European Management Journal 41 (2023) 720–729

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

European Management Journal

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/emj

Exploring the effects of reduced load work arrangements (RLWAs): The role of individual autonomy and workplace level justice perceptions

Aykut Berber [a], Mine Afacan Findikli [b], Elise Marescaux [c], Yasin Rofcanin [d,*], Farooq Mughal [d], Juani Swart [d]

[a] University of West of England, Bristol Business School, Bristol, BS16 1QY, UK
[b] Istanbul Istinye University, Turkey
[c] IESEG School of Management, Lille, France
[d] University of Bath, School of Management, BA2 7AY, UK

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
Reduced load work arrangement
Justice
Autonomy
Affective commitment
Job satisfaction
WERS

ABSTRACT

This paper explores the effects of reduced load work arrangements (i.e. RLWAs) in a context where employees are seeking to balance their work-personal life while employers are reducing costs and staying competitive. We draw on the job-demands control theory and social information processing (SIP) theory to introduce two novel elements mainly to examine how and when the influence of RLWAs unfold: employee's perceived job autonomy as a mediating mechanism and role of social context (i.e., overall justice perceptions at workplace level) in shaping the consequences of RLWAs. We use a large representative data set acquired through WERS (2011) in the United Kingdom. Our findings partially support our hypotheses by shedding light on how and under which conditions the effects RLWAs unfold on employee outcomes. We contribute to debates that emphasize the bridging role of perceived job autonomy in translating the impact of RLWAs on employees' outcomes and hence to keep employees motivated while allowing them to achieve better balance between work and non-work.

1. Introduction

Employees are increasingly seeking ways to tailor their work in an effort to achieve a more effective time allocation between work and non-work roles (Friede, Kossek, Lee, & Macdermid, 2008). One such practice, of particular interest to this study, is a reduced-load work arrangements (RLWA). They involve a voluntary and self-initiated decrease in work hours and workload with a corresponding decrease in salary and sometimes benefits (Buck, Lee, MacDermid, & Smith, 2000; Kossek, Olier-Malaterre, Lee, Pichler, & Hall, 2016). These practices are informal and negotiated with one's supervisor regarding the terms and conditions, thus falling beyond the formal and institutionalized HR policies of a company (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018). Enabling employees achieve a sustainable and successful career constitutes one of the key goals of RLWAs (Bal, P.M. & Dorenbosch, 2015; Kossek & Ollier-Malaterre, 2020).

RLWAs are becoming increasingly popular across the globe: In 2017, on average in OECD countries, 14.2% of employees worked voluntary part-time hours (less than 30 weekly hours) (OECD, 2018). In North America, reduced load work jobs are decreased from 60-50 h to 40 weekly hours. In the UK, according to the most recent, nationally representative dataset, Work Employment Relations Survey (i.e., WERS, 2011), it is the most frequently provided/used flexible work arrangements within the right to request is RLWAs. Approximately, more than 35 percent of employees used RLWAs, which makes this practice relevant and salient in the context of the UK. Increasing prevalence of RLWAs in the UK, accompanied with a recently adopted statutory right to "request flexible working"[1] renders the context of the UK interesting and novel.

Utilising the WERS as nationally representative dataset (WERS,

* Corresponding author.
E-mail addresses: aykut.berber@uwe.ac.uk (A. Berber), mine.findikli@istinye.edu.tr (M.A. Findikli), e.marescaux@ieseg.fr (E. Marescaux), y.rofcanin@bath.ac.uk (Y. Rofcanin), f.mughal@bath.ac.uk (F. Mughal), j.swart@bath.ac.uk (J. Swart).

[1] The statutory right to request flexible working provides employees with the right to apply to their employers regarding changes in the terms of their employment: This relates to mainly to their hours, times or location of work, one of which is seeking for RLWAs. This right was introduced by section 47 of the Employment Act 2002. Following this development, governments have extended the right to other categories of employees. Finally, in 2014 the right was expanded to encompass all employees (Flexible Working, UK Government, 2019).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2022.04.002
Received 1 October 2020; Received in revised form 6 February 2022; Accepted 7 April 2022
Available online 28 April 2022

2011), the overall goal of this research is to explore the mechanisms and boundary conditions of how RLWAs unfold and impact on recipients' work (i.e., job satisfaction and affective commitment) and non-work outcomes (work to family conflict; i.e., WTF conflict). We introduce perceived job autonomy as a mechanism and overall perceived justice at workplace level as a boundary condition to delineate our model (seen in Fig. 1).

Our focus on these outcomes is important for a variety of reasons: Firstly, RWLAs are intended to provide recipient's with discretion and sense of self-confidence over their tasks, driving job satisfaction. Secondly, these practices also serve to enhance employees' commitment in the workplace, so that they can manage their lives better in relation to their work, and thereby enhancing their willingness to stay with the organization (Barnett & Gareis, 2002; Herold & Waldron, 1985). Thirdly, an underlying yet untested assumption of RLWAs is that they help recipients balance work with their non-work lives (Kossek et al., 2016). In undertaking this study, we introduce an important, yet so far overlooked, mechanism (i.e., employees' perceived job autonomy). We draw upon job-demands control theory (Karasek, 1979) to propose that RLWAs influence employees' work outcomes positively and reduce their WTF conflict, as these practices provide employees with autonomy to adjust their timings and pace of their work (Becker et al., 2016; Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006).

