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Work Flexibility and Job Satisfaction: The Mediating Role of Employee Empowerment

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Work Flexibility and Job Satisfaction: The Mediating Role of Employee Empowerment

By

Nizar Shaker Yaghi

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

Of

Executive Doctorate in Business

In the Robinson College of Business

Of

Georgia State University

GEORGIA STATE UNIVERSITY
ROBINSON COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

2015

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ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation was prepared under the direction of the *Nizar S. Yaghi* Dissertation Committee. It has been approved and accepted by all members of that committee, and it has been accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Executive Doctorate in Business Administration in the J. Mack Robinson College of Business of Georgia State University.

Richard Phillips, Dean

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ABSTRACT

Work Flexibility and Job Satisfaction: The Mediating Role of Employee Empowerment

By

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Job satisfaction has effects that touch both the employee and employer, these effects include career success, work-family facilitation, turnover intentions, engagement, absenteeism, and quality of work. Having work flexibility measures in the work place can lead to improved job satisfaction. In this dissertation, we study the relationship between work flexibility and job satisfaction through investigating the mediating role of employee empowerment. Building on extant theories, a partial least square structural model is developed to study the relationships between work flexibility, empowerment, and job satisfaction. Perceptions of pay and turnover intentions are included in the model as dependent constructs. The model shows strong links between work flexibility and job satisfaction. Also, it is concluded that empowerment plays an important role in mediating the relationship between work flexibility and job satisfaction. It is observed that empowerment leads to improved perceptions of pay and that improved perceptions of pay together with job satisfaction lead to lower turnover intentions.

I INTRODUCTION

Salient societal changes have occurred over the past half century. Women have become an integral part of the workforce, family reliance on more than one earner to make ends meet has increased, and more adults are choosing to continue their education. These societal changes coupled with care for children and elders have inspired the need and desire for more flexibility in the workplace (Whitehouse.gov, 2010). The US Bureau of Labor Statistics reported in May 2004 that over 27 million full-time wage and salary workers had flexible work schedules that allowed them to vary the time they began or ended work (bls.gov, 2004). These trends show that rigid work regimes look out of place in today's workplace as more firms adapt to the changing society. Such trends are not restricted to a small number of countries; in a survey that included 16,000 businesses and 88 countries, it was reported that 81% were offering their staff alternative options to fixed office working (regus.com, 2012).

The importance of work flexibility is not limited to businesses only; the need for work flexibility has reached the highest levels of federal government. On June 23, 2014, the White House issued a presidential memorandum to enhance work flexibility and work life programs. The memorandum outlined directions involving rights to request work schedule flexibilities, expanding access to work flexibilities, and rolling out initiatives that encourage agencies and employees to embrace these programs (Whitehouse.gov, 2014). Flexible work arrangements refer to giving employees control over when, where, or how much they work (Glass & Estes, 1997; Kelly & Moen, 2007). There are various types of work flexibility; we will focus on the two most common types in this study. The two most common types of work flexibility are telework and flex time (worldatwork.org, 2013). We view telework as a spatial dimension of work flexibility where the employee can work away from the office (e.g. working from home to care for a sick dependent). Flex time on the other hand can be viewed as the temporal dimension of work flexibility (e.g. flexible work start/stop times). The Society of Human Resources reported that work flexibility has become more main stream in recent years and identified some of the underlying causes: Technological advances (smart phones, VPN, virtual desktops, etc.), increased global

competition, and varying needs of different generations in the workplace (SHRM, 2008). Many firms view work flexibility as an enabler for employee recruiting and retention as well as a help to manage work and family life (employmentmattersblog.com, 2014). Work flexibility is a benefit that is shared between employers and employees. It is arguably hard to conceive a large number of employees who do not desire some level of work flexibility; Blair-Loy and Wharton (2002) confirm this conjecture as they referred to such arrangements as being “highly desired by the contemporary workforce.”

These societal changes and trends have made work flexibility a topic of interest for researchers investigating its effects on work, family, and the employee. Findings from past research mostly report favorable outcomes. Such outcomes include high levels of job satisfaction, low levels of job stress, reduction of overtime, decreased absenteeism, and increased productivity (DeCarufel & Schaan, 1990; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; L. T. Thomas & Ganster, 1995). But not all reported outcomes of work flexibility are positive, some studies have asserted negative outcomes for work flexibility, such outcomes are related to compromising the relationships and ties between co-workers due to the limited contact between them (Masuda et al., 2012). One study reported that loss of “face time” is related to depth of ties between co-workers (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Another main negative effect is resource-based in that off-office environments may not be the most adequate places to work (Hofstede, 2001). While research on work flexibility (or alternative work arrangements) and its effects on individual behavior, and specifically job satisfaction, is informing, mixed results have been reported and thus questioning the credibility of it. Bailey and Kurland (2002) confirm this observation and assert that little clear evidence exists that alternative work arrangements increase job satisfaction. They call for future research that may provide richer insights by: (1) considering group and organizational level impacts and understanding who flexible work arrangements affect (i.e. flexible worker demographics), (2) reconsidering why people elect flexible work arrangements (e.g. distance, family) and, (3) emphasizing theory-building and links to existing organizational theories.

In this present work, we build on prior literature and aim to provide richer insights on the effects of work flexibility on job satisfaction. We focus on job satisfaction as a key construct as numerous studies have asserted its importance and relation to such favorable outcomes as reducing turn over intentions (Porter & Ayman, 2010), engagement (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002), career success (Leslie, Tae-Youn, Si Anh, & Flaherty Manchester, 2012), and work-family facilitation (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Other studies have identified more unfavorable outcomes related to job dissatisfaction; these include absenteeism, poor quality work, and sabotage (Klein, Ralls, Smith-Major, & Douglas, 2000). In studying job satisfaction, we focus on turnover intentions as a tangible end result that we wish to investigate.

We view work flexibility as a form of management sharing authority and control with employees and enabling them to perform their tasks, in other words, we view work flexibility as a means to employee empowerment. Thomas and Tymon (1994) hypothesized that empowerment would yield higher levels of job satisfaction. They state "Because the task assessments [i.e. the facets of empowerment] generate intrinsic rewards associated with the job, they should be positively related to job satisfaction." We thus use empowerment as the theoretical lens to study employee behavior in a work flexibility setting. We consider employee empowerment as a mediating construct of work flexibility effects on job satisfaction. The relationship between work flexibility and employee empowerment has not been rigorously investigated in prior research. We wish to contribute to bridging this gap by exploring the work flexibility-empowerment relationship with empirical data. The research question that is sought after in this work is:

Does employee empowerment play a role in mediating the relationship between work flexibility and job satisfaction?

II RESEARCH STRUCTURE AND EXPECTED CONTRIBUTIONS

To provide a structure for this research, we adopt the style composition developed by Mathiassen, Chiasson, and Germonprez (2012). The style composition delineates the research work into five main elements, these elements are: Area of concern, real world problem setting, framing of argument (theory about the area of concern and theory independent of the area of concern), method, and contributions. In this dissertation, the area of concern is work flexibility. The real world problem setting is the effects of work flexibility on employee job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The framing of the argument (theory about the area of concern) is hypothesized relationships between work flexibility, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. The framing of the argument independent of the area of concern is employee empowerment. The method is a survey using Crowdsourcing as a data collection tool and structural equation modeling as the analysis tool. There are three components to the contributions; contributions to the area of concern, contributions to the framing of argument, and contributions to the method. The contribution to the area of concern is to empirically investigate the effects of work flexibility on job satisfaction. The contribution to the framing of argument is the use of employee empowerment theory to investigate the effects of work flexibility on job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The contribution to the method is the development of a work flexibility model using survey responses from Crowdsourcing. The table below provides a summary of the style composition elements as well as their application in this work.

Table 1 Style Composition Elements and Their Application

Element (Mathiassen et al., 2012)	Application in this dissertation
A (Area of concern)	Work flexibility
P (real world problem setting)	Effects of work flexibility on employee job satisfaction and turnover intentions
F: framing of argument <ul style="list-style-type: none">• F_A: theory about A• F_I: theory independent of A	F _A : Hypothesized relationships between work flexibility, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions F _I : Employee empowerment
M: method (literature on M)	Survey using Crowdsourcing. Structural equation modeling
C: contribution (to A, F, M?)	C _A : Empirically investigate the effects of work flexibility on job satisfaction C _F : Use of employee empowerment theory to investigate the effects of work flexibility on job satisfaction and turnover intentions C _M : Development of a work flexibility model using survey responses from Crowdsourcing

The above table summarizes the main expected contributions of this work, these are three fold: (1) Empirically investigate the effects of work flexibility on job satisfaction; (2) Evaluate the relationship between work flexibility and turnover intentions; (3) Study the mediating role of empowerment.

The rest of the dissertation is outlined as follows: A review of relevant literature is provided followed by an introduction of the research model. The next sections cover data collection and data analysis followed by hypotheses testing. An evaluation of the model is then presented followed by a discussion on the findings of this research. The dissertation concludes with a discussion on practical implications and limitations and future research.

III LITERATURE REVIEW

III.1 Work flexibility

Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, and Neuman (1999) conducted a seminal meta-analytic study where they investigated the effects of flexible and compressed work schedules on work-related outcomes. 39 studies were investigated in this analysis; the outcomes included productivity/performance, job satisfaction, absenteeism, and satisfaction with work schedule. They found that the positive effects of flexible and compressed workweek schedules were dependent on the outcome under consideration. The presence of moderators was confirmed (the lack of consideration of moderators was speculated as a reason for mixed results in past research). Degree of flexibility and elapsed time since schedule intervention were identified as variables that moderate the effects of work schedules on outcomes (e.g. highly flexible schedules were less effective in comparison to less flexible schedules). They also found that the effect sizes for the outcomes were significantly different (e.g. the effect size associated with absenteeism was significantly larger than that for productivity). This work suggests that a curvilinear relationship exists between the positive effects of flexible and compressed work schedules and related outcomes. It also suggests that sizes of flexible work schedule effects on the outcomes under consideration differ significantly.

Work-family literature can inform research on work flexibility. More specifically, work-family conflict (or interference or balance) is a construct that has been researched in this literature. The research focuses on the causes and consequences of such conflict. In conducting a meta-analysis that combined the results of 60 studies, Byron (2005) investigated the influencing factors on work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (FIW). The antecedents of work-family conflict were classified into three categories: work domain variables (e.g. schedule flexibility and job stress), non-work domain variables (e.g. marital conflict and childcare), and individual and demographic variables (e.g. gender and income). She found that work factors related more strongly to WIF, and some non-work

factors were more strongly related to FIW. Another finding was that employee demographics (e.g. gender, marital status) were poorly related to WIF and FIW. The findings of Byron (2005) assert that WIF and FIW have unique antecedents. These results support the matching domain perspective which posits that antecedents and consequences are contained in the same domain. For example, job satisfaction is related to work-family conflict and marital satisfaction is related to family-work conflict (Nohe & Sonntag, 2014).

Telecommuting (or telework) is an alternative work arrangement in which employees perform tasks elsewhere that are normally done in a primary or central workplace, for at least some portion of their work schedule, using electronic media to interact with others inside and outside the organization (Baruch, 1997; Diane & Kurland, 2002; Feldman & Gainey, 1997). In investigating the psychological mediators and individual consequences of telecommuting, Gajendran and Harrison (2007) constructed a theoretical framework and meta-analysis of 46 studies. They found that telecommuting had small (but mainly beneficial) effects on such outcomes as perceived autonomy and work-family conflict. Similar to the findings of Baltes et al. (1999), they found that the effects of telecommuting were related to their degree (or intensity) with some negative effects on workplace relations for higher intensity levels of telecommuting. They also discovered that increased job satisfaction and lower turnover intent and role stress were associated with this type of work arrangement.

Cotti, Haley, and Miller (2014) studied how workers' job satisfaction levels correlate with workplace flexibility. Using individual-level data from a national study, the authors delineated work flexibility into five schedule-based components and correlated them with job satisfaction. Through their regression analysis, they found that workplace flexibilities correlated with an 8.1 per cent increase in job satisfaction. They also found that wages did not significantly influence job satisfaction.

Turnover intentions are inversely related to job satisfaction; the lower the job satisfaction the higher the intentions for turnover (Porter & Ayman, 2010). Using the matching and cross-domain

perspectives, Nohe and Sonntag (2014) investigated the mediating effects of social support on turnover intentions caused by work-family conflicts. They wrote:

“Matching-hypothesis assumes that the primary effect of WFC [Work-family conflict] and FWC [Family-work conflict] on domain-specific consequences lies within the sending domain (e.g., WFC primarily affects job satisfaction and FWC primarily affects marital satisfaction). According to the cross-domain perspective, however, the primary effect of WFC and FWC lies within the receiving domain (e.g., WFC primarily affects marital satisfaction and FWC primarily affects job satisfaction).”

Their findings supported the matching domain perspective in that WFC predicted increases in turnover intentions, while increases in FWC did not. They also concluded that the relationship between WFC and increases in turnover intentions was buffered by work–family specific leader support but not by work–family specific support from family and friends.

In an investigation focused on individual perception, Lee, Zvonkovic, and Crawford (2014) studied work-family relations (i.e. conflicts and facilitations) focusing on the perception of role balance of 274 married and full-time employed women. They found that satisfaction with experience in one sphere (e.g. workplace) was more significant than the amount of hours spent in that sphere and that spousal support was more significant than supervisor support in promoting feelings of role balance.

Employee engagement is a construct that is related to job satisfaction. Harter et al. (2002) defined employee engagement as “An individual’s involvement and satisfaction with, as well as enthusiasm for, their work.” Sarti (2014) explored the role of job resources in determining employees’ engagement at work. Through a hierarchical regression analysis on a sample of 167 caregivers, she concluded that “work engagement among caregivers in the long term care sector is significantly influenced by job resources.”

Another outcome related to job satisfaction is career success. In an effort to determine effects of work flexibility practices on career success, Leslie et al. (2012) used signaling and attribution techniques on data collected from a Fortune 500 organization, the data included responses from 482 employees and

366 managers. They asserted that the effects of work flexibility practices on career success were mediated by the type of attributions made by supervisors. When supervisors made productivity attributions (i.e. they associated flexible work practices with high employee commitment), use of work flexibility practices resulted in career premiums, conversely, when supervisors made personal life attributions (i.e. they associated flexible work practices with low employee commitment), use of work flexibility practices resulted in career penalties.

III.2 Employee empowerment

The origin of the word “empower” goes back to the year 1650; “em” means to “furnish” and “power” means “to be able or ability” thus empower means to “furnish ability” or enable”, to give power or authority (Dictionary.com). Spreitzer (1995) defines empowerment as “increased task motivation resulting from an individual's positive orientation to his or her work role.” Empowerment is a concept that over the past decades has grown in prominence for both researchers and practitioners (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Several views of empowerment have been expressed in the literature; one of these views is sharing control and authority between management and employees. Another view focuses on motivation and enabling employees to perform their tasks. Conger and Kanungo (1988) favored the latter view and proposed to view empowerment as “a motivational construct—meaning to enable rather than simply to delegate.” Although they favored the motivational construct view, they did not dismiss delegation and viewed it as a possible subset of the overall empowerment construct. Conger and Kanungo (1988) conceptualized empowerment using the self-efficacy notion of Bandura (1986) that views empowerment as referring to a process whereby an individual's belief in his or her self-efficacy is enhanced. Conger and Kanungo (1988) theorized five stages of the empowerment process starting with conditions leading to a psychological state of powerlessness (stage 1) and ending with a stage leading to behavioral effects (stage 5). They also identified four contextual factors that influence beliefs of self-efficacy (and thus empowerment or powerlessness): Organizational factors, supervisory style, reward system, and job design.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) built on the work of Conger and Kanungo (1988) and developed a model of empowerment in which they proposed four psychological cognitions that contribute to enhanced intrinsic motivation. The psychological cognitions are meaningfulness (or meaning), competence, choice (or self-determination), and impact. Spreitzer (1995) developed a scale to assess the four psychological components developed by Thomas and Velthouse (1990). In her seminal work, Spreitzer (1995) deployed structural equation modeling to test hypotheses concerning antecedents and consequences to the empowerment construct. The following is a tabulation of the descriptions of the psychological empowerment components from the work of Spreitzer (1995).

Table 2 Descriptions Of Psychological Empowerment Components (Spreitzer, 1995)

Component	Description	References
Meaning	The value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual's own ideals or standards. Meaning involves a fit between the requirements of a work role and beliefs, values, and behaviors.	Thomas and Velthouse (1990) Brief and Nord (1990) Hackman and Oldham (1980)
Competence	Self-efficacy. An individual's belief in his or her capability to perform activities with skill.	Gist (1987)
Self-determination	An individual's sense of having choice in initiating and regulating actions.	Deci, Connell, and Ryan (1989)
Impact	The degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work.	Ashforth (1989)

Spreitzer (1995) Also identified antecedents and consequences of psychological empowerment in her model, these included self-esteem, locus of control, information, rewards, managerial effectiveness, and innovative behaviors.

Spreitzer (1995) had two samples that she used for her empirical analysis; an industrial sample and an insurance sample. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the overall empowerment construct was .72 for one sample (the industrial sample) and .62 for the other sample (insurance sample).

Self-esteem, information, and rewards were found to be significantly related to empowerment whereas locus of control was not. The two consequences identified by Spreitzer (1995), managerial effectiveness and innovative behavior, were both found to be significantly related to psychological empowerment. The four cognitions of psychological empowerment can be collapsed into one item that is descriptive of the construct, Witemeyer (2013) developed and validated confidence as a descriptive item. In her work, she described psychological empowerment as “A sense of confidence regarding one’s self in one’s work.”

