results from this research, along with XXXXXX's ongoing efforts to optimize our culture, will ultimately help XXXXXX maintain our unparalleled track record of success.

In the next few days, you will receive a link to the survey from the researcher via surveymonkey.com. As with any survey that we ask you to participate in, you can be confident that your responses are confidential. For any survey questions, please contact XXXXX at XXX-XXX-XXXX or XXXXXX@XXX.com.

Thanks in advance for your participation.

[Signed by Vice President, Human Resources]

Organizational Sample Recruitment Email

Hello,

Researchers in the Psychology Department at Texas A&M University are currently working with Human Resources to conduct a research study. This study examines the experiences of employees who may or may not have access to flexible work arrangements, such as telework. Telework is defined as a work arrangement in which work is completed from a location other than the office, such as from home. The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between telework and employee performance and withdrawal from the organization as well as when and why these relationships occur. Additionally, the study will help to understand the current use of flexible work arrangements as well as the value or desirability of these types of arrangements to employees.

You have been asked to participate in this study because you are an employee of XXXXXX in the XXXXX department. This survey is being sent to a selection of employees to gather information regarding flexible work arrangements, and specifically telework, as well as other information about your work situations and you as an individual. Your supervisor will also be contacted to complete a brief survey about your performance at work. Your response to this survey will help XXXXXX to better understand the value that employees place on flexible work arrangements.

The survey can be accessed at the following link:
[Survey Monkey web link]

This link is uniquely tied to this survey and your email address. Please do not forward this message.

Please be assured that your answers are confidential, and all information gathered will be stored securely and will only be accessed by me. Please complete the survey by April 27th.

If you have any questions or concerns about how the results will be used, please contact me at the email address or phone number listed below. If you have questions about XXXXXX's support for the study, you may contact XXXX XXXX at XXXX@XXXX.com or XXX-XXX-XXXX.

Thank you for your participation.

Organizational Sample Supervisor Recruitment Email

Dear XXXXXX,

Researchers in the Psychology Department at Texas A&M University are currently working with Human Resources to conduct a research study. This study examines the experiences of employees who may or may not have access to flexible work arrangements, such as telework. Telework is defined as a work arrangement in which work is completed from a location other than the office, such as from home. The purpose of this study is to arrangements explore the relationship between telework and employee performance and withdrawal from the organization as well as when and why these relationships occur. Additionally, the study will help to understand the current use of flexible work arrangements as well as the value or desirability of these types of arrangements to employees.

You have been asked to complete a survey because one of your staff members, XXXXXX, participated in this survey. To enhance the usefulness of the data received from the employee's survey, we request that you complete a 5-minute web-based survey about XXXXXX's performance on the job.

The survey can be accessed at the following link:
[Survey Monkey web link]

Please be assured that your answers are confidential, and all information gathered will be stored securely and will only be accessed by me. Please complete the survey by April 27th.

If you have any questions or concerns about how the results will be used, please contact me at the email address or phone number listed below. If you have questions about XXXXXX's support for the study, you may contact XXXX XXXX at XXXX@XXXX.com or XXX-XXX-XXXX.

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX C

EMPLOYEE AND SUPERVISOR SURVEY ITEMS

Items Included in the Employee Survey

Flexibility Measures

Flexplace Use:

1. How many traditional work hours per week (e.g., of the 9/80 or 40 per week) do you telework?

Flextime Use: Responses are on a 5-point Likert scale format from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5)

1. I usually work outside of "traditional" work hours.
2. My work schedule varies from day to day.
3. My start and stop times at work frequently change.
4. I tend to keep a consistent set of hours at work. (reverse scored)

Perceptions of Flexplace and Flextime Availability: Responses are on a 5-point Likert scale format from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5)

1. I have the freedom to vary my work schedule.
2. I have the freedom to work wherever is best for me - either at home or at work.
3. I can change the times that I begin and end my workday to fit my personal preferences and needs.
4. I can change the location of where I conduct my work to fit my personal preferences and needs.

Outcome Measures

Presenteeism:

1. How many days during the last six months have you gone into the office to work even though it would have been reasonable to take sick leave?
2. How many days during the last six months have you teleworked even though it would have been reasonable to take sick leave?

Lateness:

1. How many times were you late for work during the past six months?

Absenteeism:

1. In the past six months, how many days have you been absent from work?

Turnover Intentions: Responses are on a 5-point Likert scale format from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5)

1. Do you intend to leave the organization in the next 12 months?
2. How strongly do you feel about leaving the organization within the next 12 months?
3. How likely is it that you will leave the organization in the next 12 months?

Mediator Measures

Perceived Value of Telework: Responses are on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from not valuable at all (1) to very valuable (5)

1. How valuable is a telework arrangement to you?
2. How valuable is a flextime arrangement to you?
3. How valuable is a flexplace arrangement to you?

