

Flexible Work Arrangements Availability and their Relationship with Work-to-Family Conflict, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intentions: A Comparison of Three Country Clusters

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The present study explored the availability of flexible work arrangements (FWA) and their relationship with manager outcomes of job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and work-to-family conflict (WFC) across country clusters. We used individualism and collectivism to explain differences in FWA availability across Latin American, Anglo, and Asian clusters. Managers from the Anglo cluster were more likely to report working in organisations that offer FWA compared to managers from other clusters. For Anglo managers, flextime was the only FWA that had significant favorable relationships with the outcome variables. For Latin Americans, part-time work negatively related with turnover intentions and strain-based WFC. For Asians, flextime was unrelated to time-based WFC, and telecommuting was positively associated with strain-based WFC. The clusters did not moderate the compressed work week and outcome relationships. Implications for practitioners adopting FWA practices across cultures are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Today, organisations are increasingly adopting work–family programs, such as flexible work arrangements (FWA), as a reaction to socio-demographic changes (Davis & Polonko, 2001; Golden, 2006; Goodstein, 1994). According to Lambert, Marler, and Gueutal (2008), FWAs are “employer provided

benefits that permit employees some level of control over when and where they work outside of the standard workday” (p. 107). They include part-time work, flextime, compressed work week, and telecommuting. FWAs are needed because there are more women, dual-earner couples, single-parent families (e.g. Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002), and people assuming elder care responsibilities in the workplace (Society for Human Resource Management, 2003). Thus, employees, now more than ever, are expecting and demanding workplace flexibility to cope with family demands.

Studies have shown that FWAs relate to employee and company benefits such as higher job satisfaction (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999), lower turnover intentions (Allen, 2001), and lower work–family conflict (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Work–family conflict is defined as inter-role conflict in which role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). However, most studies on FWA have been conducted using Western samples assuming that “the context is relatively homogeneous in terms of its legal and cultural characteristics, and that differences are mainly due to differences in internal and external labor markets” (Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004, p. 413).

Further, even if these practices have benefits across countries, it is not clear whether these FWAs are being adopted equally by organisations in Asia and Latin America. A recent study has shown that the rate of implementation of FWA differs across countries in Europe (European Commission, 2000). Specifically, Northern European countries adopt these practices more frequently than do Southern European countries (European Commission, 2000; Gareis, 2002). However, there have been no studies comparing the availability of such practices in Asia and Latin America. While some scholars have argued that the difference in FWA adoption by country is explained by governments’ unique welfare state regimes (den Dulk, 2005; Gornick & Meyers, 2003), others have linked these differences to the cultural context (Peters & den Dulk, 2003). Although political, legal, and economic institutions may oblige employers to implement FWA, their “acceptance and effectiveness is likely to be dependent upon congruency with cultural factors” (Raghuram, London, & Larsen, 2001, p. 738).

In this study we tested differences in FWA availability and its relationship with job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and work–family conflict across Anglo (English-speaking), Latin American, and East Asian countries. We focused on the availability of FWA to understand how culture serves as an institutional pressure that leads to differences in FWA adoption by organisations. We chose to examine countries within these clusters because they have been shown to share cultural values (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002; Spector, Cooper, Poelmans, Allen, O’Driscoll, Sanchez, Siu, Dewe, Hart, Lu, Renault de Moraes, Ostrognay, Sparks, Wong, & Yu, 2004)

that are theoretically relevant to the study of FWA, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and work–family conflict. Below we develop our hypotheses.

FWA Availability

According to institutional theory, organisations must adapt, or strategically react to handling institutional pressures such as cultural expectations (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Institutional theory has been useful in explaining adoption of FWA. For instance, Lyness and Kropf (2005) used institutional theory to explain how cultural expectations regarding gender equality may prompt employers to offer FWA. After comparing a sample of managers and professionals in 20 European countries, they found that gender equality was positively related to FWA adoption. FWA adoption, in turn, positively correlated with manager's work–life balance. Their study is a good example of how culture, which is defined as the “human-made part of the environment” (Triandis, 1995, p. 1), explains national differences in the adoption of organisational practices.

In addition to gender equality, another cultural dimension that may explain differences in organisations' adoption of FWA is individualism–collectivism (I–C). According to Triandis (1995), individualism pertains to the degree that people prioritise individual goals over group goals, and prefer loose to close personal ties. In individualistic societies, people are primarily motivated by their own needs, and they are more likely to prefer loose personal ties. Collectivism is the extent to which individuals express pride in being part of a group, community, or family. In collectivist societies, people prefer close over loose personal ties and are encouraged to explore their need for belonging with others (Falicov, 2001). In general, studies show that Asian and Latin American countries are higher in collectivism than Anglo countries (Hofstede, 2001).

FWA can limit daily and physical contact with employees' colleagues or supervisors, which can hamper the quality of work relationships. Gajendran and Harrison's (2007) meta-analysis showed that frequency of telecommuting accentuated the negative relationship between telecommuting and the quality of co-worker relationships. Specifically, Gajendran and Harrison (2007) explained, “the more extreme loss of ‘face time’ that comes with being a high-intensity telecommuter undermined the depth of ties with co-workers” (p. 1536). These characteristics are incongruent with a culture of collectivism where people place importance on building social ties.

Additionally, there has been empirical evidence that I–C at the country level relates to FWA (Raghuram et al., 2001). For example, Raghuram et al. (2001) showed that companies in individualistic countries, within 14 countries in Europe, were more likely to report having a greater proportion of their workforce working under part-time and contractual work arrange-

ments. However, companies in collectivistic countries were more likely to use shift work. They argued that part-time and contractual work practices signal that the employees' relationship with their company is temporary. Hence, these practices are more consistent with the values espoused by individualistic than by collectivistic countries. Raghuram et al. (2001) explained that the greater use of shift work in collectivist countries allowed workers more opportunities to interact with others and to share each other's concerns given their extended working hours (e.g. night shift or weekend shift).

Thus, given that FWAs are more likely to fit with individualistic values than with collectivistic values, organisations in individualistic countries may experience more social pressures to offer such practices than would organisations in collectivistic countries.

Hypothesis 1: Managers in individualistic countries (i.e. Anglo cluster) will report greater FWA availability than will managers in collectivistic (i.e. Latin American and Asian clusters) countries.