In a study on a sample of 174 customer service employees, Carless (2004) investigated psychological empowerment as a mediator between psychological climate and job satisfaction. She focused on psychological climate and considered it important “because it is the individual employees’ perceptions and evaluations of the work environment.” Building on the work of (Hart, Wearing, Conn, Carter, & Dingle, 2000), she adopted seven dimensions of psychological climate: (a) role clarity (the degree work expectations and responsibilities are clearly defined); (b) supportive leadership (the extent supervisors support their staff); (c) participative decision- making (the degree employees are involved in decision making about workplace issues); (d) professional interaction (the quality of communication and support between employees); (e) appraisal and recognition (the extent feedback and acknowledgement is given); (f) professional growth (the extent skill development is encouraged and supported); and g) goal congruence (the degree of congruence between individual goals and those of the organization). Carless (2004) used the empowerment scale developed by (Spreitzer, 1995) to explore the mediating effects of empowerment between psychological climate and job satisfaction. She used two scales to measure job satisfaction: work on present job and general job satisfaction. Negative affectivity, which is the tendency to have negative views, was included in the model as a variable affecting the constructs under study. Carless (2004) reported that “the results demonstrated that employee perceptions of their work environment directly influence their perceptions of empowerment which in turn, influence their level of job satisfaction.” Meaning and competence were the two scales that affected job satisfaction the most. Negative affectivity did not have a significant impact on empowerment and job satisfaction.

The majority of the empowerment literature focuses on individual-level empowerment. There has been little attention to team-level empowerment (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). The focus on individual-level empowerment and the little attention to team-level empowerment have produced a deficiency in understanding any cross-level empowerment effects that may exist. The investigations of Chen et al. (2007); Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, and Farh (2011); Liu, Zhang, Wang, and Lee (2011); and Wang, Zhang, and Jackson (2012) are exceptions. Chen et al. (2007) developed and tested a multilevel model of leadership and motivation through the lens of employee empowerment. In their model, they considered leader-employee exchange (i.e. leader-employee relationship) as an antecedent to individual empowerment and leadership climate (i.e. ambient leadership behavior) as an antecedent to team empowerment. It was hypothesized that individual performance related to individual empowerment whereas team performance related to team empowerment. By performing factorial analysis on a sample of 445 employees and managers of a Fortune 500 home improvement company, Chen et al. (2007) found that individual empowerment mediated the effects of leader-employee exchange on individual performance whereas team empowerment mediated the effects of leadership climate on team performance. They also found that individual and team empowerment were related and that team empowerment mediated the relationship between individual empowerment and individual performance. The work of Chen et al. (2007) demonstrated the importance of considering multilevel relationships when studying empowerment.

In an extensive review of the empowerment literature, Maynard, Luciano, D'Innocenzo, Mathieu, and Dean (2014) listed several opportunities for future research, the opportunities most relevant to this work are: (1) Consideration of work design characteristics leading to psychological empowerment; (2) Determination of the effect of team 'virtuality' as an antecedent of psychological empowerment; (3) Match operationalization of psychological empowerment to research question; (4) Assessment of the role of culture (e.g., collectivistic, power, distance, etc.); (5) Consideration of moderators. Work design has been by and large researched in terms of job characteristics (i.e. task significance, task complexity, skill

variety, and feedback). Maynard identified two aspects of work design that have been researched in relation to empowerment: Job characteristics and information privacy. The aspect of work design that we are researching here is work flexibility. The below figure shows aspects of work design research as these relate to empowerment.

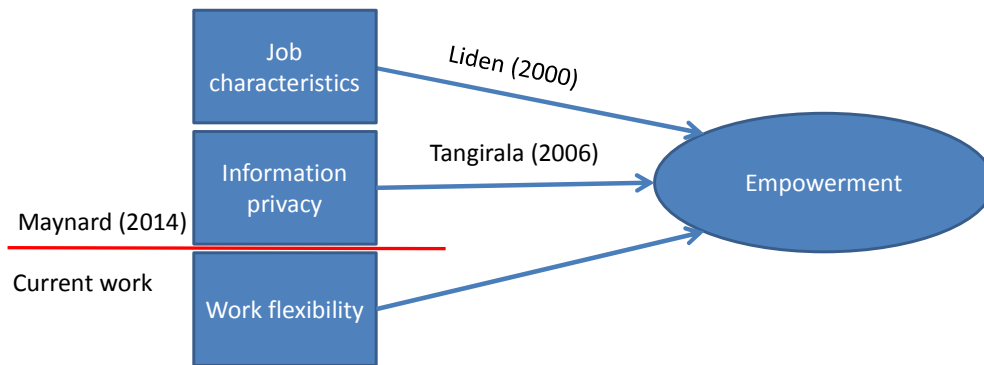


Figure 1 Work Design and Empowerment

Seibert, Wang, and Courtright (2011) performed a meta-analytic study on 141 studies that investigated empowerment. The figure below shows the framework that they integrated. They looked at how some of the antecedents and outcomes were more strongly related to empowerment than others. For example, leadership had a stronger relationship with empowerment than socio-political support. Also, human capital (such as age, education, and tenure) and also Gender played a less significant role in the relationship with empowerment.

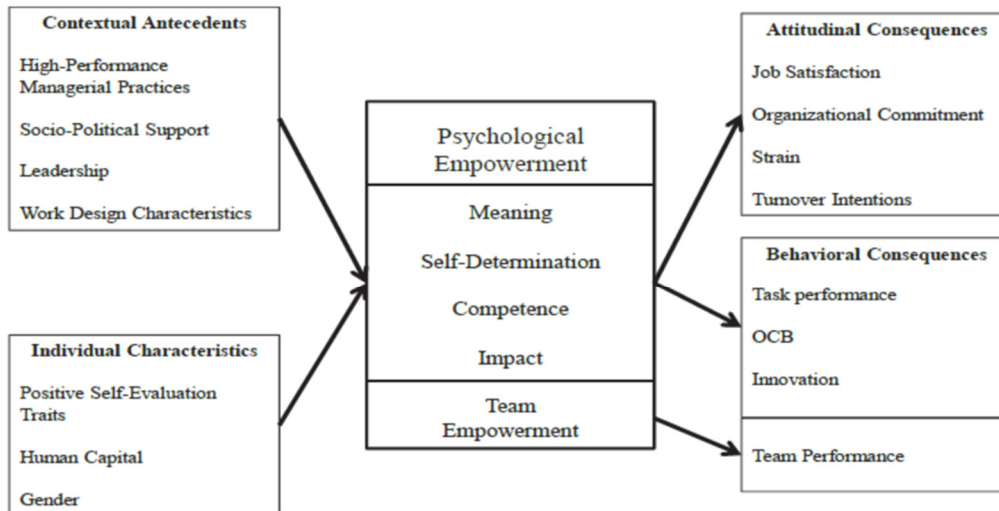


Figure 1. Integrated individual and team empowerment framework.

Figure 2 Integrated Individual And Team Empowerment Framework (Seibert Et Al., 2011)

III.3 Work flexibility and employee empowerment

Studies focusing on the relationship between work flexibility and employee empowerment are scarce and have not focused on investigating the relationship between work flexibility and job satisfaction using employee empowerment as a mediator. Subramaniam, Tan, Maniam, and Ali (2013) investigated the relationships between work flexibility, empowerment, and quality of life. To this goal, they used multivariate analysis on a sample of 400 women in the Malaysian services sector. The main finding in their research was that work flexibility significantly influenced women empowerment but did not significantly influence their life style. Subramaniam et al. (2013) attributed the lack of significant influence of empowerment on life style quality to cultural norms in Malaysia where women are responsible for household chores and have caring responsibilities as well. Other work linking aspects of work flexibility to employee empowerment provided indications that perceived autonomy and giving choices to employees are factors that contribute to employee empowerment (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000). Other researches posited that availability of resources leads to employee empowerment (Kreiner, 2006). Some studies pointed out that acknowledging the control employees have over how they

experience, interpret, and shape the world can give rise to empowerment (Clark, 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996).

III.4 Summary

Review of work flexibility literature reveals numerous studies that focus on the work-family conflict, its antecedents and consequences. While this work is informing it is often generic in that it only anecdotally includes work flexibility as part of the analysis and therefore making it difficult to understand the effects of work flexibility on employees. Kossek and Lambert (2005) confirm this observation, they noted that "Past research has been disappointing; showing very mixed results and often a limited impact of policies on employees' lives." Studies that have focused on alternative work arrangements such as work flexibility and telecommuting on the other hand generally tend to have questionable internal validity (Baltes et al., 1999). In summarizing concerns with these studies, Pierce (1989) described them as being "strongly characterized by (1) anecdotal reports of flexible working hour systems, (2) the use of non-standardized research scales, (3) failure to include statistical treatment of the reported data, and (4) the absence of other systematic data collection strategies." He also observed that past research, with few exceptions, was not based on theoretical models. The literature reviewed as part of this work corroborates this observation as most of the studies lacked theoretical frameworks or suffered from poor connections between statistical analysis and theoretical frameworks. These literature deficiencies have given rise to more unanswered questions; to this end, Bailey and Kurland (2002) stated that "empirical research to date has been largely unsuccessful in explaining what happens after flexible work arrangements have been provided by firms and opted by employees."

Empowerment is a concept that has been attracting the interest of scholars over the last three decades; theoretical frameworks have been developed to enable rigorous investigations into this concept, its antecedents and consequences. The work of Spreitzer (1995) and Witemeyer (2013) serves as a good foundation for empowerment research. As has been pointed out, several anecdotal references have been

made in the literature that facets of work flexibility may lead to employee empowerment. However, these references do not offer rigorous analysis of the relationship between work flexibility, employee empowerment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Additionally, much of the work in this arena has lacked theoretical framing and thus bringing to light concerns with internal validity.

The preceding literature review has identified several studies that underscore the importance of job satisfaction and the favorable outcomes it is related to such as turn over intentions, engagement, career success, and work-family conflict. Other studies have identified more unfavorable outcomes related to job dissatisfaction; these include absenteeism, poor quality work, and sabotage (Klein et al., 2000). Appendix I provides a summary of the strategy adopted for conducting the literature search for this study.

IV RESEARCH MODEL

Two types of modeling methods can be used for scientific investigations; variance and process models. Variance models are concerned with antecedents and consequences whereas process models are concerned with process emergence and development over time (Van de Ven, 2007). We adopt the variance method to build our research model. Van de Ven (2007) reported that variance methods seek explanations of continuous change driven by deterministic causation, with independent variables acting upon and causing changes in dependent variables.

Past research has described work flexibility in terms of its temporal and spatial aspects. Cotti et al. (2014) brought structural definition to work flexibility by introducing five temporal and spatial indicators, these indicators measure the ease of taking time off, the ability to change work start and stop times, control over work hours, ability to work from home, and allowance to work compressed work weeks. These indicators implicitly capture the firm's policies and procedures that are supportive of time and space flexibility. For example, it is hard to argue that a firm does not have work flexibility supporting policies and procedures if employees can take time off with ease and have the ability to change their work start and stop times. The availability of policies that support work flexibility indicates recognition from the firm of work flexibility as a benefit that employees can elect to participate in. We argue that a flexible work environment is manifested by time flexibility, spatial flexibility, and procedural flexibility. This leads to the first hypothesis:

H1: Work flexibility indicators are a good manifestation of work flexibility

And more specifically,

H1a: Higher time flexibility is positively related to higher perceptions of work flexibility

H1b: Higher spatial flexibility is positively related to higher perceptions of work flexibility

H1c: Policies and procedures are positively related to perceptions of work flexibility

Employee empowerment can be classified into two components, structural empowerment and psychological empowerment. Structural Empowerment is a macro-theory that describes the conditions of the work environment, it identifies organizational policies and practices that promote a sense of powerlessness so that these practices can be removed (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). The theory of Psychological Empowerment is a micro-theory and focuses on individuals and describes their psychological state given structural empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995). Carless (2004) reported that employee perceptions of their work environment influence their perceptions of empowerment which influence their level of job satisfaction. We expect that enhanced perceptions of work flexibility (time flexibility, space flexibility, and policies and procedures) will lead to enhanced perceptions of the work environment which in turn will lead to enhanced perceptions of empowerment. We therefore hypothesize the following relationship:

H2: Work flexibility is positively related to psychological empowerment

Thomas and Tymon (1994) asserted that psychological empowerment would be related to job satisfaction. Their reasoning was that facets of empowerment generate intrinsic rewards and therefore should lead to job satisfaction. We thus hypothesize that:

H3: Psychological empowerment is positively related to perceptions of job satisfaction

As discussed earlier, Spreitzer (1995) defines empowerment as “increased task motivation resulting from an individual's positive orientation to his or her work role.” Research has shown that pay plays a key role in employee motivation since it enables them to acquire desirables and supports their perceptions of achievement (Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette, 2004). Since pay is a motivator and empowerment is motivation resulting from positive orientation, we argue that empowerment is related to pay. We thus hypothesize that:

H4: Psychological empowerment is positively related to perceptions of pay

Nohe and Sonntag (2014) discovered that reduced levels of work-family conflict led to reduced levels of turnover intentions. It is conceivable to expect that work flexibility will lead to lower levels of work-family conflict since more schedule and activity control is given to the employee. The decreased levels of work-family conflict are then expected to result in contributing to the employees positive orientation to their work role, which according to (Spreitzer, 1995) will yield increased task motivation (i.e. empowerment). Based on this reasoning and hypothesis 3 (Psychological empowerment is positively related to job satisfaction), one can expect positive perceptions of task satisfaction to be negatively related to turnover intentions; we therefore hypothesize that:

H5: Positive perceptions of task satisfaction are negatively related to turnover intentions

At the most basic level, people work to get paid. It is hard to imagine an employee who does not view being compensated appropriately as a critical aspect of their work. We thus view positive perceptions of pay (i.e. compensation) as being negatively related to turnover intentions:

H6: Positive perceptions of pay are negatively related to turnover intentions

Gajendran and Harrison (2007) alerted to job type as another potential variable that might influence the effects of work flexibility. In this work we focus on knowledge workers, we divide job type into two classifications: Direct knowledge worker and indirect knowledge worker. We consider a direct knowledge worker as the technical employee who produces information (not physical products) that is related to the core competency of the firm (e.g. researchers, engineers, technologists). We consider an indirect knowledge worker as a non-technical employee who supports the production of information by the direct knowledge worker (e.g. administrators, controllers, generalists). The preceding discussion leads to the following two hypotheses:

H7: Job type (Direct or indirect knowledge worker) will moderate the relationship between work flexibility and empowerment

The below variance model graphically displays the hypothesized relationships above and serves as the research model tested in the present study. Descriptions of the formative and reflective measures used in the model are provided in Appendix II.

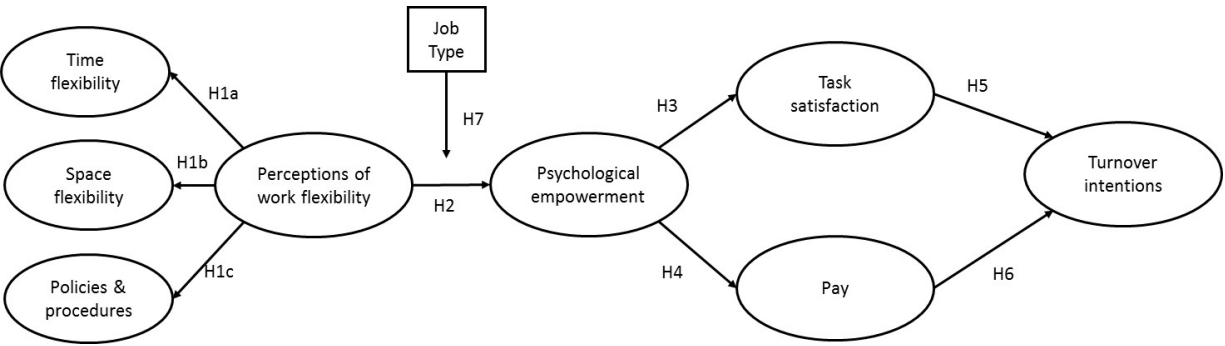


Figure 3 Research Model

V POST HOC CORRELATES

In order to focus on the constructs and indicators in our research model, we chose to consider the personal and contextual demographical correlates for post hoc analysis. The correlates are summarized in the table below.

Table 3 Post Hoc Correlates

Category	Correlates
<i>Personal demographics</i>	Age, employment type (full or part time or unemployed), gender, race, marital status, education level, position level, family income, tenure, and commute time
<i>Contextual demographics</i>	Co-worker support on work habits, giving care to kids under 18 years old, giving care to elders, family support on work habits, utilization of work flexibility, and level of responsibility outside of the workplace

VI DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Crowdsourcing is an online method for putting tasks out on a selected forum with a published price and having people who qualify perform the task. In this current work the task is a survey designed to capture data that will confirm or disconfirm the hypotheses presented in this dissertation. Ichatha (2013) defined Crowdsourcing as “an alternative to the traditional vendor driven outsource model in that the company solicits work by posting tasks to a public market place where anyone capable of completing the task can bid for and complete the task.” Crowdsourcing is the data collection method adopted in this work. In investigating the role of empowerment in Crowdsourced customer service, Ichatha (2013) obtained more than 200 respondents within less than 48 hours. An analysis of the demographics of his respondents showed that individuals who perform tasks online through Crowdsourcing only do this part time and the majority of them hold college and graduate degrees, the below table shows respondent demographics.