Preference for Role Segmentation/Integration:
With the increasing demands of work and home, employees may work in different ways to handle these demands. Please indicate your agreement with the following nine items using a scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5)

1. I only take care of personal needs at work when I am "on Break" or during my lunch hour.
2. I prefer to not talk about my family issues with most people I work with.
3. Throughout the work day, I deal with personal and work issues as they occur.
4. It would be rare for me to read non-work related materials at work.
5. I tend to integrate work and family roles through the work day.
6. I tend to handle emails related to my family separate from emails related to my work.
7. I try to not think about my family or friends when at work, so I can focus.
8. I tend to not talk about work issues with my family.
9. I actively strive to keep my family and work-life separate.

Moderator Measures

Work Ethic: Responses are on a 5-point Likert scale format from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5)

1. Nothing is impossible if you work hard enough.
2. Working hard is the key to being successful.
3. If one works hard enough, one is likely to make a good life for oneself.
4. Hard work makes one a better person
5. By a working hard a person can overcome every obstacle that life presents.
6. Any problem can be overcome with hard work.
7. If you work hard you will succeed.

8. Anyone who is able and willing to work hard has a good chance of succeeding.
9. A person should always do the best job possible
10. By simply working hard enough, one can achieve one's goals.
11. I feel uneasy when there is little work for me to do.
12. I feel content when I have spent the day working
13. Even if I were financially able, I would not stop working.
14. A hard day's work is very fulfilling.
15. It is very important for me to always be able to work.
16. Even if I inherited a great deal of money, I would continue to work somewhere.
17. Even if it were possible for me to retire, I would still continue to work.
18. Life without work would be very boring.
19. I experience a sense of fulfillment from working.
20. A hard day's work provides a sense of accomplishment.
21. It is important to stay busy at work and not waste time.
22. Time should not be wasted, it should be used efficiently.
23. I schedule my day I advance to avoid wasting time.
24. I constantly look for ways to productively use my time.
25. I try to play out my workday so as not to waste time
26. How people spend their time is as important as how they spend their money
27. Wasting time is as bad as wasting money.
28. A distaste for hard work usually reflects a weakness of character.

*Autonomy***:** Responses are on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from very little (1) to very much (5)

1. How much control do you have over the pace of your work?
2. How much authority do you have in determining tasks to be performed?
3. How much authority do you have in determining rules and procedures for own work?

Work-nonwork conflict & nonwork-work conflict: Responses are on a 5-point Likert scale format from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5)

1. Worry or concern over my work interferes with my non-work activities and interests.
2. Other people in my life complain about how much time I have to spend on my job.
3. Things I want to do outside of work can't get done because of the demands my job puts upon my time.
4. My job prevents me from participating in many activities outside of work.
5. Due to emergencies at work, I have to make last minute changes to my plans for activities off the job.
6. I have to put off non-work things I would like to do because of my work requirements.
7. I can't sleep because of thinking about things at work that I have to get done.
8. Worry or concern over things outside my job affects my work.

9. The amount of time I need to spend on my commitments and activities outside of work interferes with my work.
10. Things I want to do in my job can't get done because of the demands on me outside of work.
11. Emergencies outside of work force me to alter my work schedule.
12. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time outside of work.
13. There is a conflict between my job and the number of commitments and responsibilities I have outside my work.
14. I can't sleep because of thinking about non-work related things that I have to get done.

Items Included in the Supervisor Survey

Task Performance: Responses are on a 5-point Likert scale format from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).
"Please rate the extent to which you agree with each statement about this employee's performance."

1. Adequately completes assigned duties.
2. Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.
3. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her
4. Meets formal performance requirements of the job.
5. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.
6. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform (R).
7. Fails to perform essential duties (R).

Contextual Performance: Responses are on a 5-point Likert scale format from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).
"Please rate the extent to which you agree with each statement. This employee…"

1. Persists with enthusiasm on own job.
2. Puts forth extra effort on own job.
3. Volunteers to carry out tasks not part of own job.
4. Helps other organization members.
5. Cooperates with other organization members.
6. Follows organization rules and procedures.
7. Endorses, supports, or defends organizational objectives.
8. Is altruistic in helping individual organization members.
9. Demonstrates conscientiousness in support of the organization.
10. Maintains a positive attitude about the organization.
11. Does not complain about organizational conditions.
12. Keeps others in the organization informed about upcoming events, activities, actions, etc.
13. Participates responsibly in the organization.
14. Demonstrates allegiance to the organization
15. Promotes and defends the organization.
16. Demonstrates respect for organizational rules and policies.
17. Synergizes others through participation in the organization.
18. Works hard with extra effort.
19. Engages responsibly in meetings and group activities.
20. Engages in self-development to improve one's own effectiveness.
21. Engages in behavior that benefits individuals in the organization.
22. Assists co-workers with personal matters.
23. Provides extra service or help to customers.
24. Suggests procedural, administrative, or organizational improvements.
25. Stays with the organization despite hardships or difficult conditions.
26. Displays dedication on the job.