FWA and Employee Outcomes

FWA and Job Satisfaction. Previous studies have shown that FWA availability is positively related to job satisfaction (Allen, 2001; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010), although most of these studies have been conducted in individualistic countries. The positive reaction of employees to FWA is likely attributable to employee perceptions that their organisations value and have concern for them (McNall et al., 2010). This assumes that employees value FWA. Although we might presume that employees in individualistic countries value FWA, such is not necessarily the case in collectivistic countries.

In fact, previous research shows that culture may moderate the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction. For example, intrinsic job characteristics (e.g. autonomy in the job, and recognition) are more strongly related with job satisfaction in individualistic and more economically developed countries (Adigun & Stephenson, 1992; Huang & Van de Vliert, 2003) than in collectivistic and less economically developed countries. Huang and Van de Vliert (2003) explained that people in individualistic countries attach more importance to mastery and self-actualisation needs than do people in collectivistic countries.

These findings are congruent with value percept theory, which states that employees are more satisfied in their job when their expectations are fulfilled (Locke, 1976). This theory has received strong empirical support to explain job satisfaction (Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001). Because favorable perceptions are dictated by groups' cultural values (i.e. preferences for certain practices) and norms (i.e. preferred behaviors) (Schwartz, 1999), factors that fulfill individualistic cultural values will predict job satisfaction

to a greater extent among individualists than among collectivists. For example, FWA, which enhance privacy and individuality, a desirable state among individualists, should be positively associated with job satisfaction for managers within individualistic countries. On the other hand, FWA may not have the same effect on managers in collectivistic countries who may prefer to work in an environment where people interact on a daily basis (Hofstede, 2001). In fact, managers in collectivistic countries may find it even more difficult to manage subordinates when they work under arrangements that inhibit the development of strong social ties. This is because flextime and telecommuting limits daily contact and socialisation with subordinates, and managers in collectivistic countries may be more likely to feel the need to have daily contact with them.

Further, telecommuting requires that employees have the appropriate technological support and physical space (e.g. office) to work in their homes. In collectivistic countries, households tend to be bigger (Triandis, 1995) given that children tend to leave home at an older age. Also, in collectivistic countries, it is more common to host and receive unannounced daily visits from extended family members and friends compared to individualistic countries. Therefore, as children and grandparents share the same household, and as the house becomes a busy place for socialisation and sharing, collectivistic homes may not be the optimal physical environment for working (Hofstede, 2001). Hence, while managers from individualistic countries may perceive the availability of FWA to be desirable, managers from collectivistic countries may not feel the same.

Hypothesis 2: Country cluster will moderate the relationship between FWA availability and job satisfaction. The relationship will be more positive in the Anglo cluster than in the Latin American or Asian cluster.

FWA and Turnover Intentions. Previous studies involving Anglo samples have shown that FWA availability is negatively related to turnover intentions (Allen, 2001; Batt & Valcour, 2003; McNall et al., 2010). Specifically, Allen (2001) found that flexible benefits were positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to turnover intentions, Batt and Valcour (2003) showed that flextime availability was negatively related to turnover intentions, and McNall et al. (2010) found that flextime and compressed work week availability were negatively related to lower turnover intentions. Additionally, Grover and Crooker (1995) found that individuals with access to family-responsive policies (e.g. flexible hours, information about community childcare services) reported significantly lower turnover intentions than did employees without access to these policies.

Signaling theory (Casper & Harris, 2008; Grover & Crooker, 1995) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) have been used as explanations as to why

FWAs relate to attachment to the organisation (McNall et al., 2010). Organisations offering FWAs provide a signal that they care about their employees' well-being. Such signs promote greater psychological commitment and lower tendency to quit (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). These results suggest that availability of policies can influence turnover intentions when people perceive these policies as a sign that the organisation cares for their well-being.

Cultural expectations shape perceptions of ideal job characteristics (Hofstede, 2001). Accordingly, offering FWA may be perceived positively by managers in individualistic countries because it signals that the organisation trusts them and cares about their well-being. However, they may not be perceived as favorably among managers in collectivistic countries who would not value working under such conditions. Managers in collectivistic countries may even view such practices negatively if they interpret them as a sign that their relationship with the company is temporary or unimportant. Hence, while FWAs may be negatively related to lower intentions to quit among managers in individualistic countries, this relationship may not be observed in collectivistic countries.

Hypothesis 3: Country cluster will moderate the relationship between FWA availability and turnover intentions. The relationship will be more negative in Anglo than in Latin American or Asian clusters.

FWA and Work–Family Conflict. FWA were created to help employees cope with work–family conflict (Galinsky, Bond, & Sakai, 2008). There are two types of work–family conflict: Strain-based conflict, which occurs when participating in one role produces stress that is carried into the other, and time-based conflict, which happens when participating in one role impedes time spent in another role. This interference can occur from work-to-family (WFC) and from family-to-work (FWC). Drawing on the notion of domain specificity (Frone, 2003), predictors that reside in the work domain tend to be more highly related to WFC while predictors that reside in the family domain tend to be more highly related to FWC. In fact, a previous meta-analysis examining the antecedents of work–family conflict showed that work practices were more strongly related with WFC than with FWC (Byron, 2005). Thus, we focus on the relationships between FWAs and WFC.

Allen (2001) showed empirical evidence that FWA availability related to lower work–family conflict, and that family supportive organisational perceptions (FSOP) mediated this relationship. Further, her study showed that FSOP explained unique variance associated with work–family conflict. Signaling theory (Casper & Harris, 2008; Grover & Crooker, 1995) has been used to explain how FWA can lead to positive perceptions (see McNall et al., 2010). By offering FWA, organisations show that they support employees'

well-being. In feeling supported by their organisations, employees may experience more control to cope with work–family demands. Wayne, Randel, and Stevens (2006) explained that the availability of FWA may lead to perceptions of control over work–family matters and positive affect, which can help employees cope with work–family conflict.