Table 4 Respondent Demographics (Ichatha, 2013)

Sex

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Male	129	51.2	51.2	51.2
Female	123	48.8	48.8	100.0
Total	252	100.0	100.0	

Education

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Some High School	1	.4	.4	.4
High School Diploma	32	12.7	12.7	13.1
Some College	95	37.7	37.7	50.8
College Degree	90	35.7	35.7	86.5
Some Graduate Studies	11	4.4	4.4	90.9
Graduate Degree	23	9.1	9.1	100.0
Total	252	100.0	100.0	

Hours crowd-source

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 0 – 10	76	30.2	30.2	30.2
11 – 20	60	23.8	23.8	54.0
21 – 30	55	21.8	21.8	75.8
31 – 40	27	10.7	10.7	86.5
Over 40	34	13.5	13.5	100.0
Total	252	100.0	100.0	

Kittur, Chi, and Suh (2006) described Crowdsourcing as “offering a potential paradigm for engaging a large number of users for low time and monetary costs”. We selected Crowdsourcing as our data collection vehicle since it is an expeditious way to obtain data from individuals who are accustomed to performing online tasks. Another advantage of using Crowdsourcing is the respondents are representing their perceptions from different firms, this alleviates concerns of findings being firm specific when all the respondents are from the same firm. One drawback for Crowdsourcing is that it is not for free but it is arguable that the efficiency in obtaining the responses outweighs the costs. We used the Mechanical Turk feature in Amazon.com to post the task of completing the survey. Amazon advertises Mechanical Turk as “The online market place for work”. Mechanical Turk is a junction where demand and supply meet. People looking for work (i.e. worker) can browse through thousands of tasks waiting to be

completed. People who have tasks that need to be done (i.e. requester) can post their tasks with instructions and offer compensation for those who complete them in accordance with the instructions. A task requester may define requirements for the workers so that the task can be directed to the most relevant workers. Mechanical Turk can help direct the task to qualified workers. For example, if the requester sets a requirement on the approval rate of the workers (i.e. the approval record of tasks performed by the worker), Mechanical Turk can direct the task only to the workers that meet the criteria established by the requester.

A questionnaire survey is used to collect the data. The survey captures all the aspects of the model discussed in earlier sections and links directly to the research question. The survey is not very intrusive; it is 26 questions that can be comfortably answered in 10 minutes. The survey is provided in Appendix III.

The table below is adopted from Hair (2014) which shows the minimum sample size requirements necessary to detect R-Squared at different values in any of the constructs in the structural model for different significance levels and a statistical power of 80%.

Table 5 Sample Size Recommendations (Hair, 2014)

Exhibit 1.7 Sample Size Recommendation a in PLS-SEM for a Statistical Power of 80%												
Maximum Number of Arrows Pointing at a Construct	Significance Level											
	1%				5%				10%			
	Minimum R ²				Minimum R ²				Minimum R ²			
	0.10	0.25	0.50	0.75	0.10	0.25	0.50	0.75	0.10	0.25	0.50	0.75
2	158	75	47	38	110	52	33	26	88	41	26	21
3	176	84	53	42	124	59	38	30	100	48	30	25
4	191	91	58	46	137	65	42	33	111	53	34	27
5	205	98	62	50	147	70	45	36	120	58	37	30
6	217	103	66	53	157	75	48	39	128	62	40	32
7	228	109	69	56	166	80	51	41	136	66	42	35
8	238	114	73	59	174	84	54	44	143	69	45	37
9	247	119	76	62	181	88	57	46	150	73	47	39
10	256	123	79	64	189	91	59	48	156	76	49	41

Source: Cohen, J. A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112, 155–159.

Based on the above table and the maximum number of arrows pointing to a construct in the research model, 147 would be the minimum sample size required, a good sample size target therefore for this work would be 200.

VI.1 Data Collection

A survey consisting of 26 questions was designed to collect data to test the hypotheses proposed in the research model. The survey can be broken into three sections; 1) The first section provides demographical information about the respondent, this information includes age, employment type (full or part time or unemployed), gender, race, marital status, education level, position level, job type (direct or indirect knowledge worker), family income, tenure, and commute time. 2) The second section provides contextual information about the respondent, this information includes co-worker support on work habits, giving care to kids under 18 years old, giving care to elders, family support on work habits, utilization of work flexibility, and level of responsibility outside of the workplace. 3) The third section provides perceptual information about the respondent and the firm in which they work, this information includes

perceptions of firm support of work flexibility, perceptions of empowerment, turnover intentions, perceptions of pay, and perceptions of task satisfaction.

Data from the first two sections (i.e. demographical and contextual data) will be used for the variables we wish to control for in this work with the exception of job type which will be used as a moderator. The third section of the survey will be used to test the hypotheses proposed in this work. The first and second sections help shed some light on who is providing the data and the circumstances pertinent to work flexibility. In designing the survey, an attention test was embedded to mitigate the risk of carelessly completing the survey or straight lining. In the beginning of the survey, the respondent is shown a photo that has two sets of numbers on the bottom of it. The respondent is asked to record the number on the bottom right hand side using a pen and a paper. At the end of the survey, the respondent is asked to input the number they recorded previously in a field that is provided to them. Any responses that did not contain the correct number were eliminated. Also, as part of the instructions that were provided to the respondent, it was communicated that the respondent had to at least have a part time job, any responses that indicated that the respondent was unemployed were eliminated. The reason for not accepting survey responses from respondents who did not have at least a part time job is to have more reliable data that is coming from current or recent experiences.

Performing data clean up (i.e. eliminating responses that did not pass the attention test and responses from unemployed respondents) resulted in a usable sample size of 236. This sample size satisfies the sample size target of 200 which was discussed earlier. It was mentioned that Ichatha (2013) got over 200 responses in less than 48 hours of launching his survey. The 251 responses obtained from the survey for this work were obtained within 2 hours. The speed in which the responses were obtained was remarkable and just speaks to the digital age we live in. It is worth mentioning that the survey was open to anyone who had an Amazon account and met the survey requirements, there were no restrictions on the country or region in which the respondent lives. The survey was launched around 6:30 AM EST and automatically closed around 8:30 AM EST. This timing supported getting a majority of US

responders and a minority of responders from India who are probably accustomed to working US hours. It is worth noting that all the responses were forced responses, i.e. the respondent could not submit the survey unless they answered all questions.

Respondent demographics

Most of the respondents were in their forties or younger, specifically, 81.7%. This means that the overwhelming majority of the responders were very active in their jobs and not close to retirement. The table below shows the age frequencies and percentages.

Table 6 Respondent Age Frequencies And Percentages

		AGE			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	70s	5	2.1	2.1	2.1
	60s	19	8.1	8.1	10.2
	50s	19	8.1	8.1	18.2
	40s	71	30.1	30.1	48.3
	30s	96	40.7	40.7	89.0
	20s	26	11.0	11.0	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

63.1% of the respondents were males while 36% were females, this means that the data is more heavily influenced by male respondent perspectives. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent gender.

Table 7 Respondent Gender Frequencies And Percentages

		GENDER			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	149	63.1	63.7	63.7
	Female	85	36.0	36.3	100.0
	Total	234	99.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.8		
Total		236	100.0		

In looking into respondent race, 55.1% of the respondents were White while 39% were Asian, this means that the data is more heavily influenced by Western work habits, the Asian work habits could be influenced by the Western work habits if the majority of the Asian respondents are from regions that are hubs for technical support for Western companies such as India. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent race.

Table 8 Respondent Race Frequencies And Percentages

		RACE			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	WHITE	130	55.1	55.1	55.1
	BLACK	8	3.4	3.4	58.5
	ASIAN	92	39.0	39.0	97.5
	HISPANIC	4	1.7	1.7	99.2
	OTHER	2	.8	.8	100.0
Total		236	100.0	100.0	

The majority of the respondents were either never married or married (i.e. in an active relationship), 93.2% of the respondents fall into these two categories. Of the 93.2%, 58.5% were married. This indicates that the responses will be more heavily influenced by individuals who are married. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent marital status.

Table 9 Respondent Race Frequencies And Percentages

MARITAL STATUS

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NEVER MARRIED	82	34.7	34.7	34.7
MARRIED	138	58.5	58.5	93.2
DIVORCED	3	1.3	1.3	94.5
WIDOWED	13	5.5	5.5	100.0
Total	236	100.0	100.0	

68.5% of the respondents had a bachelor's degree or higher, this is a favorable finding as a higher educational level supports higher quality of responses. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent education levels.

Table 10 Respondent Education Frequencies And Percentages

EDUCATION

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid HIGH SCHOOL	46	19.5	19.5	19.5
COLLEGE DIPLOMA	26	11.0	11.0	30.5
BACHELORS	108	45.8	45.8	76.3
MASTERS	52	22.0	22.0	98.3
DOCTORATE	4	1.7	1.7	100.0
Total	236	100.0	100.0	

Some variation was found in the position level of respondents, 33.9% of them had managerial level positions while 47.9% had individual contributor (non-entry level) positions. This means that the majority of the respondents represent the average worker (i.e. mid-level) and not executive level individuals. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent position level.

Table 11 Respondent Position Level Frequencies And Percentages

		POSITION LEVEL			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	ENTRY LEVEL	38	16.1	16.1	16.1
	INDIVIDUAL CONTRIBUTOR	113	47.9	47.9	64.0
	MANAGERIAL	80	33.9	33.9	97.9
	SENIOR EXECUTIVE MANAGEMENT	5	2.1	2.1	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

Job type was another demographic that the respondents were asked to give information on. Job type was classified into two categories; direct knowledge workers and indirect knowledge workers. Direct knowledge workers are individuals who contribute directly to the company by utilizing their knowledge. Knowledge workers hold positions that contribute directly to value added activities which link directly to the bottom line. Example of knowledge workers include engineers, researchers, and analysts. Indirect knowledge workers on the other hand are workers who support the indirect knowledge workers and facilitate their activities. Example of indirect knowledge workers include administrators, controllers, and specialists. 57.2% of the respondents identified themselves as direct knowledge workers while the rest (i.e. 42.8%) identified themselves as indirect knowledge workers. Since these percentages are close, one would expect that if job type were to act as a moderator in the proposed model then its moderating effects would be visible. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent job types.

Table 12 Respondent Job Type Frequencies And Percentages

		JOB TYPE			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	DIRECT KNOWLEDGE WORKER	135	57.2	57.2	57.2
	INDIRECT KNOWLEDGE WORKER	101	42.8	42.8	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

The majority of the respondents had anywhere from 1 to 15 years of experience (89.9%), this finding is in synch with the previous findings of position level and age and shows that the respondents are deep into their positions where they are not just starting nor are they getting ready for retirement. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent tenure.

Table 13 Respondent Tenure Frequencies And Percentages

		TENURE			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	LESS THAN 1 YEAR	10	4.2	4.2	4.2
	1-5 YEARS	88	37.3	37.3	41.5
	5-10 YEARS	88	37.3	37.3	78.8
	10-15 YEARS	36	15.3	15.3	94.1
	15-20 YEARS	10	4.2	4.2	98.3
	MORE THAN 20 YEARS	4	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

Respondent income varied across a wide spectrum, we believe that this is an artifact of the survey being global and not restricted to a particular geographical region. It is expected that significant income disparities exist on the global scale, especially when getting responses from both developed and developing countries. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent combined household income.

Table 14 Respondent Combined Income Frequencies And Percentages

		COMBINED INCOME			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	LESS THA \$5,000	20	8.5	8.5	8.5
	\$5,000 TO \$7,499	17	7.2	7.2	15.7
	\$7,500 TO \$9,999	3	1.3	1.3	16.9
	\$10,000 TO \$12,499	16	6.8	6.8	23.7
	\$12,500 TO \$14,999	10	4.2	4.2	28.0
	\$15,000 TO \$19,999	10	4.2	4.2	32.2
	\$20,000 TO \$29,999	26	11.0	11.0	43.2
	\$30,000 TO \$34,999	18	7.6	7.6	50.8
	\$35,000 TO \$39,999	14	5.9	5.9	56.8
	\$40,000 TO \$49,999	17	7.2	7.2	64.0
	\$50,000 TO \$59,999	16	6.8	6.8	70.8
	\$60,000 TO \$74,999	32	13.6	13.6	84.3
	\$75,000 TO \$99,999	12	5.1	5.1	89.4
	\$100,000 TO \$149,999	21	8.9	8.9	98.3
	\$150,000 OR MORE	4	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

The majority of respondents reported that their commute time is less than 45 minutes, this comprised 84.4% of the respondents, the table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent commute time.

Table 15 Respondent Commute Time Frequencies And Percentages

		COMMUTE			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	LESS THAN 15 MINUTES	46	19.5	19.5	19.5
	15TO 30 MINUTES	104	44.1	44.1	63.6
	30 TO 45 MINUTES	49	20.8	20.8	84.3
	45 TO 60 MINUTES	23	9.7	9.7	94.1
	MORE THAN 60 MINUTES	14	5.9	5.9	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

The last data set in the demographical data section is the country in which the respondent lives. 64.8% of the respondents were from the US while 25.4% were from India. This supports the argument made in connection with the race data that the survey data is heavily influenced by Western work habits. India is a major global hub for technical support to Western companies, one would expect the work habits in India to be significantly influenced by the work habits in the US (e.g. duration of work hours, culture, benefits, etc.). The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent country.

Table 16 Respondent Country Frequencies And Percentages

		CTRY			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Australi	4	1.7	1.7	1.7
	Finland	1	.4	.4	2.1
	France	1	.4	.4	2.5
	India	60	25.4	25.4	28.0
	Ireland	3	1.3	1.3	29.2
	Macedoni	1	.4	.4	29.7
	Mexico	1	.4	.4	30.1
	Nepal	1	.4	.4	30.5
	Netherla	2	.8	.8	31.4
	Philippi	2	.8	.8	32.2
	Romania	1	.4	.4	32.6
	Rwanda	1	.4	.4	33.1
	Serbia	1	.4	.4	33.5
	Slovakia	1	.4	.4	33.9
	Sri Lank	1	.4	.4	34.3
	Thailand	1	.4	.4	34.7
	Turkey	1	.4	.4	35.2
	USA	153	64.8	64.8	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

Based on the demographical data presented, for the purposes of developing a conceptual understanding of survey respondents, we describe a typical survey respondent who we name here as “work man” as being a white American man in his mid-thirties, married with a graduate degree. Our representative man has been at his job for five to ten years, is an individual contributor and direct knowledge worker and has a commute to work of less than forty five minutes.

Respondent contextual information

When reporting on co-worker support of work habits, a significant percentage of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they have co-worker support. The percentage of respondents who reported co-worker support for their work habits was 88.5%. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of co-worker support of work habits.

Table 17 Respondent Co-Worker Support Frequencies And Percentages

COWORKER SUPPORT					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	STRONGLY DISAGREE	3	1.3	1.3	1.3
	DISAGREE	10	4.2	4.2	5.5
	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	14	5.9	5.9	11.4
	AGREE	157	66.5	66.5	78.0
	STRONGLY AGREE	52	22.0	22.0	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

The respondents were almost exactly divided in half as far as caring for a child under the age of 18, the table below shows the frequencies and percentages of child care responsibilities.

Table 18 Respondent Child Care Responsibilities Frequencies And Percentages

CHILD CARE

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid YES	120	50.8	50.8	50.8
NO	116	49.2	49.2	100.0
Total	236	100.0	100.0	

When reporting on caring for an elder, about one third of the respondents reported caring for an elder whereas the remaining two third reported they did not have elder care responsibilities. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of elder care responsibilities.

Table 19 Respondent Child Care Responsibilities Frequencies And Percentages

ELDER CARE

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid YES	88	37.3	37.3	37.3
NO	148	62.7	62.7	100.0
Total	236	100.0	100.0	

It is helpful to cross tabulate child care with elder care and see how much of an overlap exists in terms of respondents having to both care for a child and an elder. The cross tabulation reveals that 23% of the respondents have to both care for a child and an elder whereas 35% of the respondents do not have to care for either a child or an elder. On the other hand, 27.5% of the respondents have to care for a child but do not have to care for an elder, this percentage is cut in half (i.e. 14%) when looking at the opposite (having to care for an elder but not a child).

Table 20 Cross Tabulation Of Child And Elder Care

CHILD CARE * ELDER CARE Crosstabulation

			ELDER CARE		Total
			YES	NO	
CHILD CARE	YES	Count	55	65	120
		% within CHILD CARE	45.8%	54.2%	100.0%
		% within ELDER CARE	62.5%	43.9%	50.8%
		% of Total	23.3%	27.5%	50.8%
	NO	Count	33	83	116
		% within CHILD CARE	28.4%	71.6%	100.0%
		% within ELDER CARE	37.5%	56.1%	49.2%
		% of Total	14.0%	35.2%	49.2%
Total	Count	88	148	236	
	% within CHILD CARE	37.3%	62.7%	100.0%	
	% within ELDER CARE	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	37.3%	62.7%	100.0%	

The respondents were asked to report on family support of work habits, the data suggests that 86.9% of the respondents feel that they have family support of their work habits. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of family support of work habits.

Table 21 Cross Tabulation Of Child And Elder Care

FAMILY SUPPORT

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	.8	.8	.8
	DISAGREE	5	2.1	2.1	3.0
	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	24	10.2	10.2	13.1
	AGREE	148	62.7	62.7	75.8
	STRONGLY AGREE	57	24.2	24.2	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

When asked about their responsibilities outside of work, 83.5% of the respondents reported that their responsibilities were somewhat intense or very intense. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondents with outside work responsibilities.

Table 22 Respondent Outside Work Responsibilities Frequencies And Percentages

OUTSIDE WORK RESPONSIBILITIES

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT INTENSE AT ALL	39	16.5	16.5	16.5
SOMEWHAT INTENSE	138	58.5	58.5	75.0
VERY INTENSE	59	25.0	25.0	100.0
Total	236	100.0	100.0	

The respondents were asked to report on their utilization of work flexibility practices at their work place, 66.1% of them reported some level of utilization or higher. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of work flexibility utilization levels.

Table 23 Respondent Work Flexibility Utilization Frequencies And Percentages

UTILIZATION OF WF

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NEVER	10	4.2	4.2	4.2
RARELY	70	29.7	29.7	33.9
SOMETIMES	84	35.6	35.6	69.5
OFTEN	48	20.3	20.3	89.8
VERY OFTEN	24	10.2	10.2	100.0
Total	236	100.0	100.0	

In addition to the personal demographical information we already know, work man exhibits the following contextual characteristics; work man has a reasonable level of co-work support as well as family support with respect to his work habits. Moreover, work man has some level of responsibility in

giving care to children under 18 years old or elders. Also, work man seems to utilize work flexibility practices provided to him by his firm.

Respondent Perceptual Information

The respondents were asked to report on their perceptions of the overall flexibility they believe they have (or don't have) at their work places. 72.9% of the respondents reported that they had strong overall work flexibility at their firms. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent perceptions of overall work flexibility.

Table 24 Respondent Perceptions Of Overall Work Flexibility Frequencies And Percentages

WORK FLEXIBILITY OVERALL					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	STRONGLY DISAGREE	4	1.7	1.7	1.7
	DISAGREE	23	9.7	9.7	11.4
	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	37	15.7	15.7	27.1
	AGREE	130	55.1	55.1	82.2
	STRONGLY AGREE	42	17.8	17.8	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

In reporting on their perceptions of confidence, 92.4% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they had overall confidence in performing their work. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of the respondent's perceptions of confidence.

Table 25 Respondent Perceptions Of Confidence Frequencies And Percentages

CONFIDENCE IN PERFORMING WORK

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	DISAGREE	4	1.7	1.7	1.7
	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	14	5.9	5.9	7.6
	AGREE	64	27.1	27.1	34.7
	STRONGLY AGREE	154	65.3	65.3	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

The respondents were asked about their level of satisfaction with the tasks they perform, 35.8% reported that they neither agreed nor disagreed or agreed that they were satisfied. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent perceptions of task satisfaction.

Table 26 Respondent Perceptions Of Task Satisfaction Frequencies And Percentages

TASK SATISFACTION

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	9	3.8	3.8	3.8
	STRONGLY DISAGREE	66	28.0	28.0	31.8
	DISAGREE	79	33.5	33.5	65.3
	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	74	31.4	31.4	96.6
	AGREE	8	3.4	3.4	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

Perception of adequacy of pay was another question that respondents provided information on. 55% of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed or agreed that they were adequately paid. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of respondent perceptions of pay.

Table 27 Respondent Perceptions Of Pay Frequencies And Percentages

		PAY			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	4	1.7	1.7	1.7
	STRONGLY DISAGREE	43	18.2	18.2	19.9
	DISAGREE	59	25.0	25.0	44.9
	NEITER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	122	51.7	51.7	96.6
	AGREE	6	2.5	2.5	99.2
	STRONGLY AGREE	2	.8	.8	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

The respondents were asked to answer questions that capture their turn over intentions, a representative question was if the respondent was thinking of leaving, 59.3% disagreed or strongly disagreed that they were thinking of leaving. The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of the respondent’s thinking of leaving.

Table 28 Respondent Intentions Of Leaving Frequencies And Percentages

		THINKING OF LEAVING			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	STRONGLY DISAGREE	93	39.4	39.4	39.4
	DISAGREE	47	19.9	19.9	59.3
	NEITER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	37	15.7	15.7	75.0
	AGREE	40	16.9	16.9	91.9
	STRONGLY AGREE	19	8.1	8.1	100.0
	Total	236	100.0	100.0	

Going back to our work man construct, from a perceptual view point, work man enjoys good flexibility at the workplace, has confidence in performing his tasks, could use a little more challenging tasks, would appreciate a higher pay, and is not thinking of leaving his current job. Building the work man construct was done only for the purpose of visualizing a cross section of the data, needless to say,

rigorous statistical modeling and analysis is needed to determine relationships between the different construct under study.

VI.2 Data Analysis

At this point, we are ready to test the hypotheses put forward in this work. Partial least square structural modeling will be used to study the relationship between constructs. The table below provides a summary of the indicators and constructs used in the model.

Table 29 Indicators And Constructs Used In The Model

Indicator label	Indicator description	Indicator grouping	Construct label	Construct description
WF1	Time off during workday	WFT-Temporal flexibility	WF	Perception of work flexibility
WF2	Ability to change work times			
WF3	Control on scheduling work hours			
WF5	Allowed to work compressed week			
WF4	Allowed to work partially from home	WFS-Spatial flexibility		
WF6	Supporting policies and procedures	WFP-Policy flexibility		
EMP2	Importance of work	EMPM - Meaning	EMP	Perception of empowerment
EMP3	Meaningfulness of job activities			

EMP4	Meaningfulness of work			
EMP5	Confidence about ability to do job	EMPC - Competence		
EMP6	Self-assurance about capabilities to do job activities			
EMP7	Mastering the skills to do the job			
EMP8	Significant autonomy on how to do job	EMPS-Self Determination		
EMP9	Decide on own how to do work			
EMP10	Independence and freedom			
EMP11	Impact on what happens is large	EMPI-Impact		
EMP12	Influence on organization			
TSMP	Perception of task satisfaction		TSK	Perception of task satisfaction
PAYP	Perception of pay		PAY	Perception of pay
TRN1	Thinking of leaving		TRN	Turn over intentions
TRN2	Planning to look for another job			
TRN3	Intend to ask for a new job opportunity			
TRN4	Don't plan to be in			

	organization much longer			
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The constructs and indicators were modeled in accordance with the hypothesized relationships, the figure below shows the working model.

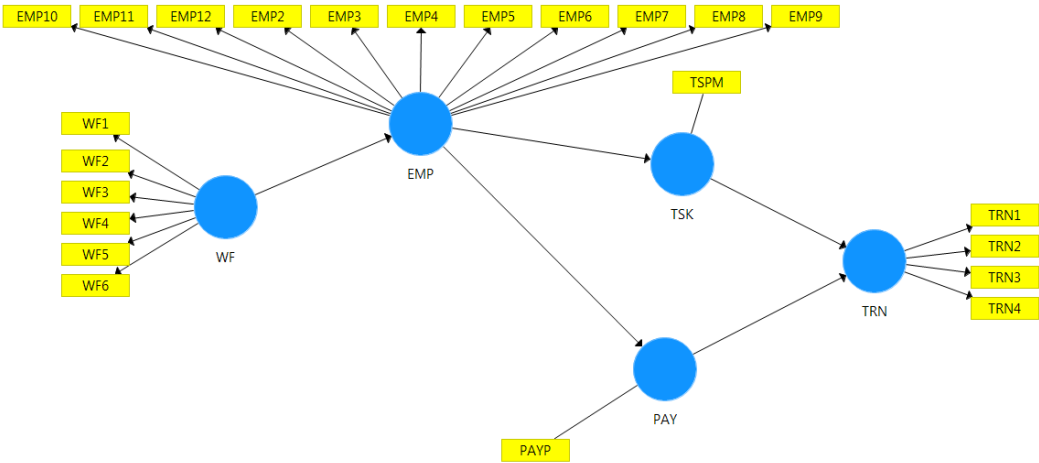


Figure 4 Model Reflecting Hypothesized Relationships Between Constructs And Indicators

We wish to explore the correlation between the model constructs and the loadings of the indicators, this is shown in the figure below.

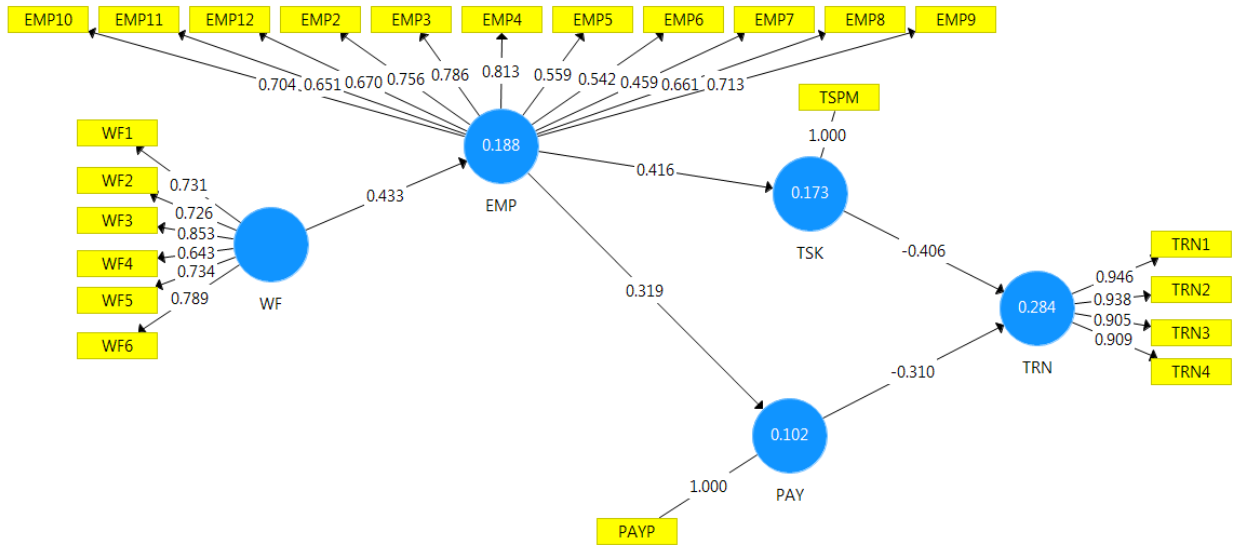


Figure 5 Model Correlation Coefficients

Review of the above figure shows that psychological empowerment indicators have loadings ranging from 0.459 to 0.813. The indicators with the lowest loadings are EMP5- Confidence about ability to do job (0.559), EMP6- Self-assurance about capabilities to do job activities (0.542), and EMP-7 Mastering the skills to do the job (0.459). All these indicators belong to the Competence grouping. Hair (2014) calls for loadings between 0.4 and 0.7 to be removed only if the removal improves the AVE (average variance extracted) which is a measure of how well indicators for the same construct correlate with each other. It is interesting to note that the competence grouping also had the lowest loadings in the mid-level employee sample that Spreitzer (1995) analyzed (0.58 for Competence vs 0.72 – 0.92 for the rest of the groupings). The respondent demographics data presented previously shows that the respondents are mid-level employees (i.e. not predominantly entry level and not predominantly executive level) which explains the similarity in indicator loadings for the Competence grouping. The lower loadings for the Competence grouping in our model are causing the AVE to be below the minimum threshold of 0.5 (Hair, 2014). Removing the Competence grouping indicators raises the AVE to above the minimum threshold (from 0.45 to 0.53), we therefore chose to take out the competence grouping from our model. Although EMP8- Significant autonomy on how to do job, EMP11- Impact on what happens is

large, EMP12- Influence on organization have loadings that are lower than 0.7, we chose to keep them as they are only slightly below 0.7. Work flexibility indicators have loadings ranging from 0.656 to 0.854. All indicators have good loadings (0.7 or above) with the exception of WF4- Allowed to work partially from home, which is only slightly below at 0.656. If WF4- Allowed to work partially from home is removed from the model the AVE for work flexibility is only incrementally improved from 0.53 to 0.55, we therefore decide to leave this indicator as part of the model. Lastly, the turn over intentions indicators have the strongest loadings ranging from 0.905 to 0.946 thus indicating the selected indicators are a good manifestation of the construct. The resulting model is shown in the below figure.

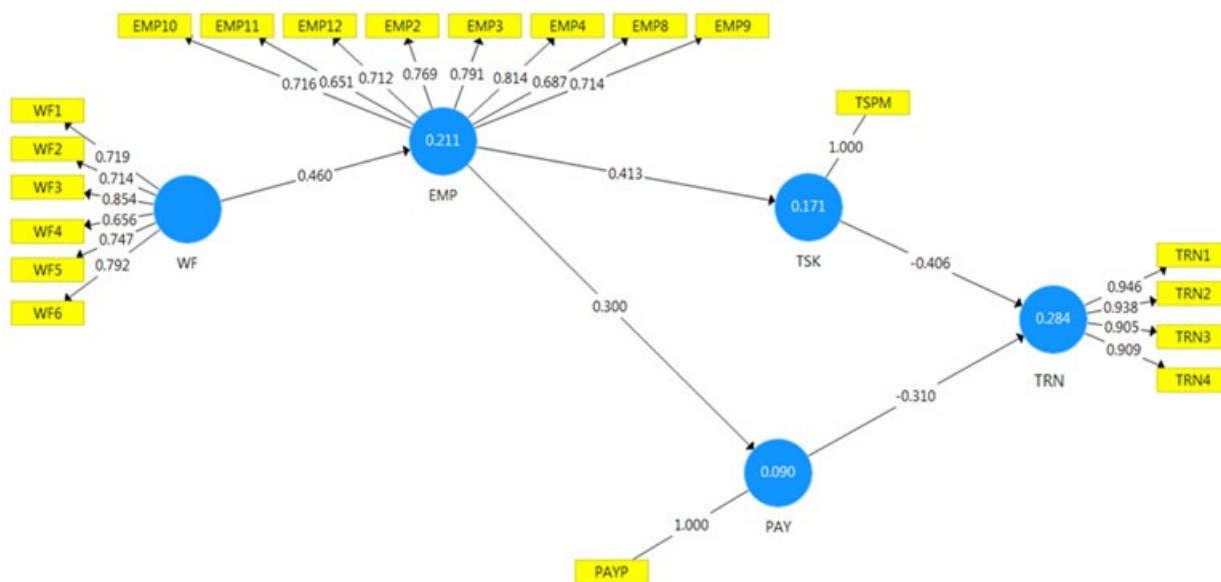


Figure 6 Model Correlation Coefficients (Updated)

For correlation coefficients, we consider a correlation of 0.2 to be our minimum threshold (Hair, 2014). The above figure shows good positive correlation between perceptions of work flexibility and perceptions of empowerment ($\rho = 0.46$). There is also good positive correlation between perceptions of empowerment and perceptions of task satisfaction ($\rho = 0.413$). Good negative correlation exists between perceptions of task satisfaction and perceptions of turnover intentions ($\rho = -0.406$). Although weaker,

still good correlation exists with pay; positive correlation between perceptions of empowerment and perceptions of pay ($\rho = 0.30$) and negative correlation between perceptions of pay and turn over intentions ($\rho = -0.31$).

We run the model to test the significance of the relationships, the figure below shows the t-values of the relationships.

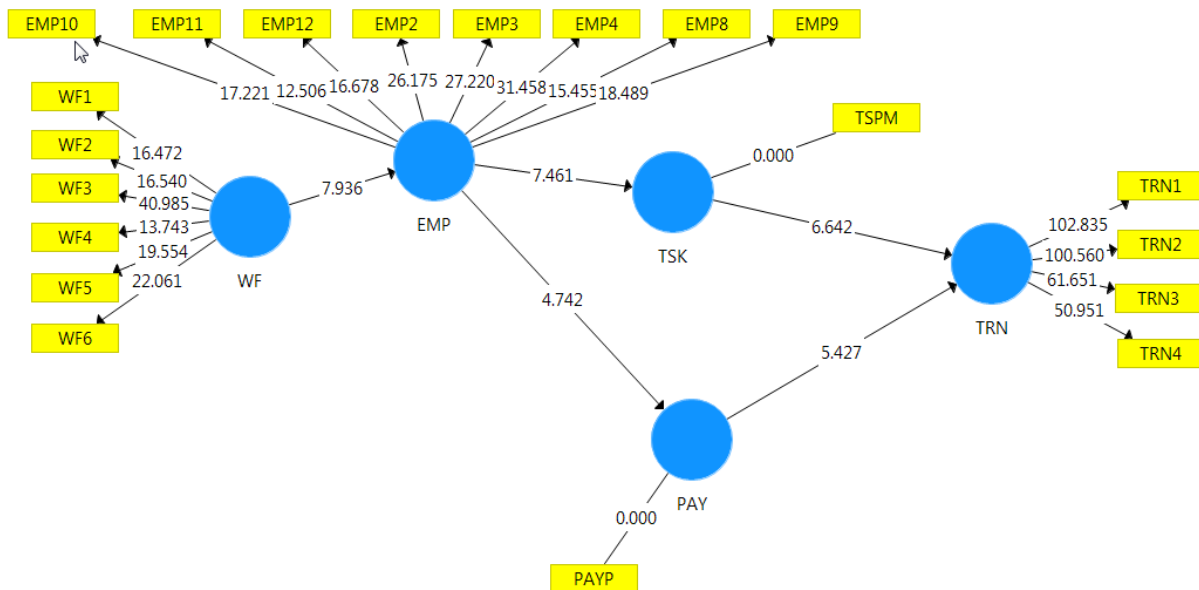


Figure 7 Model Relationship Significance

The above model shows that all the relationships between the constructs are highly significant ($t > 1.96, p < 0.05$). All the work flexibility indicators are highly significant; the most significant indicators are WF3-Control on scheduling work hours ($t=41$), WF6- Supporting policies and procedures ($t=22.1$), and WF5-Allowed to work compressed week ($t=19.6$). These three indicators represent the Temporal and Procedural indicator groupings of work flexibility discussed earlier. Similarly, all the empowerment indicators are highly significant; the most significant indicators are EMP4-Meaningfulness of work ($t=31.5$), EMP3-Meaningfulness of job activities ($t=27.2$), and EMP2-Importance of work ($t=26.2$). These indicators belong to the Meaning grouping which means that this grouping is a good manifestation

of the psychological empowerment construct. The indicators for turnover intentions are the most significant of all indicators in the model; the most significant of the turnover intentions indicators are TRN1-Thinking of leaving (t=102.8) and TRN2-Planning to look for another job (t=100.6). This also means that turnover indicators are a good manifestation of the Turnover construct.