The aforementioned studies have been conducted in countries with more individualistic cultures. We argue that I–C will moderate the relationships between FWAs and WFC because, as previously stated, compared to managers in individualistic cultures, those in collectivistic cultures working in companies offering FWA will not necessarily perceive these practices as supportive or useful to help them cope with work–family demands. This is because I–C influences the way individuals interpret work and family demands (Spector, Allen, Poelmans, Lapierre, Cooper, O’Driscoll, Sanchez, Abarca, Alexandrova, Beham, Brough, Ferreiro, Fraile, Lu, Lu, Moreno-Velázquez, Pagon, Pitariu, Salamatov, Shima, Suarez Simoni, Siu, & Widerszal-Bazyl, 2007, Spector et al., 2004, Yang, Chen, Choi, & Zou, 2000). In fact, Powell, Francesco, and Ling (2009) stated that, “individualism/collectivism is regarded as one of the cultural dimensions that have the greatest impact on the work–family interface” (p. 605).

For example, employees in some collectivistic countries such as Hong Kong are more tolerant of the idea of sacrificing time for personal and family life. According to Luk and Shaffer (2005), “Chinese assign lower importance to sufficient time for personal and family life than do Westerners (Redding, 1993) because the most important function of the individual is in the maintenance and preservation of the household” (p. 490). Based on this observation, the availability of FWA could be interpreted as a support coming from the organisation to help employees cope with work–family conflict more so in individualistic countries than in collectivistic countries where people are more tolerant of spending more time at work. As such, people in individualistic countries will perceive having more control, which can help them cope with work–family conflict.

Lastly, managers in collectivistic countries may prefer other types of practices that help them cope with work–family conflict by strengthening social ties in the workplace. In fact, Lu, Kao, Cooper, Allen, Lapierre, O’Driscoll, Poelmans, Sanchez, and Spector (2009) showed that supervisor support was more negatively related with work–family conflict for Taiwanese employees (i.e. high in collectivism) compared with British employees (i.e. high in individualism). These results showed the relative importance that employees from collectivistic countries place on social support from work compared with employees from an individualistic country. If FWAs have the potential to harm relationships at work (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007), then they may not be viewed as desirable by managers in collectivistic societies. Hence, we hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 4a: Country clusters moderate the relationship between FWA availability and time-based WFC. The relationship will be more negative in Anglo than in Latin American or Asian clusters.

Hypothesis 4b: Country clusters moderate the relationship between FWA availability and strain-based WFC. The relationship will be more negative in Anglo than in Latin American or Asian clusters.

METHOD

Participants

Participants were 3,918 managers from 15 countries. Three country clusters were created following procedures carried out in previous studies (Spector et al., 2007; Gupta, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002). The Anglo cluster ($n = 1,492$) included Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United States, and the United Kingdom. The Asian cluster ($n = 1,213$) included responses from managers in Hong Kong, Korea, Japan, PR China, and Taiwan. The Latin American cluster ($n = 1,213$) comprised Argentina, Chile, Bolivia, Puerto Rico, and Peru.

The country clusters were created using procedures similar to Spector et al. (2007). Specifically, we consulted the I–C scores from the Project GLOBE (Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishii, & Bechtold, 2004), Hofstede (2001), CISMS (Spector et al., 2007), and Oishi, Diener, Lucas, and Suh (1999), who obtained ratings of I–C from Geert Hofstede and Harry Triandis. These sources showed that employees from Asian and Latin American countries scored higher in collectivism compared with employees from Anglo countries. Additionally, separating Asian, Latin American, and Anglo clusters is congruent with previous studies that aggregate countries based on shared cultural factors such as common history and geographic proximity (Gupta et al., 2002).

Measures

WFC. WFC was assessed with two subscales from the Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams (2000) work–family conflict scale. Strain-based and time-based WFC were each assessed with three items. Sample items were “I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family” for strain-based WFC and “My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like” for time-based WFC. Items were rated on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Alphas for time-based WFC were $\alpha = .86$ in Asia, $\alpha = .84$ in Anglo countries, and $\alpha = .86$ in Latin America. Alphas for strain-based WFC were $\alpha = .83$ in Asia, $\alpha = .87$ in Anglo countries, and $\alpha = .81$ in Latin America. Higher scores on each scale indicate higher levels of WFC.

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction was assessed with the three-item Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979) job satisfaction subscale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire. Only the two positively worded items were retained because we experienced problems in some of our samples with the negatively worded item that produced unacceptably low coefficient alphas. The scale had six response choices that ranged from 1 (disagree very much) to 6 (agree very much). A sample item is "All in all, I am satisfied with my job". Alphas were $\alpha = .88$ in Asia, $\alpha = .83$ in Anglo countries, and $\alpha = .64$ for the Latin American sample. Higher scores indicate higher levels of job satisfaction.

Turnover Intentions. Turnover intentions were assessed with a single item, "How often have you seriously considered quitting your current job over the past 6 months?" from Spector, Dwyer, and Jex (1988). Response choices ranged from 1 = never to 6 = extremely often. This single-item measure has been used in previous studies and has been shown to relate significantly to job satisfaction and turnover (e.g. Spector, 1991).

Flexible Work Arrangements. The availability of four types of flexible work arrangement was assessed: flextime, compressed workweek, telecommuting, and part-time work. Participants were asked, "Is the benefit given to you at work?" The availability of each form of flexibility was dummy coded as 1 = yes it is and 0 = it is not. Analysis was carried out using each practice as a separate variable.

Demographics. Data were collected concerning age in years, tenure in months, gender (1 = male, 2 = female), education level, management level from first to top, marital status (1 = married, 2 = not married), the number of children living at home, and the number of hours worked during the week. As shown in Table 1, there were small differences in age with Asian managers being younger than in Anglo and Latin American countries. Additionally, Latin American managers were more likely to have children compared with Anglo and Asian managers, and Latino tended to have higher tenure in their organisations compared with the other samples.

Scale Equivalences. Spector et al. (2007) used the same data reported in this study to test other hypotheses and showed equivalences across the three clusters for the WFC scales. Following recommendations by Riordan and Vandenberg (1994), they conducted measurement equivalence within the scales that had more than three items. Because the job satisfaction and turnover intentions scales had fewer than three items, they did not conduct equivalence analyses for these scales.