VII HYPOTHESES TESTING

Now that we have a good understanding of the data and the relationships between the constructs and indicators in the model, we are ready to test the hypotheses proposed in this dissertation, the below figure shows the research model with the hypotheses.

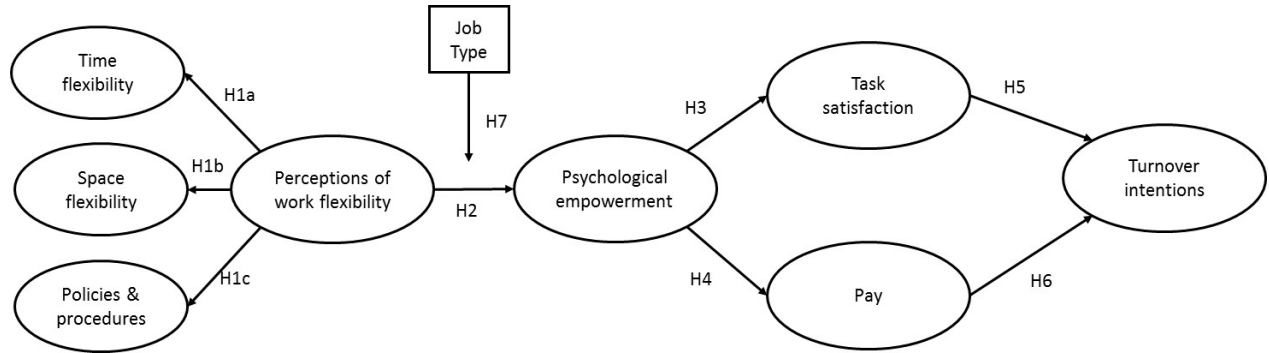


Figure 8 Research Model

The first hypothesis we test is work flexibility indicators being a good manifestation of work flexibility:

H1: Work flexibility indicators are a good manifestation of work flexibility

And more specifically,

H1a: Higher time flexibility is positively related to higher perceptions of work flexibility

H1b: Higher space flexibility is positively related to higher perceptions of work flexibility

H1c: Policies and procedures are positively related to perceptions of work flexibility

To test this hypothesis, we turn to the path coefficients in the structural model, the figure below shows the path coefficients for work flexibility and its indicators.

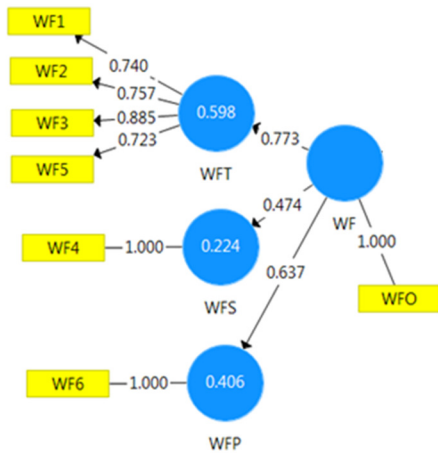


Figure 9 Work Flexibility Path Coefficients With Indicator Groupings

The above figure shows strong correlation between the indicator groupings and work flexibility. The strongest correlation with work flexibility is WFT-Temporal flexibility ($\rho=0.773$) followed by WFP-Policies and procedures ($\rho=0.637$) and then by WFS-Spatial flexibility ($\rho=0.474$). All of these relationships are significant ($t \geq 1.96$, $p \leq 0.05$). The significance of these relationships is shown in the below figure.

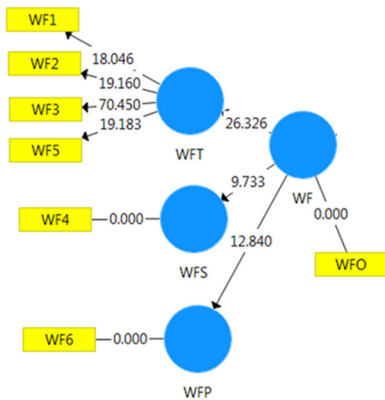


Figure 10 Work Flexibility Relationship Significance With Indicator Groupings

Based on these results, we conclude that this hypothesis is supported.

We now turn to the second hypothesis:

H2: Work flexibility is positively related to psychological empowerment

The below figure shows the path coefficient between perceptions of work flexibility and employee perceptions of psychological empowerment. The path coefficient is 0.460 which indicates good correlation.

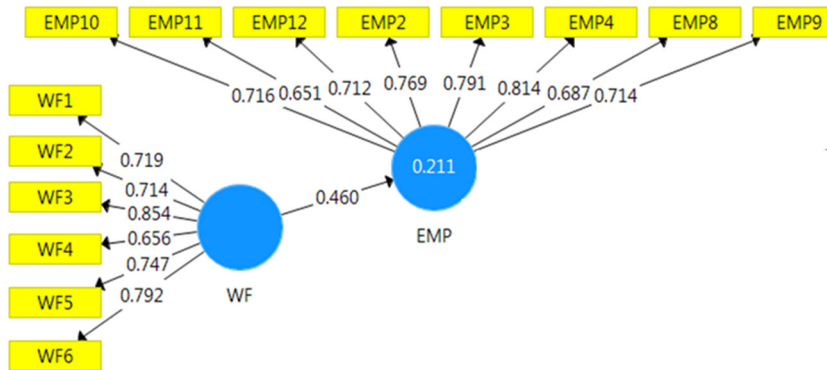


Figure 11 Work Flexibility And Empowerment Correlation Coefficients

The relationships between work flexibility and empowerment is significant ($t \geq 1.96$, $p \leq 0.05$) as can be seen from the below figure.

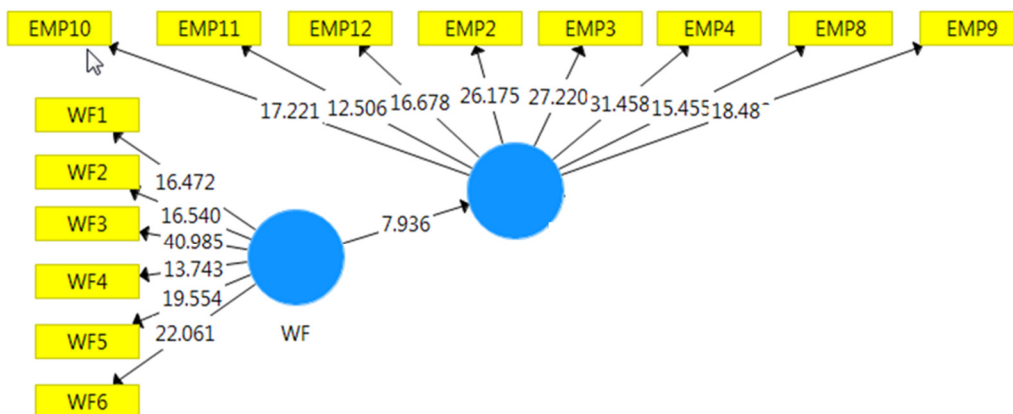


Figure 12 Work Flexibility And Empowerment Relationship Significance

The good correlation and the significance level of the relationship between perceptions of work flexibility and perceptions of empowerment support the second hypothesis proposed in this dissertation.

The third hypothesis we wish to test is the relationship between perceptions of empowerment and perceptions of job satisfaction:

H3: Psychological empowerment is positively related to perceptions job satisfaction

The below figure shows the path coefficient between perceptions of psychological empowerment and perceptions of task satisfaction ($\rho=0.413$), this shows good correlation.

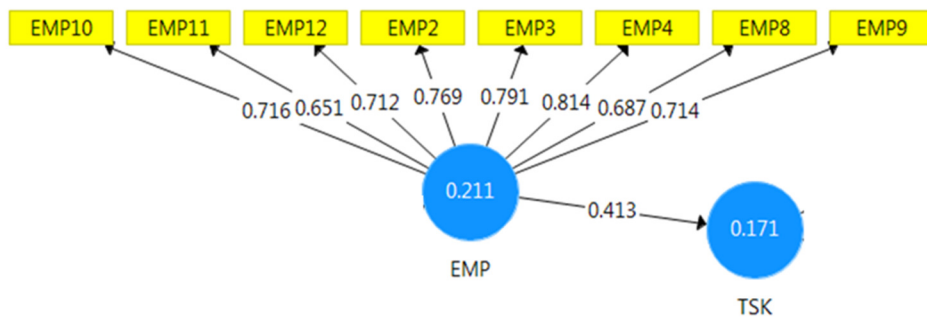


Figure 13 Empowerment And Task Satisfaction Correlation Coefficients

The relationship between perceptions of psychological empowerment and perceptions of task satisfaction is significant ($t=1.96$, $p \leq 0.05$), this is shown in the below figure

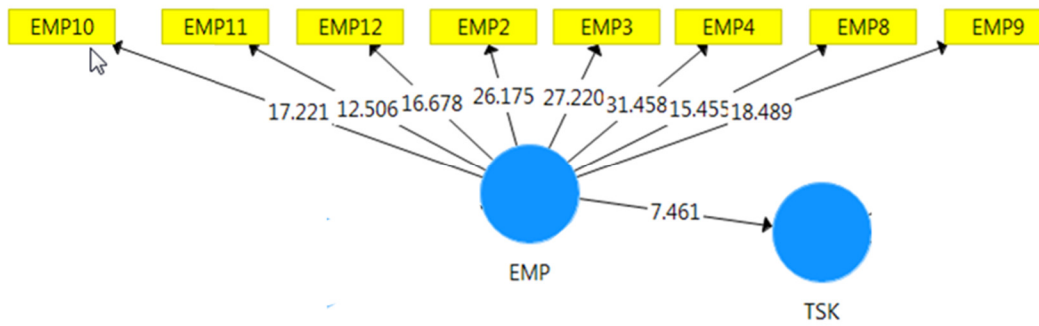


Figure 14 Empowerment And Task Satisfaction Relationship Significance

The good correlation and the significance level of the relationship between perceptions of psychological empowerment and perceptions of task satisfaction support this hypothesis.

We next turn to the fourth hypothesis:

H4: Psychological empowerment is positively related to perceptions pay

To test this hypothesis, we turn to the path coefficients in the structural model, the figure below shows the path coefficient for perceptions of psychological empowerment and perceptions of pay

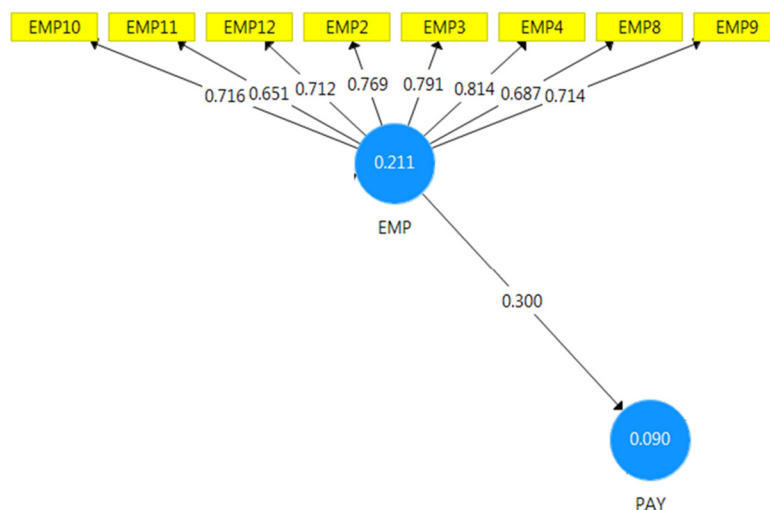


Figure 15 Empowerment And Pay Correlation Coefficient

The above figure shows good correlation between perceptions of psychological empowerment and perception of pay ($\rho=0.30$). This relationship is significant ($t \geq 1.96$, $p \leq 0.05$). The significance of this relationship is shown in the below figure.

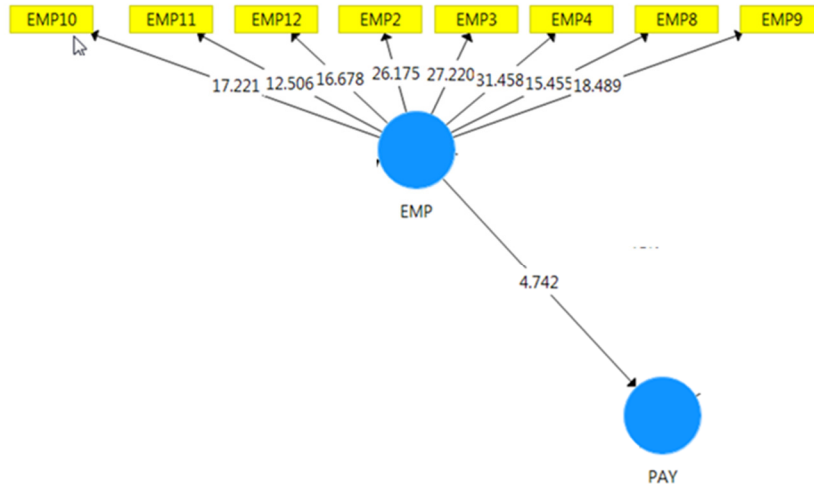


Figure 16 Empowerment And Pay Relationship Significance

The good correlation and the significance level of the relationship between perceptions of psychological empowerment and perceptions of pay support this hypothesis.

The fifth hypothesis we wish to test is the relationship between perceptions of task satisfaction and turnover intentions.

H5: Positive perceptions of task satisfaction are negatively related to turnover intentions

The below figure shows the path coefficient between perceptions of task satisfaction and turnover intentions ($\rho=-0.406$), this shows good negative correlation.

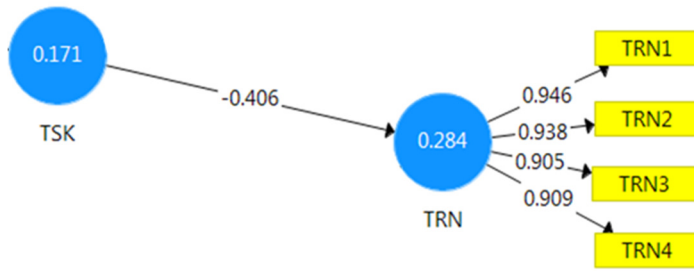


Figure 17 Task Satisfaction And Turnover Intentions Path Coefficients

The relationship between perceptions of task satisfaction and turnover intentions is significant ($t \geq 1.96$, $p \leq 0.05$), this is shown in the below figure.

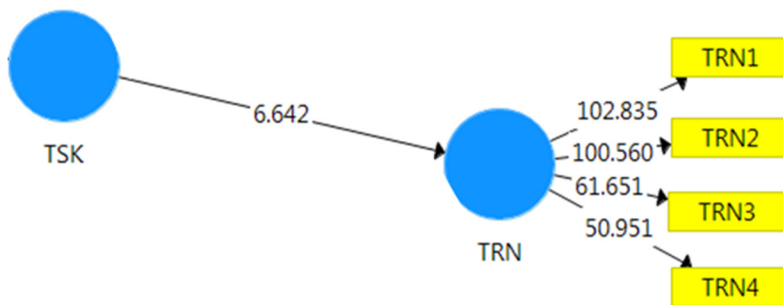


Figure 18 Task Satisfaction And Turnover Intentions Relationship Significance

The good correlation and the significance level of the relationship between perceptions of task satisfaction and turnover intentions support this hypothesis.

Next we wish to test the relationship between perceptions of pay and turnover intentions:

H6: Positive perceptions of pay are negatively related to turnover intentions

The below figure shows the path coefficient between perceptions of pay and turnover intentions ($\rho = -0.31$), this shows good negative correlation.

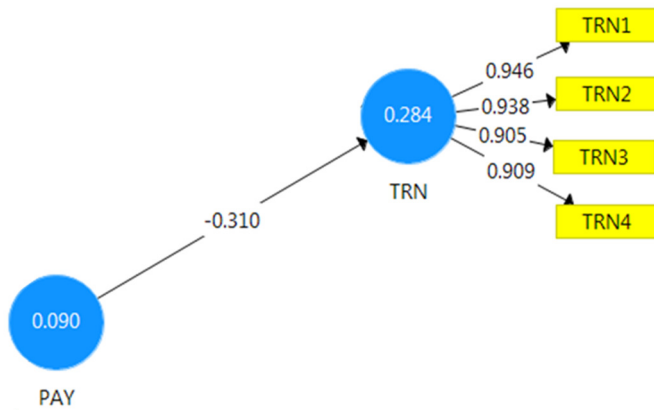


Figure 19 Perceptions Of Pay And Turnover Intentions Path Coefficients

The relationship between perceptions of task satisfaction and turnover intentions is significant ($t \geq 1.96$, $p \leq 0.05$), this is shown in the below figure.