TABLE 1
Demographic Means by Country Region

<i>Measure</i>	<i>Anglo</i>	<i>Asia</i>	<i>Latino</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>F(df)</i>	<i>R²</i>
Gender	1.42 ^a	1.45 ^a	1.37 ^b	1–2	9.16 (2,3871)	.002**
Age	43.65 ^a	35.53 ^b	40.83 ^c	18–79	224.13 (2,3802)	.16**
Marital status	1.17 ^a	1.36 ^b	1.24 ^c	1–2	68.47 (2,3855)	.01**
Education	3.09 ^a	2.88 ^b	3.26 ^c	1–6	29.19 (2,3860)	.03**
Level	1.99 ^a	2.66 ^b	2.17 ^c	1–4	153.05 (2,3792)	.12**
Tenure	119.79 ^a	104.13 ^b	128.30 ^a	0–600	15.41 (2,3740)	130.68**
Children	.85 ^a	.66 ^b	1.32 ^c	0–9	104.680 (2,3742)	.06**
Working hours	4.18 ^a	4.07 ^b	4.28 ^c	1–6	13.23 (2,3892)	.01**

Note: Means with different superscripts are significantly different from one another using Bonferroni adjustments. ** $p < .05$.

Procedure

The reported data are from the second phase of the Collaborative International Study of Managerial Stress (CISMS 2). A common questionnaire was designed by a project team. The team recruited research collaborators from different countries. Collaborators were asked to administer questionnaires to at least 200 managers representative of their country. Ideally each participant would work for a separate local as opposed to a multi-national organisation with diverse industries represented. Procedures varied in individual countries for data collection, e.g. some used management associations to recruit participants while others used school alumni lists. Data were collected via web-based and paper questionnaires. In countries where English was not the native language, the questionnaire was translated by research partners who were native speakers and back-translated into English. A native English speaker double-checked for accuracy of the translation by comparing it with the original English questionnaire.

RESULTS

Correlations among the study variables by country cluster are shown in Tables 2, 3, and 4.

FWA Availability

To test Hypothesis 1, we conducted a series of ANOVAs including each specific FWA as dependent variables. To test grouping assumptions we conducted a series of ANOVAs with the country clusters as independent variables and using each variable in our study as dependent variables (see

TABLE 2
Correlations among Study Variables for the Latin American Cluster, N = 1,211

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Age	—															
2. Gender	-.19**	—														
3. Marital status	-.23**	.25**	—													
4. Education	.07*	.02	-.01	—												
5. Level	-.27**	.27**	.16**	-.12**	—											
6. Tenure	.64**	-.11**	-.19**	.01	-.12**	—										
7. Children	.04	-.14**	-.29**	-.06	-.19**	-.01	—									
8. Working hours	.10**	-.20**	-.10**	.05	-.22**	.06	.08**	—								
9. Job Satisfaction	.12**	.04	-.08*	-.07*	-.08*	.11**	.02	.08*	—							
10. Turnover Intention	-.08*	.06	.02	-.01	.11**	-.03	-.04	.05	-.31**	—						
11. Time-based WFC	-.03	.00	-.08**	-.02	-.08**	.01	.12**	.28**	-.19**	.22**	—					
12. Strain-based WFC	-.03	.06*	.02	-.04	.03	.03	-.03	.13**	-.21**	.22**	.51**	—				
13. Flextime	.02	-.08*	-.02	.04	-.13**	.01	.04	.02	.02	-.01	-.05	-.01	—			
14. Compressed WW	.02	-.01	.01	-.06	-.03	.04	.04	-.02	.09*	-.09*	-.01	-.02	.17**	—		
15. Telecommuting	.02	-.01	.01	.00	-.10**	-.01	.08*	.03	.04	-.04	.02	-.01	.33**	.31**	—	
16. Part-time	-.06	.04	.00	-.03	-.01	-.04	.02	-.02	.08*	-.12**	-.05	-.08**	.19**	.33**	.30**	—

Note: ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$.

TABLE 3
Correlations among Study Variables for the Asian Cluster, N = 1,211

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Age	—															
2. Gender	-.23**	—														
3. Marital status	-.46**	.26**	—													
4. Education	-.17**	.12**	.14**	—												
5. Level	-.09**	.10**	.15**	.04	—											
6. Tenure	.66**	-.20**	-.30**	-.23**	-.01	—										
7. Children	.21**	-.17**	-.40**	-.05	-.03	.18**	—									
8. Working hours	.04	-.19**	-.07*	-.04	-.12**	-.03	.03	—								
9. Job Satisfaction	.17**	-.04	-.14**	.04	-.11**	.06	.02	-.04	—							
10. Turnover Intention	-.22**	.14**	.18**	.01	.09**	-.18**	-.12**	.04	-.44**	—						
11. Time-based WFC	-.05	.00	-.02	.00	-.10**	-.09**	-.01	.29**	-.11**	.16**	—					
12. Strain-based WFC	-.05	.01	.03	-.14**	-.15**	-.10**	-.07*	.21**	-.13**	.19**	.54**	—				
13. Flextime	-.06*	-.01	.06	.02	.09**	-.07*	-.10**	-.03	.13**	.02	.04	-.00	—			
14. Compressed WW	-.07*	.00	.06	-.02	.05	-.04	-.09**	-.03	-.03	.05	.01	.04	.23**	—		
15. Telecommuting	-.06	.01	.09**	-.06	.04	-.08*	-.11**	-.00	.01	.07*	.03	.07*	.35**	.42**	—	
16. Part-time	-.05	.02	.04	-.07*	.09**	-.03	-.09**	-.04	-.05	.10**	.05	.01	.34**	.30**	.40**	—

Note: ** p < .01; * p < .05.

TABLE 4
Correlations among Study Variables for the Anglo Cluster, N = 1,492

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Age	—															
2. Gender	-.25**	—														
3. Marital status	-.20**	.22**	—													
4. Education	.04	.04	-.04	—												
5. Level	-.28**	.13**	.17**	.02	—											
6. Tenure	.39**	-.12**	-.12**	-.13**	-.21**	—										
7. Children	-.11**	-.14**	-.17**	.02	-.08**	-.03	—									
8. Working hours	.05	-.15**	-.05	-.01	-.23**	.06*	.01	—								
9. Job Satisfaction	.20**	-.01	-.05	.01	-.16**	.10**	.02	.02	—							
10. Turnover Intention	-.16**	.05	.02	.00	.10**	-.05	.01	.08**	-.62**	—						
11. Time-based WFC	-.10**	-.04	-.01	-.10**	-.10**	.00	.13**	.41**	-.23**	.23**	—					
12. Strain-based WFC	-.17**	.11**	.04	-.10**	.03	-.04	.02	.20**	-.34**	.34**	.54**	—				
13. Flextime	.11**	-.01	-.01	.16**	-.02	-.01	.02	-.05	.15**	-.11**	-.17**	-.16**	—			
14. Compressed WW	-.02	.04	.01	.10**	-.01	.04	.03	-.13**	.09**	-.07**	-.12**	-.09**	.33**	—		
15. Telecommuting	.10**	-.03	-.07*	.24**	.03	-.06*	.05	.07*	.10**	-.05	-.10**	-.12**	.34**	.26**	—	
16. Part-time	-.14**	.17**	.02	-.03	.04	-.06*	.01	-.16**	-.02	-.01	-.07**	-.03	.15**	.24**	.10**	—

Note: ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$.