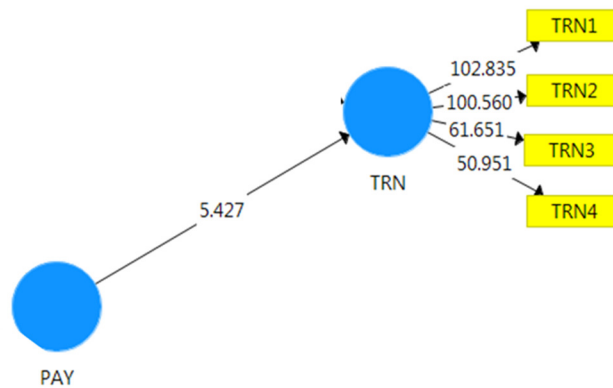


Figure 20 Pay And Turnover Intentions Relationship Significance

The good correlation and the significance level of the relationship between perceptions of pay and turnover intentions support this hypothesis.

The last hypothesis we wish to test is job type acting as a moderator:

H7: Job type (Direct or indirect knowledge worker) will moderate the relationship between work flexibility and empowerment

The figure below shows the path coefficient for job type as a moderator ($\rho=0.059$), this is a very weak correlation. Thus we conclude that this hypothesis is not supported.

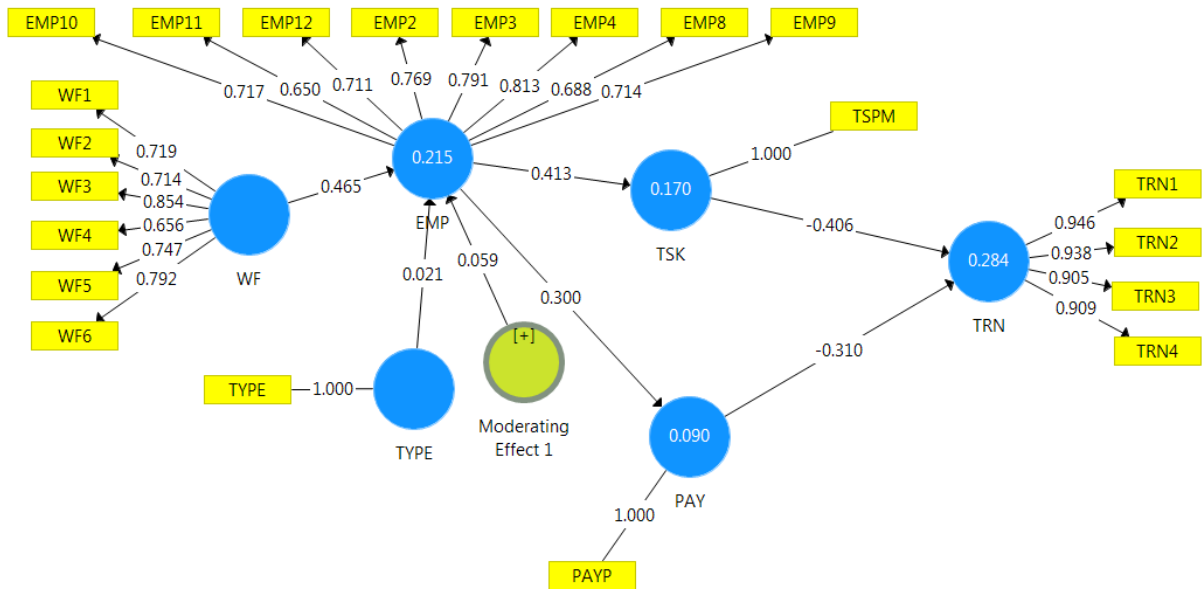


Figure 21 Job Type And Empowerment Path Coefficients

Based on the preceding findings with regards to the hypotheses, the model is updated to exclude job type as a moderator. The updated research model is shown in the below figure.

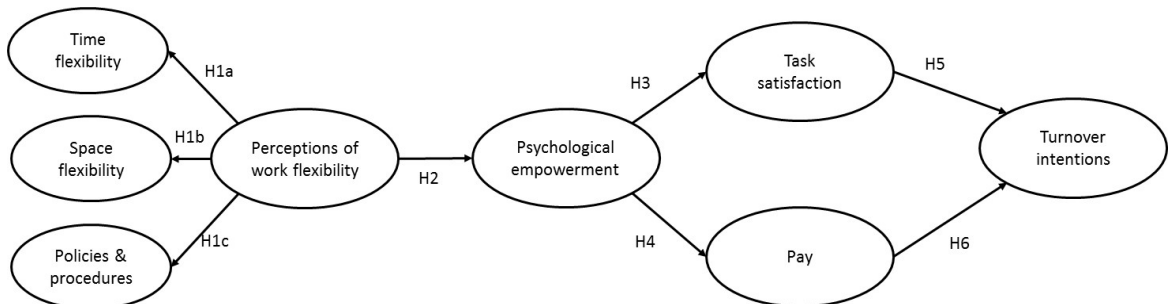


Figure 22 Updated Research Model

Although the previous model runs showed that empowerment plays a significant role mediating the relationship between work flexibility and job satisfaction as can be seen by the strong and significant correlations, we wish to assert this finding a bit more formally. Hair (2016) discussed a criteria for evaluating the mediating role of a construct, the criteria involves studying the relationships with and without the mediator and subsequently evaluating the change in correlations and explained variation. If the change is significant then it can be argued that the construct does play a mediating role. The below figure shows the model with and without empowerment as a mediator. The figure shows that with empowerment mediating the relationship between work flexibility and job satisfaction, strong correlation is obtained between work flexibility and empowerment and also between empowerment and job satisfaction. Also, the explained variation for job satisfaction is as high as 17%. In contrast, when empowerment is taken out of the model, the correlation, now between work flexibility and job satisfaction is weak and below the acceptable threshold of 0.2. Also, the explained variation for job satisfaction drops significantly to 1%. This shows that empowerment does play a significant role in mediating the relationship between work flexibility and job satisfaction.

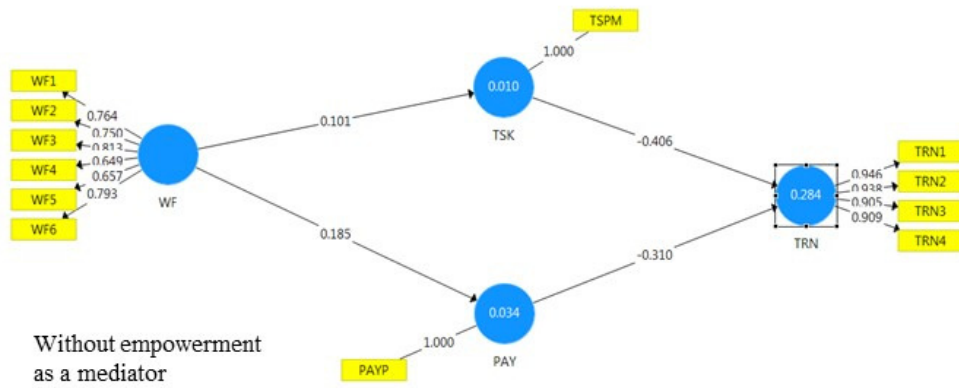
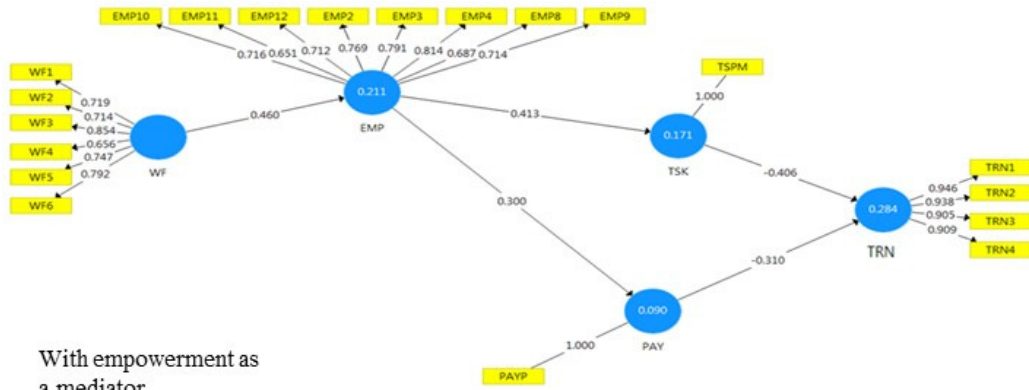


Figure 23 Model Correlations With And Without Empowerment As A Mediator

VIII MODEL EVALUATION

In presenting the model, we have initially evaluated it relative to the correlations between constructs and indicator loadings and the significance of these relationships. We wish to continue our evaluation following the definitions and procedures of Hair (2014). The evaluation criteria we use includes discriminant validity, average variance extracted (AVE), Chronbach's alpha, colinearity statistic (VIF), effect size (f^2), and predictive relevance (Q^2).

Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is the extent to which a construct truly distinct from other constructs by empirical standards. The table below shows that the diagonal coefficients are higher than the off diagonal ones. This means that constructs are indeed distinct from each other.

Table 30 Model Discriminant Validity

	EMP	PAY	TRN	TSK	WF
EMP	0.733				
PAY	0.300	1.000			
TRN	-0.568	-0.346	0.925		
TSK	0.413	0.089	-0.434	1.000	
WF	0.460	0.161	-0.193	0.091	0.750

Average variance extracted (AVE)

Average variance extracted (AVE) is the extent to which an indicator correlates positively with alternative indicators of the same construct. A minimum threshold of 0.5 is adopted. The figure below shows that all the constructs have an AVE of more than 0.5.

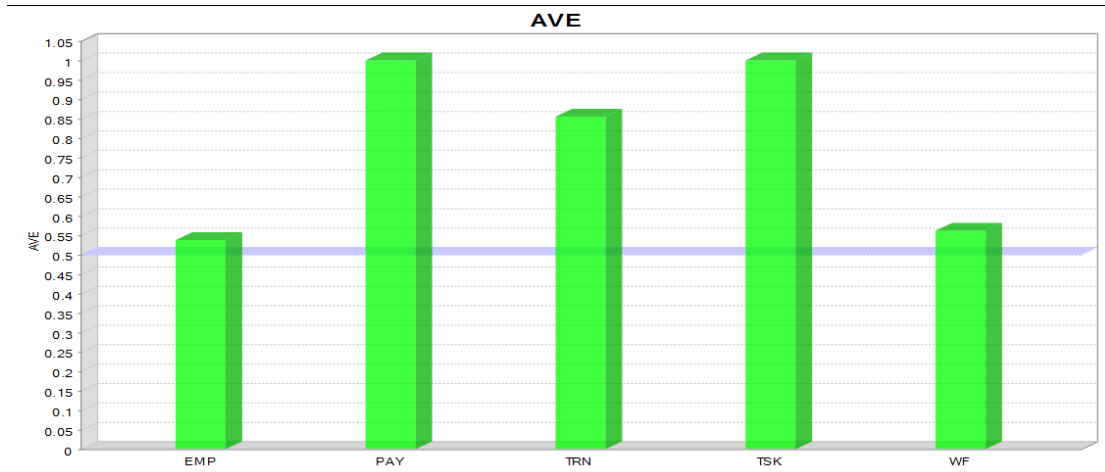


Figure 24 Average Variance Extracted (Ave)

Chronbach's alpha

Chronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency. It is a measure of how closely related a set of items are as a group. The figure below shows that all the constructs have a Chronbach alpha of more than the minimum threshold of 0.707.

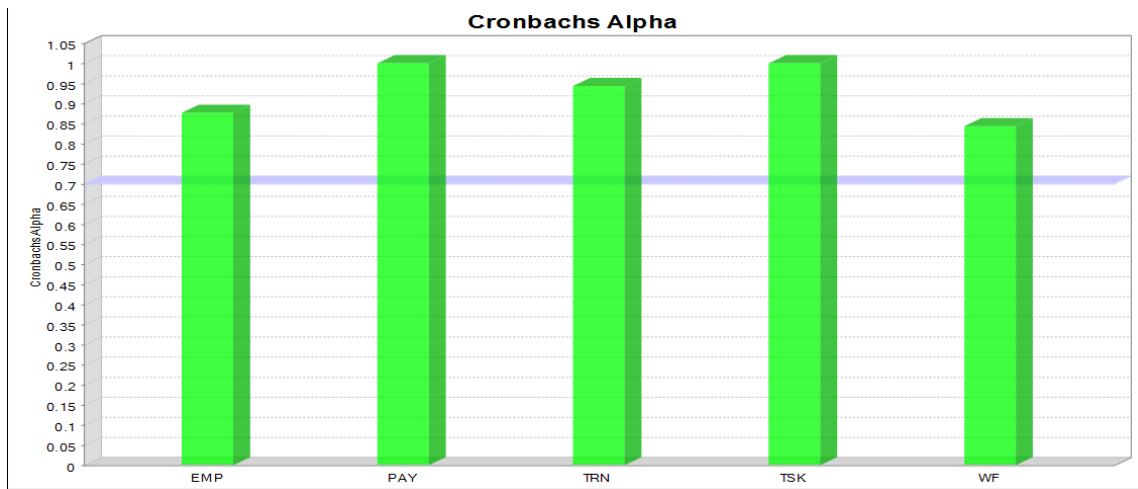


Figure 25 Model Internal Consistency

Colinearity statistic (VIF)

Colinearity statistic (VIF) is the correlation between two predictive constructs, the criteria we adopt is for the correlation factor (VIF) to be below 5. The figure below shows that all the VIFs are below the minimum threshold.

Table 31 Model Colinearity Statistic

	EMP	PAY	TRN	TSK	WF
EMP		1.000		1.000	
PAY			1.008		
TRN					
TSK			1.008		
WF	1.000				

Effect size (f^2)

Effect size (f^2) is the change in R^2 (coefficient of determination) when a predictive construct is deleted. An effect size of 0.02 is considered small, 0.15 medium, and 0.35 large (Cohen, 1988). The figure below shows that all the effect sizes are between medium and large which further supports the hypothesized relationships in the model.

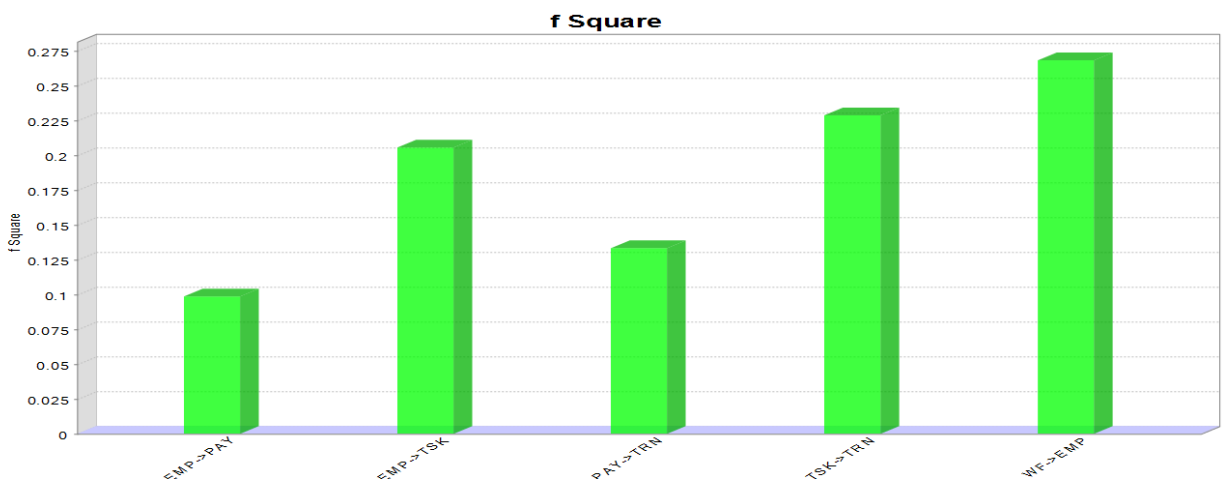


Figure 26 Model Effect Size

Predictive relevance (Q^2)

The last evaluation we discuss is predictive relevance (Q^2) which is a measure of accurately predicting data points of indicators. A predictive relevance of 0.02 is small, 0.15 medium, and 0.35 is large. The predictive relevance for turnover intentions which is the ultimate (i.e. most endogenous) construct in the model is 0.241 which is between medium and large predictive relevance. All the evaluation criteria discussed is summarized in the below table.