TABLE 5
Comparison of Variable Means by Region

<i>Measure</i>	<i>Anglo</i>	<i>Asia</i>	<i>Latino</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>F(df)</i>	<i>R²</i>
Time-based WIF conflict	3.22 ^a	3.09 ^b	3.17 ^a	1–5	6.08 (2,3915)	.001**
Strain-based WIF conflict	3.10 ^a	2.91 ^b	3.02 ^c	1–5	13.19 (2,3915)	.01**
Turnover Intentions	2.60 ^a	2.61 ^a	2.21 ^b	1–6	27.38 (2,3612)	.04**
Job Satisfaction	4.94 ^a	4.00 ^b	4.89 ^c	1–7	173.884 (2,2785)	.26**
Flexitime available	.67 ^a	.26 ^b	.49 ^c	0–1	222.715 (2,3517)	.04**
Telecommuting available	.35 ^a	.13 ^b	.14 ^b	0–1	104.025 (2,2980)	.02**
Compressed Working Week	.24 ^a	.12 ^b	.07 ^c	0–1	74.93 (2,3426)	.01*
Part-time	.38 ^a	.14 ^b	.13 ^c	0–1	150.711 (2,3423)	.02**

Note: Means with different superscripts are significantly different from one another using Bonferroni adjustments. ** $p < .05$.

Table 5). Given the statistical power achieved with our large sample size, all of the effects were significant. The results show small effect sizes of comparisons between countries for each dependent variable. Country clusters accounted for less than 2 per cent of variance in strain-based, time-based WFC, and turnover intentions, and for 26 per cent of variance in job satisfaction and 8 per cent of variance in turnover intentions. Hence, the results showed homogeneity within country clusters with regard to the variables included in our study.

The results showed differences between countries for flexitime $R^2 = .04$, $p < .01$, available telecommute $R^2 = .02$, $p < .01$, compressed working week $R^2 = .01$, $p < .01$, and part-time work $R^2 = .02$, $p < .01$. See Table 5 for results of post-hoc analyses. In support of Hypothesis 1, Anglo managers were more likely to report working in organisations where all types of FWA were available as compared to Asians and Latin American managers.

FWA and Job Satisfaction

To test Hypotheses 2 to 4 we used hierarchical regressions. In the first step we included the control variables. In the second step we included our independent variables dummy coded and country clusters. In the third step we included the two-way product of each FWA and country cluster (see Tables 6 and 7). We conducted analyses with and without controls. Results testing Hypotheses 2 and 3 did not change. Results testing Hypothesis 4 without controls changed slightly as reported below. However, throughout the text we only report results with controls.

The results of the regression analysis pertaining to Hypothesis 2 showed that the entire model significantly predicted job satisfaction, $F(17, 1948) =$

TABLE 6
Results of Moderating Effects of Country Clusters on the FWA with Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

	<i>Job Satisfaction</i>				<i>Turnover Intentions</i>			
	β	β	t	ΔR^2	β	β	t	ΔR^2
Age	0.02	0.14	5.80**	.07**	-0.02	-0.14	-6.34**	.03**
Gender	0.15	0.06	2.58**		0.18	0.06	3.00**	
Level	-0.08	-0.07	-2.93**		NA	NA	NA	
Work hours	NA	NA	NA		0.16	0.11	5.42**	
Asia	-0.45	-0.17	-4.36**	.05**	-0.46	-0.15	-4.51**	.01**
Latin	0.24	0.09	2.23*		-0.51	-0.16	-4.53**	
Flextime	0.22	0.09	2.07*		-0.29	-0.10	-2.79**	
Telecommuting	0.13	0.04	1.27		0.00	0.00	-0.01	
Part-time	-0.10	-0.03	-1.08		0.07	0.02	0.70	
Compressed	0.16	0.05	1.51		-0.13	-0.03	-1.16	
Flextime \times Latin	-0.29	-0.08	-1.99*	.01**	0.43	0.10	2.80**	.01**
Flextime \times Asia	0.15	0.03	0.95		0.21	0.04	1.35	
Telecommuting \times Asia	-0.08	-0.01	-0.38		0.18	0.02	0.89	
Telecommuting \times Latin	0.04	0.01	0.21		-0.01	0.00	-0.06	
Part-time \times Latin	0.33	0.06	1.90		-0.41	-0.05	-2.07*	
Part-time \times Asia	-0.16	-0.02	-0.86		0.25	0.04	1.36	
Compressed \times Latin	0.02	0.00	0.07		-0.21	-0.02	-0.84	
Compressed \times Asia	-0.32	-0.04	-1.56		0.16	0.02	0.79	

Note: The unstandardised regression coefficients presented are those derived at the third step B = unstandardised regression coefficient; ΔR^2 = increment when adding product terms to regression equations hierarchically. Interaction terms involve the dummy-coded variables numbered 0–1. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$.

16.74, $R^2 = .13$ **). However, only one interaction uniquely predicted job satisfaction. Specifically, the product term of flextime with the Latin American versus Anglo clusters was significant.

Based on Aiken and West's (1991) suggestion, we plotted simple regression lines of job satisfaction (Y) on flextime (X) as a function of country clusters. For testing the flextime and part-time work interaction, a "Z" value for part-time work and flextime was defined as 1 for available and 0 for not available (see Figure 1).

Slope analyses showed a positive relationship between flextime availability and job satisfaction for the Anglo cluster. Specifically, the slope for the Anglo cluster was positive and significantly different from zero, $t(17, 1948) = 3.32$, $p < .01$. However, the relationship was not significant for the Latin American cluster, $t(17, 1948) = 1.26$, *ns*. Hence, Hypothesis 2, which stated that country cluster would moderate the relationship between FWA availability and job satisfaction, was partially supported. While there was a positive relationship

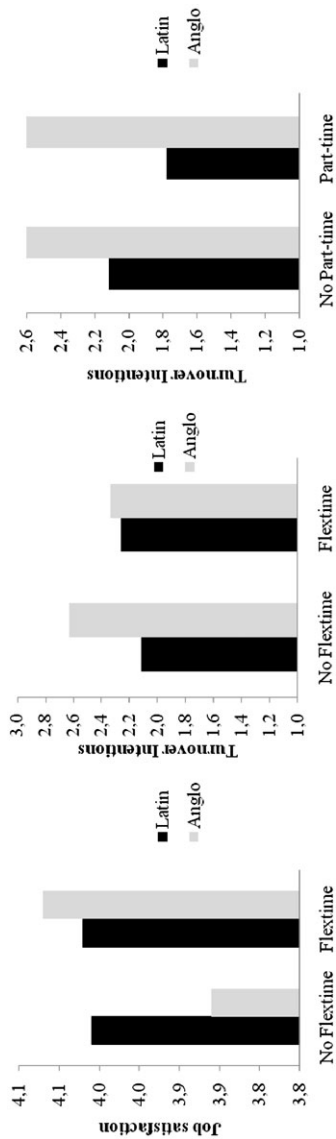


FIGURE 1. Interaction between flexible working arrangements and country cluster on job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

between flextime availability with job satisfaction for the Anglo cluster, the same was not found in the Latin American cluster.

FWAs and Turnover Intentions

As shown in Table 6, the entire model significantly predicted turnover intentions, $F(18, 2.510) = 8.51$, $R^2 = .06^{**}$, with the product terms for both part-time work and flextime availability with the Latin American versus Anglo cluster contributing uniquely.

Figure 1 illustrates these interactions. The results showed that while there is a negative relationship between flextime work and turnover intentions for the Anglo cluster with a negative slope significantly different from zero, $t(18, 2510) = -2.09$, $p < .01$, the relationship was not significant for the Latin American cluster, $t(18, 2510) = -1.04$, *ns*. Further, there was a negative relationship between part-time work availability and turnover intentions for managers in the Latin American cluster with $t(18, 2510) = -3.04$, $p < .01$. However, the relationship was not significant for managers in the Anglo cluster, $t(18, 2510) = 0.7$, *ns*.

Hence, Hypothesis 3, which stated that country cluster moderates the relationship between FWA availability and turnover intention, was partially supported. The interaction was significant with regard to flextime and part-time work availability and when comparing Anglo versus Latin American countries. However, it was not significant when examining other FWA and comparing the Anglo with the Asian cluster.

FWAs and Time-Based WFC

Table 7 reports results of the regressions testing Hypothesis 4a. The entire model predicted time-based WFC, $F(19, 2772) = 26.60$, $R^2 = .16^{**}$. Further, there was a significant interaction effect for flextime comparing the Anglo cluster with the Asia and Latin American clusters.

Figure 2 shows that the relationship between flextime availability and time-based WFC was negative for the Anglo cluster, $t(20, 2.632) = -3.53$, $p < .01$. However, it was non-significant for the Latin American cluster, $t(20, 2.632) = -.14$, and the Asian cluster, $t(13, 3.049) = .70$, *ns*. Hence, Hypothesis 4a was partially supported. There was a negative relationship of flextime availability and time-based WFC for Anglo managers but not for managers from other clusters.

FWA and Strain-Based WFC

Table 7 reports the results from the regression analyses conducted to test Hypothesis 4b. The entire model predicted strain-based WFC, $F(20, 2.632) =$

TABLE 7
Results of Moderating Effects of Country Clusters and FWA on Time-based WFC and Strain-Based WFC

	<i>Time-based WFC</i>				<i>Strain-based WFC</i>			
	β	β	t	ΔR^2	β	β	t	ΔR^2
Age	-0.01	-0.10	-5.02**	.14**	0.00	-0.04	-2.10*	.06**
Gender	0.10	0.05	2.62**		0.18	0.09	4.54**	
Level	-0.05	-0.06	-2.92**		-0.04	-0.05	-2.29**	
Education	-0.04	-0.05	-2.84**		-0.08	-0.10	-5.37**	
Working hours	0.34	0.35	18.49**		0.19	0.20	10.19**	
Children	0.06	0.07	3.90**		-0.03	-0.03	-1.53	
Asia	-0.43	-0.21	-6.49**	.01**	-0.54	-0.26	-7.85**	.02**
Latin	-0.33	-0.16	-4.61**		-0.31	-0.15	-4.19**	
Flextime	-0.25	-0.13	-3.70**		-0.24	-0.13	-3.43**	
Telecommuting	-0.09	-0.04	-1.43		-0.09	-0.04	-1.33	
Part-time	0.04	0.02	0.58		0.03	0.01	0.40	
Compressed	-0.09	-0.03	-1.31		-0.06	-0.02	-0.76	
Flextime \times Latin	0.24	0.09	2.53*	.01**	0.31	0.12	3.12**	.01**
Flextime \times Asia	0.30	0.09	2.97**		0.18	0.05	1.72	
Telecommuting \times Asia	0.07	0.01	0.55		0.29	0.06	2.19*	
Telecommuting \times Latin	0.11	0.02	0.95		0.01	0.00	0.07	
Part-time \times Latin	-0.20	-0.04	-1.72		-0.31	-0.06	-2.54*	
Part-time \times Asia	0.14	0.03	1.21		-0.05	-0.01	-0.42	
Compressed \times Latin	0.21	0.03	1.43		0.10	0.02	0.67	
Compressed \times Asia	0.09	0.02	0.69		0.14	0.03	1.04	

Note: The unstandardised regression coefficients presented are those derived at the third step $B =$ unstandardised regression coefficient; $\Delta R^2 =$ increment when adding product terms to regression equations hierarchically. Interaction terms involve the dummy-coded variables numbered 0-1. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$.