Table 32 Summary Of Model Evaluation Criteria

Test	Description	Criteria	Applicable to Indicator relationships?	Applicable to Construct relationships?	Applicable to Constructs – Indicators relationships?	Model meets criteria?
Discriminant validity	the extent to which a construct truly distinct from other constructs by empirical standards	diagonal elements need to be larger than off diagonal ones	No	Yes	No	Yes
Average variance extracted (AVE)	the extent to which an indicator correlates positively with alternative indicators of the same construct	0.5 minimum threshold	No	No	Yes	Yes
Internal consistency (Chronbach's alpha)	a measure of how closely related a set of items are as a group	0.707 minimum threshold	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Indicator loadings (indicator reliability)	An item's absolute contribution to its assigned construct	0.708 or above, 0.4-0.7 may be left if does not improve AVE	Yes	No	Yes	Yes

Colinearity statistic (VIF)	Correlation between two predictive constructs	below 5	No	Yes	No	Yes
Path coefficients	Correlations between constructs	0.2 or above	No	Yes	No	Yes
Effect size (f^2)	The change in R^2 (coefficient of determination) when a predictive construct is deleted	0.02 is small, 0.15 is medium, and 0.35 is large	No	Yes	No	Yes
Predictive relevance (Q^2)	Measure of accurately predicting data points of indicators	0.02 is small, 0.15 is medium, and 0.35 is large	Yes	No	No	Yes (0.241 for TRN – Turnover intentions)

IX DISCUSSION

Running the structural model showed good correlations between the constructs that were hypothesized to correlate. We found that good positive correlation exists between perceptions of work flexibility and perceptions of psychological empowerment ($\rho = 0.460$). There is also good positive correlation between perceptions of psychological empowerment and perceptions of task satisfaction ($\rho = 0.413$). Good negative correlation exists between perceptions of task satisfaction and turnover intentions ($\rho = -0.406$). Perceptions of pay had weaker - but still good - correlations; the correlation between perceptions of psychological empowerment and perceptions of pay was positive ($\rho = 0.300$) while the correlation between perceptions of pay and turnover intentions was negative ($\rho = -0.310$). It is interesting to observe that perceptions of pay had weaker correlations than the other constructs. We argue that this finding suggests that pay is important but not as important as other factors when considering the well-being of workers. Perceptions of psychological empowerment correlate better with perceptions of task satisfaction than they do with perceptions of pay. This suggests that if a worker is feeling empowered, their perceptions of task satisfaction would improve more than their perceptions of pay would. We wish to explore this finding a bit further by looking at the correlations of the perceptions of psychological empowerment indicators (and their groupings) with perceptions of task satisfaction and perceptions of pay, this is shown in the table below.

Table 33 Correlation Between Perceptions Of Psychological Empowerment Indicators And Perceptions Of Task Satisfaction And Perceptions Of Pay

		TSMP – Perceptions of task satisfaction	PAYP – Perceptions of pay
EMP2- Importance of work	EMPM - Meaning	0.348**	0.242**
EMP3- Meaningfulness of job activities		0.361**	0.224**
EMP4 - Meaningfulness of work		0.400**	0.238**
EMP8 - Significant autonomy on how to do job	EMPSD – Self determination	0.274**	0.236**
EMP9 - Decide on own how to do work		0.298**	0.239**
EMP10 - Independence and freedom		0.212**	0.244**
EMP11 - Impact on what happens is large	EMPI - Impact	0.189**	0.155*
EMP12 - Influence on organization		0.267**	0.250**
	** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)		
	* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)		

The above table shows that EMP2- Importance of work, EMP3- Meaningfulness of job activities, and EMP4 - Meaningfulness of work are the psychological empowerment indicators that have the strongest correlations with perception of task satisfaction. These indicators belong to the Meaning grouping of empowerment indicators. In other words, perceptions of meaning have the strongest correlation with perceptions of task satisfaction. Reviewing the correlations and significance levels of the empowerment indicators and perception of pay shows that there is not a particular set of indicators that has the strongest correlations. The perception of meaning indicators had the highest loadings of all other indicators (0.769 – 0.814), this explains why perception of task satisfaction has a stronger correlation with perceptions of empowerment than does perception of pay. In investigating the relationship between volition and job satisfaction, Duffy, Autin, and Bott (2015) reported that when employees feel that the work environment fits their preferences, work becomes more meaningful to them which leads to higher levels of job satisfaction. This finding corroborates the relationship we uncovered between meaning and job satisfaction. Work flexibility facilitates a work environment that better fits the preferences of employees therefore leading to more meaningful perceptions of work and higher levels of job satisfaction.

Now let's look at the relationships between perceptions of task satisfaction and turnover intentions and between perceptions of pay and turnover intentions. The path coefficient between perceptions of task satisfaction and turnover intentions is -0.406 while that between perceptions of pay and turnover intentions is -0.310. Both relationships correlate well but the correlation between perceptions of task satisfaction and turnover intentions is stronger. These results show that both good perceptions of task satisfaction and pay contribute to reducing turnover intentions. If employers wish to reduce employee turnover, they should not only focus on pay but more importantly focus on task satisfaction as well.

The strongest correlation between constructs is the correlation between perceptions of work flexibility and psychological empowerment. The path coefficient is 0.460 thus indicating that feelings of empowerment are indeed influenced by perceptions of work flexibility. We wish to explore this

relationship a bit further by understanding the correlations between the perceptions of work flexibility indicators and the psychological empowerment indicators. The table below shows the correlations between the perceptions of work flexibility indicators and psychological empowerment indicators. The indicator groupings are shown as well, these are: Temporal work flexibility, Spatial work flexibility, Procedural work flexibility, Meaning, Self-determination, and Impact.

Table 34 Correlation Between Perceptions Of Work Flexibility And Psychological Empowerment Indicators

		WFT – Temporal				WFS - Spatial	WFP - Procedura l
		WF1- Time off during workday	WF2- Ability to change work times	WF3- Control on schedulin g work hours	WF5- Allowed to work compres sed week	WF4- Allowed to work partially from home	WF6- Supportin g policies and procedure s
EMP2- Importance of work	EMPM - Meaning	0.316**	0.315**	0.255**	0.164*	0.084	0.280**
EMP3- Meaningfulne ss of job activities		0.266**	0.210**	0.234**	0.136*	0.048	0.271**
EMP4 - Meaningfulne		0.298**	0.234**	0.231**	0.128*	0.101	0.291**

ss of work							
EMP8 - Significant autonomy on how to do job	EMPSD – Self determination	0.288**	0.251**	0.436**	0.324**	0.198**	0.337**
EMP9 - Decide on own how to do work		0.386**	0.321**	0.443**	0.270**	0.313**	0.274**
EMP10 - Independence and freedom		0.389**	0.299**	0.414**	0.326**	0.301**	0.373**
EMP11 - Impact on what happens is large	EMPI - Impact	0.211**	0.354**	0.183**	0.152*	0.019	0.176**
EMP12 - Influence on organization		0.175**	0.293**	0.212**	0.220**	0.180**	0.218**
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)							
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)							

Inspection of the above table shows that the Self-determination grouping of psychological empowerment indicators has the strongest correlation with the work flexibility indicator groupings. The other two groupings of psychological empowerment (i.e. meaning and impact) seem to have very

comparable correlations (to each other) with the work flexibility indicator groupings. The figure below shows the correlations between the indicator groupings for work flexibility and psychological empowerment. The figure confirms the observation that Self-determination has the strongest correlations with the work flexibility indicator groupings as 27% of the variation of Self-determination can be explained from the relationship with work flexibility, the corresponding percentages for Meaning and Impact are 10.1% and 10.7% respectively. This finding is in-line with the definition of self-determination and its relationship with work flexibility; Self-determination is having autonomy in performing work and making decisions as well as feelings of independence and freedom. Work flexibility on the other hand is the ability to control work hours and location and have support from the organization to do so. The correlations therefore seem to support our understanding of how these constructs are related. This finding is supported by studies involving the Person-Environment (PE) fit and self-determination. In studying the relationship between the PE fit and employee commitment, Greguras and Diefendorff (2009) found that there is a strong correlation between PE and self-determination. One of the definitions of PE is the environment providing to the employee what they need (Kristof, 1996), we connect this research to our work by viewing work flexibility as a mechanism of the environment providing to the employee what they need which in turn is a contributor to self-determination.

Before we leave this topic, it is interesting to note that the Spatial grouping of work flexibility indicators has a significant negative correlation with the Meaning grouping of psychological empowerment indicators. We make this observation while we are aware that we are getting a little too granular in extracting learnings from our structural model for the sample size we have. Nonetheless, it is interesting to note this negative correlation which we believe, in light of the theory presented in this dissertation, that this relationship does have some merit. Too much work flexibility has the potential negative effect of removing the employee from the ambient work context and thus making the work less about the company and more about the employee. Exploring further details of the relationships between the construct indicators and indicator groupings would be interesting for future research.

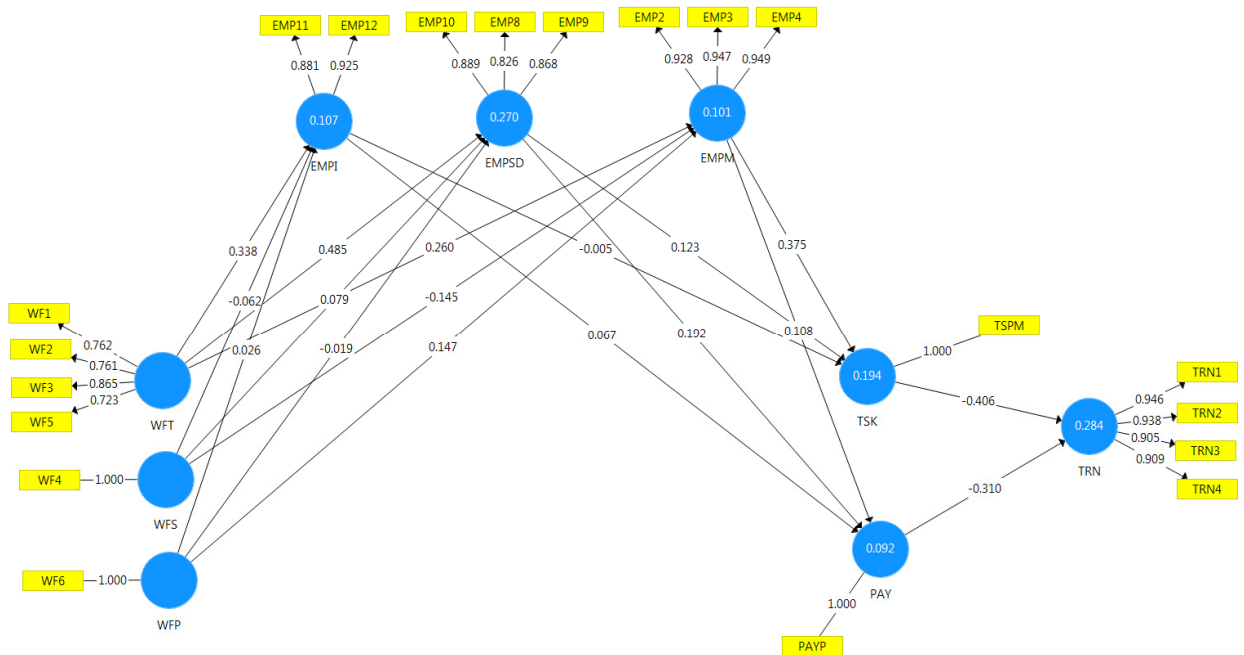


Figure 27 Path Coefficients For Psychological Empowerment And Work Flexibility Indicator Groupings

We discussed previously that all the hypotheses put forward in this dissertation were supported by the data collected and the structural model with the exception of job type acting as moderator for the relationship between work flexibility and psychological empowerment. The model was run on the US population only to see if this hypothesis can be supported (i.e. the global sample may be diluting the results), however, after the model was run it was observed that the hypothesis still was not supported. We present two main reasons for this hypothesis not being supported: 1) the theoretical reasoning behind putting this hypothesis forward was weak as it was a suggestion gleaned from the literature, this suggestion was only supported by a conjectural type reasoning (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007), 2) the question on job type in the survey did not provide a good definition to help the respondents make the most appropriate selections. Rather, the question provided examples of what could be classified as direct or indirect knowledge workers and left it up to the respondent to determine what type their job fit the best.

We end this section with a note on psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment could be an obscure construct that might not lend itself to developing a good understanding of other

constructs and indicators that might be related to it. We wanted to explore a single indicator that can be used to capture the essence of psychological empowerment. We selected EMP1 – Confidence Overall to evaluate using it as a single proxy for psychological empowerment. Overall confidence is a sense of confidence regarding one’s self in one’s work (Witemeyer, 2013). The question we selected in the survey to capture this proxy is: I feel confident in performing my job. The figure below shows that while overall confidence has some resemblance of psychological empowerment it cannot be used as its substitute as only 21% of confidence would be explained by the psychological empowerment indicators. The relationship between confidence and work flexibility and psychological empowerment would be interesting to explore in future research.

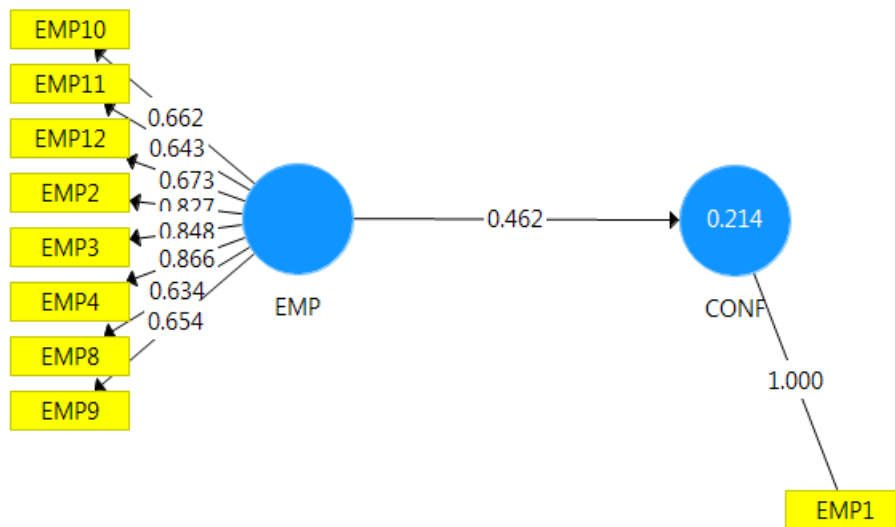


Figure 28 Overall Confidence As A Single Proxy For Psychological Empowerment

X PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Instituting work flexibility in the organization should not be looked at only as an appreciated perk for employees, it is also an important benefit for the firm. Work flexibility is a strong contributor to employee psychological empowerment which in turn leads to improved perceptions of task satisfaction and pay. Improved perceptions of task satisfaction and pay contribute significantly to reducing turnover intentions.

Employee turnover is a costly issue that firms deal with often. The costs of turnover include direct costs such as separation costs, recruiter fees, onboarding costs, and training costs. Turnover also has hidden costs such as business costs associated with employee ramp up, employee morale, and firm reputation. In researching turnover costs, O'Connell and Mei-Chuan (2007) identified lost productivity and lost business as additional consequences of employee turnover. Managers are well advised to implement and practice work flexibility measures for the well-being of both their employees and firm. Managers should keep in mind that while pay is an important contributor to reducing turnover intentions, employees being satisfied with the work they do contributes even more strongly to reducing turnover intentions. A key to employees being satisfied with their work is to give them the work flexibility they need.

This research suggests that the most important aspect of work flexibility to employees is the temporal aspect; being able to take time off during the week, changing work start and stop times, having control over work schedule, and being able to work compressed work weeks. The next important aspect of work flexibility from the stand point of employees is having policies and procedures that support these practices. The spatial aspect (i.e. working from home) seems to be the least important aspect of work flexibility as reported by employees. We conjecture that working from home is less favorable due to a number of factors: 1) feelings of detachment from the work context and weakening the ties between co-workers (Masuda et al., 2012), 2) invasion of the separation between work and life (i.e. work-life spillover (Ilies, Wilson, & Wagner, 2009)), and 3) the need to use personal resources for work (e.g.

internet, printer, etc.) which folds under the wider circle of the adequacy of alternative work places (Hofstede, 2001).

Although not directly covered by this research, one may observe by way of extending some of the findings with regards to work flexibility that more dimensions may be present. These work flexibility dimensions might be less tangible but equally important. An example of such a dimension is decision flexibility; giving the employee the flexibility to make their own decisions, develop their own plans and determine their own deadlines. This of course does not mean that manager needs to be “hands off” but rather should give high level guidelines to their employees with ample room for them to determine the best course of action.

Earlier in this work, we reported that previous research has called for inquiring into who uses work flexibility as this would help employers better understand what specifically their employees are looking for. This in turn will facilitate firms to institute procedures and policies that best fit the needs of their employees. To shed some light on who uses work flexibility, we turn to the respondent personal and contextual demographics and we examine the correlation between gender and utilization (how much do you take advantage of work flexibility policies/practices). The cross tabulation showed no statistically significant correlation between gender and utilization ($p>0.05$). However, when examining the correlation between child care (Do you have and give care to kids under 18 years of age) and utilization, we discovered that this correlation was highly significant ($p<0.01$). Although not as highly significant, still a significant correlation was also observed between elder care (Do you give care to elders) and utilization ($p<0.05$). This finding supports our introductory comments to this dissertation that salient societal changes have occurred over the past half century where women have become an integral part of the workforce and family reliance on more than one earner to make ends meet has increased. So utilization of work flexibility is not gender dependent but rather it is dependent on having children or elders who need care. Further correlation tests showed that there is no statistically significant correlation between child care or elder care and gender.

Another interesting finding is the correlation between having outside work responsibilities (How would you describe the level of your responsibilities outside your workplace) and utilization. This correlation was found to be highly significant ($p < 0.01$). This correlation is defensible as if an employee is involved in outside work activities (such as volunteering at the local school or church or being a board member of a charitable organization) they will need to have flexibility at work to attend to these activities. The correlation between education level and utilization turned out to be statistically highly significant ($p < 0.01$) where the higher the education level meant a higher level of utilization of work flexibility. The reasons as to why such a correlation exists are not clear, however, we conjecture that a leading reason might be that the higher the education level the higher the involvement with outside work activities (such as teaching for example). A correlation test between education level and outside work activities supports this conjecture ($p < 0.01$). Finally, we looked into the correlation between the overall perceptions of work flexibility (Overall, I feel that I have a reasonable degree of work flexibility at my firm) and utilization. We observed a highly significant correlation here ($p < 0.001$) which signifies that when employees feel that they have work flexibility in their firm they are more likely to take advantage of it.

The previous discussion on correlations involving personal and contextual demographics should be helpful to managers as they think about work design and tailoring work flexibility policies and procedures to best fit the needs of their employees. According to our findings, employee gender should not be a determining factor for work design. However, child care and elder care responsibilities should be determining factors as employees with such responsibilities are likely to be looking for flexibility in the workplace. Employee involvement in outside work activities as well as education level should also be determining factors in work design and work flexibility considerations. Lastly, it is important to point out that simply rolling out work flexibility policies and procedures may not be a sufficient motivation for employees to utilize them. Rather, such policies and procedures need to be enacted and made as part of the firm culture where it is acceptable and normal both from an employer and co-worker viewpoints for an employee to be practicing work flexibility policies and procedures.

The use of Crowdsourcing has proven to be a very efficient way of obtaining data to test the hypotheses proposed in this dissertation. All the desired responses were obtained within two hours of launching the survey. For a cost of \$3 per response due to the respondent and \$1.2 fee per response due to Amazon, the speed in getting the needed responses well justifies the cost. Managers can use Crowdsourcing as a method to evaluate the performance of their organization relative to external organizations. By designing the appropriate questions and including adequate attention testers, a wealth of information may be obtained that can not only help baseline the organization's performance but also provide valuable insights into ways the organization can be improved.

XI LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

One of the limitations of this research is that it is performed at the employee level, extending this research to team or organization or firm level may add more insights into the relationships between perceptions of work flexibility, perceptions of employee empowerment, and turnover intentions. Also, even though the respondents were from different regions and countries, the data did not lend itself to compare results by country. Most of the responses were from the US and India, while other countries were included as well, the responses from these countries were very few (one or two responses only in most cases). It would be interesting to perform a country level analysis to observe how the relationships in the dissertation model are affected.

Although the sample size is statistically adequate and appropriate for the number of constructs included in the model, a larger sample is needed if we were to perform an in-depth analysis on the relationships between the indicators for the different constructs (e.g. correlation between working from home and employee feelings of meaning).

Another limitation of this work is the post hoc analysis approach for demographic (e.g. age, gender, education, position, etc.) and contextual (e.g. child care, elder care, commute time, utilization of work flexibility, etc.) correlates. It would be interesting to conduct studies to observe the impact of such variables on the relationships presented in the research model in more detail.

This study was a cross-sectional, single source survey which may be considered as another limitation. Lastly, we attempted to use confidence (overall in performing work) as a single proxy variable for psychological empowerment, while some resemblance was observed, more work needs to be done to uncover the details of this relationship and how confidence can mediate the relationship between work flexibility and job satisfaction.

XII CONCLUSION

Work flexibility has become a more prominent feature of work design in the contemporary firm. A number of societal changes have inspired the need and desire for more flexibility in the workforce (e.g. more working woman, more reliance on double income, and generational differences). Flexible work arrangements refer to giving employees control over when, where, or how much they work. In this research, we focused on work flexibility and its relationship with job satisfaction. There are two aspects of work design that have been researched in relation to empowerment: Job characteristics and information privacy. The aspect of work design that we are researched here is work flexibility.

We focused on job satisfaction as a key construct as numerous studies have asserted its importance and relation to such favorable outcomes as reducing turn over intentions, engagement, career success, and work-family facilitation. Other studies have identified more unfavorable outcomes related to job dissatisfaction; these include absenteeism, poor quality work, and sabotage. In studying job satisfaction, we focused on turnover intentions as a tangible end result (i.e. most endogenous construct).

A number of deficiencies in previous research were pointed out in the literature review, these include: the scarce utilization of a theory-building approach and links to existing organizational theories in studying work flexibility and its effects, anecdotal consideration of work design characteristics leading to psychological empowerment, little determination of the effect of team 'virtuality' as an antecedent of psychological empowerment, inconsistency in matching operationalization of psychological empowerment to research question, weak consideration of moderators, the use of non-standardized research scales, failure to include statistical treatment of the reported data, and the absence of systematic data collection strategies. Moreover, several anecdotal references have been made in the literature that facets of work flexibility may lead to employee empowerment. However, these references do not offer rigorous analysis of the relationship between work flexibility, employee empowerment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Additionally, much of the work in this arena has lacked theoretical framing and thus bringing to light concerns with internal validity.

We view work flexibility as a form of management sharing authority and control with employees and enabling them to perform their tasks, in other words, we view work flexibility as a means to employee empowerment. We thus used empowerment as the theoretical lens to study employee behavior in a work flexibility setting. We considered employee empowerment as a mediating construct of work flexibility effects on job satisfaction. The relationship between work flexibility and employee empowerment has not been rigorously investigated in prior research. At the onset of this research, we wished to contribute to bridging this gap by exploring the work flexibility-empowerment relationship with empirical data.

The preceding analysis and discussion addressed the research question as to whether employee empowerment plays a role in mediating the relationship between work flexibility and job satisfaction. The work presented herein demonstrated the mediating role of employee empowerment and how it is influenced by work flexibility. The main contributions achieved by work are three fold: (1) We empirically investigate the effects of work flexibility on job satisfaction; (2) We evaluated the relationship between work flexibility and turnover intentions; (3) We studied the mediating role of empowerment.

We end this section with a note from a practitioner view point. Firms today demand agile answers to tough questions and expedited solutions to chronic problems. When the obvious ways of saving cost and improving the bottom line are exhausted, firms should look at the less tangible ways to get ahead of competition. In fact, these two efforts or continual improvement streams are best worked on in parallel as they are complimentary to one another. The hidden benefits of employee satisfaction and the hidden costs of employee turnover could be challenging to articulate and present to the executives in a defensible way. However, this research could be looked at as a suggestion to make the intangible more tangible or at least less intangible. By using an empirical and theory-supported approach, together with a scientific model highlighting the relationships between the different constructs, one is able to provide a defensible business case for sponsoring work flexibility practices at the firm. Managers are well advised to trust their employees and empower them by providing them with the personal and structural

preferences they want and need to support their feelings of empowerment and contribute to higher levels of job satisfaction which ultimately leads to lower turnover.

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APPENDIX

XII.1 Appendix I – Literature Search Strategy

Phase 1

- Broad (non-journal specific) search to develop a list of journals of interest and relevant terminology

Phase 2

- Select the 16 most relevant journals from Financial Times top 45 (Management, Human Resources, Operations & Information Systems)
- Browse Table of content for the last 5 years (2010-2014)
- Search the 16 journals using identified key words
- Review and file articles of interest and update list of search terms

Phase 3

- Use updated list of search terms to conduct a broad (non-journal specific) search from years 2005 to 2014 while eliminating non-business related journals and restricting search to articles
- Look for articles that resulted from previous searches and ones that are highly cited, look for convergence
- Review and file articles of interest
- Review the most relevant references of the articles of interest and file selected ones
- Review the most relevant articles that cited the articles of interest and file selected ones
- Look for articles that resulted from previous searches and ones that are highly cited, look for convergence
- Look for meta-analysis articles
- Review relevant articles sent by professors and colleagues
- Repeat searches on journals of interest only

XII.2 Appendix II – Reflective Items

WORK FLEXIBILITY

Source: Cotti et al. (2014)

Factor	Definition	Items
Work flexibility	Temporal, spatial, and policy aspects that support work flexibility	[Time flexibility] It is not hard for me to take time off during my work day to take care of personal or family matters
		[Time flexibility] I am able to temporarily change my starting and quitting times on short notice when special needs arise
		[Time flexibility] Overall, I have reasonable control in scheduling my work hours
		[Space flexibility] I am allowed to work part of my regular paid hours at home
		[Time flexibility] Employees in my organization are allowed to work a compressed workweek for part or all of the year
		[Policies & procedures] My firm has policies and procedures that support work flexibility

EMPOWERMENT - OVERALL

Source: Witemeyer (2013)

Factor	Definition	Items
Psychological Empowerment (Overall)	A sense of confidence regarding one's self in one's work	I feel confident in performing my job

EMPOWERMENT – COMPONENTS

Source: (Spreitzer, 1995)

Factor	Definition	Items
Empowerment - Meaning	A sense of purpose or personal connection about work	The work that I do is important to me.
		My job activities are personally meaningful to me.
		The work I do is meaningful to me.
Empowerment - Competence	An individual's belief in his or her capability to perform activities with skill	I am confident about my ability to do my job
		I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities
		I have mastered the skills necessary for my job
Empowerment - Self Determination	A sense of freedom about how one does one's work.	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
		I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work.
		I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.
Empowerment – Impact	A belief that one can influence the larger organization in which she is embedded.	My impact on what happens in my department is large.
		I have significant influence over what happens in my organization.

TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Source: Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham (1999)

Factor	Definition	Items
Turn over intentions	Thinking of or planning on leaving current job	I am thinking about leaving this organization
		I am planning to look for a new job
		I intend to ask people about new job opportunities
		I don't plan to be in this organization much longer

JOB SATISFACTION

Source: Job Description Index ("Bolwing Green University," 2009)

Pay

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your job
 N for "No" if it does not describe it
 ? for "?" if you cannot decide

<input type="checkbox"/> Income adequate for normal expenses	<input type="checkbox"/> Fair	<input type="checkbox"/> Barely live on income	<input type="checkbox"/> Bad	<input type="checkbox"/> Comfortable
<input type="checkbox"/> Less than I deserve	<input type="checkbox"/> Well paid	<input type="checkbox"/> Enough to live on	<input type="checkbox"/> Underpaid	

Task satisfaction (work on present job)

Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your work
 N for "No" if it does not describe it
 ? for "?" if you cannot decide

<input type="checkbox"/> Fascinating	<input type="checkbox"/> Routine	<input type="checkbox"/> Satisfying	<input type="checkbox"/> Boring	<input type="checkbox"/> Good	<input type="checkbox"/> Gives sense of accomplishment
<input type="checkbox"/> Respected	<input type="checkbox"/> Exciting	<input type="checkbox"/> Rewarding	<input type="checkbox"/> Useful	<input type="checkbox"/> Challenging	<input type="checkbox"/> Simple
<input type="checkbox"/> Repetitive	<input type="checkbox"/> Creative	<input type="checkbox"/> Dull	<input type="checkbox"/> Uninteresting	<input type="checkbox"/> Can see results	<input type="checkbox"/> Uses my abilities

XII.3 Appendix III – Survey

- 1. What you were you born in?**
[YEAR SELECTION]

- 2. Are you employed at least part time?**
[YES | NO]

- 3. What is your gender?**
[MALE | FEMALE]

- 4. What is your race?**
[WHITE| BLACK | ASIAN | HISPANIC | OTHER]

- 5. What is your marital status?**
[SINGLE (NEVER MARRIED)| MARRIED | WIDOWED | DIVORCED]

- 6. What is the highest level of school completed/degree received?**
[LOWER THAN HIGH SCHOOL| HIGH SCHOOL | COLLEGE DIPLOMA | BACHELORS | MASTERS | DOCTORATE]

- 7. What is your work position level?**
[ENTRY LEVEL | INDIVIDUAL CONTRIBUTOR | MANAGERIAL | SENIOR/EXECUTIVE MANAGEMENT]

- 8. What is the type of your job?**
[DIRECT KNOWLEDGE WORKER (e.g. scientist, engineer, researcher, technologist, etc.) | INDIRECT KNOWLEDGE WORKER (e.g. administrator, controller, generalist, etc.)]
If not sure, enter your title here _____

- 9. What is the combined, net family yearly income?**
[LESS THAN \$5,000 | 5,000 TO 7,499 | 7,500 TO 9,999 | 10,000 TO 12,499 | 12,500 TO 14,999 | 15,000 TO 19,999 | 20,000 TO 24,999 | 25,000 TO 29,999 | 30,000 TO 34,999 | 35,000 TO 39,999 | 40,000 TO 49,999 | 50,000 TO 59,999 | 60,000 TO 74,999 | 75,000 TO 99,999 | 100,000

TO 149,999 | 150,000 OR MORE]

10. For how long have you been in your current job?

[LESS THAN 1 YEAR | 2-5 YEARS | 5-10 YEARS | 10-15 YEARS | 15-20 YEARS | MORE THAN 20 YEARS]

11. I feel that I get reasonable support from my co-workers on my work habits

[STRONGLY DISAGREE | DISAGREE | NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE | AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE]

12. Do you have and give care to kids under 18 years of age?

[YES | NO]

13. Do you give care to elders?

[YES | NO]

14. I feel that I get reasonable support from my family on my work habits

[STRONGLY DISAGREE | DISAGREE | NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE | AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE]

15. How would you describe the level of your responsibilities outside your workplace?

[NOT INTENSE AT ALL | SOMEWHAT INTENSE | VERY INTENSE]

16. On average, how long does it take to get to work?

[LESS THAN 15 MINUTES | 15-30 MINUTES | 30-45 MINUTES | 45-60 MINUTES | MORE THAN 60 MINUTES]

17. Using a pen and paper, please write down the six digit code on the bottom right of the picture



18. When were work flexibility policies and practices implemented/changed (select the most recent)?

[LESS THAN 1 YEAR AGO | 2-3 YEARS AGO | 3-5 YEARS AGO | MORE THAN 5 YEARS AGO]

19. How supportive is your firm of work flexibility?

In my firm ...	Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree strongly
... it is not hard for me to take time off during my work day to take care of personal or family matters	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... I am able to temporarily change my starting and quitting times on short notice when special needs arise	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... overall, I have reasonable control in scheduling my work hours	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... I am allowed to work part of my regular paid hours at home	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... employees are allowed to work a compressed workweek for part or all of the year	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... there are policies and procedures that support work flexibility	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

20. Overall, I feel that I have a reasonable degree of work flexibility at my firm

[STRONGLY DISAGREE | DISAGREE A LITTLE | NETHER AGREE NOT DISAGREE | AGREE A LITTLE | AGREE STRONGLY]

21. How much do you take advantage of work flexibility policies/practices?

[NEVER | RARELY | SOMETIMES | OFTEN | VERY OFTEN]

22. The following describes my feelings towards my work

I feel that ...	Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree strongly
... I am confident in performing my work	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... the work that I do is important to me	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... my job activities are personally meaningful to me	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... The work I do is meaningful to me	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... I am confident about my	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

ability to do my job					
... I have mastered the skills necessary for my job	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... my impact on what happens in my department is large	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... I have significant influence over what happens in my organization	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... the most recent implementation/changes in policies has improved these feelings	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

23. The following describes my intentions towards my work

The following describes my intentions towards my work ...	Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree strongly
... I am thinking about leaving this organization	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... I am planning to look for a new job	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... I intend to ask people about new job opportunities	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... I don't plan to be in this organization much longer	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
... the most recent implementation/changes in policies have caused me to more seriously consider leaving this organization	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

24. Pay - Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your job
 N for "No" if it does not describe it
 ? for "?" if you cannot decide

<input type="checkbox"/> Income adequate for normal expenses	<input type="checkbox"/> Fair	<input type="checkbox"/> Barely live on income	<input type="checkbox"/> Bad	<input type="checkbox"/> Comfortable
<input type="checkbox"/> Less than I deserve	<input type="checkbox"/> Well paid	<input type="checkbox"/> Enough to live on	<input type="checkbox"/> Underpaid	

25. Task satisfaction - Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your work

N for "No" if it does not describe it

? for "?" if you cannot decide

Before the most recent implementation/changes in policies

<input type="checkbox"/> Fascinating	<input type="checkbox"/> Routine	<input type="checkbox"/> Satisfying	<input type="checkbox"/> Boring	<input type="checkbox"/> Good	<input type="checkbox"/> Gives sense of accomplishment
<input type="checkbox"/> Respected	<input type="checkbox"/> Exciting	<input type="checkbox"/> Rewarding	<input type="checkbox"/> Useful	<input type="checkbox"/> Challenging	<input type="checkbox"/> Simple
<input type="checkbox"/> Repetitive	<input type="checkbox"/> Creative	<input type="checkbox"/> Dull	<input type="checkbox"/> Uninteresting	<input type="checkbox"/> Can see results	<input type="checkbox"/> Uses my abilities

After the most recent implementation/changes in policies

<input type="checkbox"/> Fascinating	<input type="checkbox"/> Routine	<input type="checkbox"/> Satisfying	<input type="checkbox"/> Boring	<input type="checkbox"/> Good	<input type="checkbox"/> Gives sense of accomplishment
<input type="checkbox"/> Respected	<input type="checkbox"/> Exciting	<input type="checkbox"/> Rewarding	<input type="checkbox"/> Useful	<input type="checkbox"/> Challenging	<input type="checkbox"/> Simple
<input type="checkbox"/> Repetitive	<input type="checkbox"/> Creative	<input type="checkbox"/> Dull	<input type="checkbox"/> Uninteresting	<input type="checkbox"/> Can see results	<input type="checkbox"/> Uses my abilities

26. Please type the six digit code you saw on the picture

Thank You for taking the time to complete this project. Your responses will be processed, and you will receive full payment if the decisions you make are deemed of good quality. Please enter the completion code to receive your payment