12.29, $R^2 = .09$ **. Further, there was a significant interaction effect for both part-time work and flextime comparing Latin American clusters with the Anglo cluster, and for telecommuting comparing Asian and Anglo clusters. When conducting regressions without controls, the results showed that flex-time with Asia versus the Anglo cluster was significant.

Figure 2 shows that the relationship between flextime availability and strain-based WFC was negative for the Anglo cluster, $t(20, 2,632) = -3.39$, $p < .01$. However, it was non-significant for managers in the Latin American cluster, $t(19, 2,727) = -.94$, *ns*. Further, there was a significant positive relationship between telecommuting and strain-based WFC in the Asian cluster, $t(19, 2,727) = 2.83$, $p < .01$, while the same was not found in the Anglo cluster, $t(19, 2,727) = -1.27$, *ns*. Lastly, part-time work was negatively related with strain-based WFC for the Latin American cluster, $t(19, 2,727) = -4.42$, $p < .01$, but non-significant in the Anglo cluster, $t(19, 2,727) = .31$, *ns*.

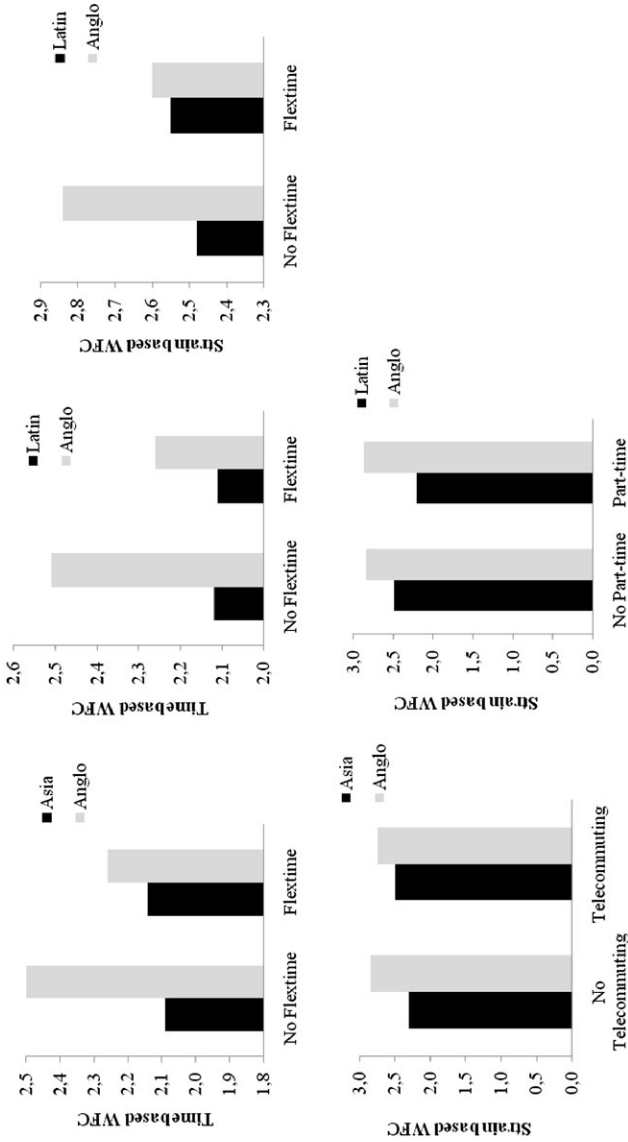


FIGURE 2. Interaction between flexible working arrangements and country cluster on WFC.

DISCUSSION

Powell et al. (2009) noted that few empirical studies exist that address the work–life interface cross-culturally. This paper is the first empirical study to examine differences in FWA availability across Latin American, Anglo, and Asian countries. Based on institutional theory (Meyer & Rowan, 1977), we argued that cultural expectations reflecting levels of I–C are institutional pressures that explain the adoption of business practices congruent with cultural values and norms. Our results indicate that managers in individualistic (i.e. Anglo) countries were generally more likely to report working in companies that offer flextime, compressed working week, part-time work, and telecommuting compared with managers in collectivistic (i.e. Asian and Latin American) countries. These results stress the importance of examining the impact of culture on FWA adoption or on the adoption of any other organisational policy.

This paper also reports the first investigation to examine the moderating effect of country cluster on FWA availability with work-to-family conflict, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions relationships. Specifically, managers in the Anglo cluster working in organisations that offered flextime were more satisfied with their job, less likely to report turnover intentions, and less likely to report experiencing time-based and strain-based WFC. However, the same relationships were not found with regard to the Latin American cluster, and, in the case of the relationship of FWA with time-based WFC, in the Asian cluster.

Interestingly, managers in the Latin American cluster who worked in companies offering part-time work had lower turnover intentions and strain-based WFC. The unique findings between the Asian and the Latin American clusters suggest that mechanisms other than I–C are needed to explain these differences. For example, research has shown that some Anglo, Asian, and Latin American countries differ with regard to cultural orientations such as mastery orientation (Schwartz, 1999). According to Sagiv and Schwartz (2007), “The cultural orientation labeled *mastery* encourages active self-assertion in order to master, direct and change the natural and social environment to attain group or personal goals (values: ambition, success, daring, competence” (p. 180). Sagiv and Schwartz (2007) reported data from 76 national groups with regard to cultural values, showing that Anglo countries such as the USA are higher in mastery orientation compared with Japan. Further, Japan and the USA were higher in mastery orientation compared with countries in Latin America such as Chile, Mexico, Venezuela, and Brazil. If this is the case, spending less time fulfilling working roles may lead to higher job satisfaction in countries in Latin America because it allows employees to spend more time with the family or caring for other values besides professional recognition. We encourage more empirical studies

exploring the benefits of part-time jobs as an FWA in Latin American countries and examining other explanatory factors.

We also found differences in the relationship of some FWA and outcome variables for Asian managers, particularly with regard to WFC. Specifically, while flextime was negatively related to time-based WFC in the Anglo cluster, this relationship was not found in the Asian cluster. Further, managers from the Asian cluster who worked in organisations in which telecommuting was available were more likely to report strain-based WFC. Managers in Asian countries could have interpreted the availability of telecommuting as a sign that their companies are not committed and are not willing to build strong ties with them. Future empirical studies should investigate the signals that the availability and use of telecommuting can send to employees under different cultural contexts.

Further, while flextime was related to outcomes for Anglo managers, and part-time work was related to outcomes for Latin American managers, we found that telecommuting and a compressed working week did not relate to outcomes across cultures. Perhaps these findings reflect unmeasured moderators of these relationships (Allen & Shockley, 2009; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Shockley & Allen, 2007). Future studies should examine the relationship of FWA availability with outcome variables across cultures using a sample of general workers, and including other possible moderators (e.g. use of FWA, frequency, and intensity).

Lastly, results showed a different pattern when comparing the Latin American and the Asian clusters. Specifically, telecommuting demonstrated less favorable relationships for managers in the Asian cluster as compared to managers in the Latin American cluster. Further, part-time was favorable for Latin Americans but not for Asians. There could be different explanations for these findings. First, in this sample, managers in the Asian cluster could have been higher in collectivism compared with managers in the Latin American cluster. This could explain the positive relationship of telecommuting with strain-based WFC in Asia but not in Latin America. In fact, three of the sources we used to measure I–C showed that Asians are lower in individualism than are Latin Americans (see Gelfand et al., 2004; Hofstede, 2001; Oishi et al., 1999).

Limitations

The limitations of this study should be acknowledged. An important factor is the typical challenge of directly comparing results across countries with dissimilar cultures and languages. Although we tested the WFC scale for measurement invariance and transportability across countries and languages, we cannot assume that the nature of those constructs is similar across countries. Additionally, scales could be contaminated by cultural response ten-

dencies (e.g. Iwata, Umesue, Egashira, Hiro, Mizoue, Mishima & Nagata, 1998; Triandis, 1995; Van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). Thus, comparisons between country clusters must be read with caution.

Second, we did not rule out the possibility of other explanations such as economic and political reasons or other cultural differences. These other differences may explain the uneven pattern in our findings. For example, another possible explanation for these findings that could be further explored is the concept of monochronic versus polychronic cultures defined by Hall (1959). Individuals from more polychronic cultures prefer doing several things simultaneously and may not use traditional planning. Cultures where polychronism is predominant may have difficulty working under flextime. Latin American countries may be in general more polychronic cultures compared with Asian ones. This may explain why flextime had no positive effects for Latin Americans. So far, research has not used this concept to examine country differences and the use of time and FWA. More cross-cultural studies using this concept or exploring other cultural variables to understand these differences are desirable and needed so that we can start accumulating findings and develop a stronger theoretical rationale to explain cross-cultural differences in FWA and WFC.

Another limitation in our study is that our measure of FWA availability did not capture actual frequency in use. As previous studies have shown, the intensity of using certain FWAs moderates the relationship between FWA use and working outcomes (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). However, the purpose of our study was to understand how culture might influence the adoption of these practices by organisations and how its availability can send signals that lead to different consequences for employees across cultures. Future studies examining the consequences of FWA frequency and intensity of usage on employee outcomes should be conducted to better understand the role of FWA on important employee outcomes across cultures. It is also important to conduct longitudinal studies investigating FWA use over time as previous studies have found that the benefits of flexible working arrangements diminish over time (Baltes et al., 1999). Further, it is important to capture whether telecommuting is optional. For example, if telecommuting is used in certain countries only as a way to reduce costs of resources, then it will likely lead to negative consequences, which are associated with forced telecommuting.

Implications and Conclusions

This study is the first to examine the role of FWA availability across Anglo, Latin American, and Asian clusters. Our results show the importance of considering the cultural context when implementing FWA practices. To our knowledge, so far only one study has examined the relationship between

FWA and work–family interaction (e.g. work–family balance) across countries (Lyness & Kropf, 2005). The current study extends the work of Lyness and Kropf (2005) outside European countries. The lack of studies examining FWA in Asian and Latin American countries is problematic given that the success of managerial practices depends on the fit between cultural assumptions inherent in organisational practices and the employees (Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997). Because the initial implementation of FWA implies additional costs to the organisation (Coltrin & Barendse, 1981), it is imperative to inform global business leaders of the effectiveness of FWA practices in certain cultures before attempts are made to export these practices to different countries. Based on our study, it may be premature to implement certain types of flexible practices in countries where the number of extended family members living at home tends to be larger (e.g. Brazil), the houses tend to be smaller (e.g. Japan), the technology is deficient, and where individuals are more likely to prefer strong social ties. However, more study is needed to better guide practitioners. We hope that this study encourages others to examine possible effects of FWA on other outcome variables not examined here such as family-to-work conflict, work–family enrichment, and other employee attitude variables.

The fact that the availability of flextime examined in this paper did not relate to lower WFC in managers from Latin America and Asia is problematic as research has shown that work-to-family conflict is also associated with negative consequences for employees in collectivistic countries (see Aryee, Fields, & Luk, 1999; Luk & Shaffer, 2005). As such, collectivistic employees as much as individualistic employees need organisational support and programs that will help them cope with work–family conflict. Hence, with this paper we are not only calling for a better understanding of the cultural barriers that may hinder the applicability of certain Western-made practices across the globe but we are urging companies and researchers to search for new culturally sensitive solutions to help employees across the globe to cope with work–family conflict. For example, it is possible that employees in collectivistic cultures will have a better perception of FWA if they are also offered other practices that help them build social ties and spend time with their family. According to Aryee et al. (1999), in some collectivistic societies like China, employees place greater importance on family roles and feel the need to spend more time with family members even though they expect to work many hours in order to acquire the means to support family members. As such, in some of these countries other arrangements besides telecommuting could be offered so that employees spend time with family members. Yang (2010) suggests that, “organization-sponsored social activities, outings, and sports that encourage family involvement are effective ways to foster healthy harmonious employee relations, and can help employees expand their network” (p. 176). These suggestions show that the company can offer

flexibility not only by letting employees work at home, but also by helping employees integrate their family into the workplace. In fact, some companies have already started adopting culturally sensitive practices to help employees integrate work and family roles. For example, Caparas (2010) explains that a company called Sierra Atlantic, with its headquarters in the USA but with offices in India, introduced a “take your parents to work” day, which recognises the importance of having parental guidance in the India culture. She reports that this practice reduced the turnover rate to 50 per cent for new college graduates. The possibilities are unlimited and go beyond the Western-made solutions proposed in this paper.

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