Furthermore, based on social information processing theory (SIP; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), we argue that employee' perceptions of their autonomy and their attitudinal reactions depend on the social context surrounding the RLWAs. Relying on the aggregate sources of social comparison, such as the justice perceptions at group level that pervades one's work group (Buckingham & Alicke, 2002); we propose that employees' use of RLWAs are likely to be influenced by the norms of their social context. We propose that when a context is characterised by high perceived justice, RLWAs are less likely to be salient for the recipients (e.g., Mayer, Nishii, Schneider, & Goldstein, 2007; Weigl, Müller, Hornung, Zacher, & Angerer, 2013).

This paper makes two contributions to research on RLWAs. Using a large representative dataset in the UK (i.e. WERS 2011), our study makes a number of contributions to research on RLWAs, perceived overall justice at workplace level and the role of social context: First, we introduce job autonomy as a key mechanism that explains why the positive effects of this work arrangement translate into recipients' enhanced work outcomes while also reducing recipients' conflict in their non-work domains. We strengthen our argument by providing theoretical justifications and explanations of the previously tested (and supported) mechanisms and demographic characteristics of recipients: i.e quality of employees' relationship with their managers (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007); hence emphasizing the importance of job autonomy as an untapped mechanism in this research stream. Second, we introduce one contextual condition i.e. overall justice perceptions at workplace level to explain under which conditions the positive effects of RLWAs do (or do not) unfold. Therefore, the contribution of this research lies in its examination of the workplace social contingency that provides information about the (lack of) exclusivity of employees' use of RLWAs in a workplace.

2. Hypotheses development

2.1. A closer look on the association between RLWAs and employee attitudes: the role of employees' autonomy

Conceptualization and Context of RLWAs. RLWAs refer to a specific type of part-time work that involves reduction in the time spent working (e.g., 20 h a week) and the number of days spent working on a task (e.g., compressed workdays). This type of work comes with taking on pay-cut and reduction in work responsibility (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018). A defining feature of these arrangements is that employees are still progressing on their careers while making use of RLWAs (Kossek et al., 2016).

In understanding the nature and consequences of RLWAs, one should consider the context within which they are implemented. These practices are informal and negotiated within a dyadic relationship of employees and their managers, regarding the terms and conditions of reduced work load (Kossek et al., 2016). They are not part of official HR practices but are constructed through negotiations with one's manager (Kossek & Olier-Malaterre, 2020). Thus, one's manager plays a crucial role in granting, constructing and managing the implications of such arrangements (Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2017). The majority of research on RLWAs document the under-utilization of such practices due to a lack of managerial and organizational implementation support (Powell & Mainiero, 1999), pointing out to the power managers play in granting these deals.

RLWAs constitute flexible work practices and they can be considered similar to idiosyncratic work arrangements (i.e., Beutell & O'Hare, 2018; i-deals; Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2008) and job crafting (Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009) in that, they are informal, voluntary and initiated with the request of the focal employee. However, important distinctions exist that differentiate RLWAs from other flexible work practices. I-deals are personalized to the needs and preferences of focal employee while RLWAs are not necessarily modified for the individual needs. Job crafting does not involve the official support and consent of the supervisor (Leana et al., 2009), which therefore may have

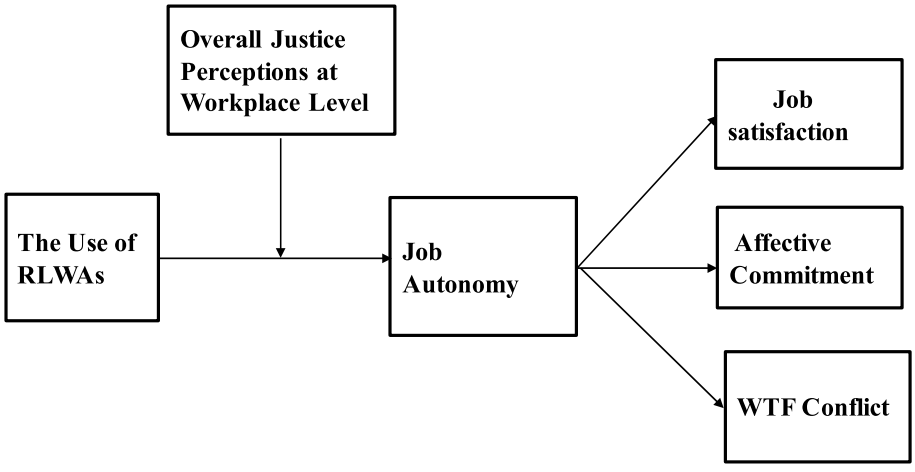

Fig. 1. Proposed conceptual model.
Note. RLWA = Reduced load work arrangement.

no obvious impact on the work design of the employee. However, as discussed in recent research on RLWAs (e.g., Kossek et al., 2016); supervisor support is key in materializing these practices and renLiaong them effective for the recipient as well as the organisation.

In the context of the UK, right to request flexible working was granted by section 47 of the Employment Act 2002. With the efforts of the succeeding Governments, finally in 2014, the right was extended to all employees by the Children and Families Act 2014. These rights of employees encompass part-time work, reduced load work arrangement, compressed hours, home working, term time working, job sharing and varying time working. Among these practices, our choice of RLWAs was driven by two reasons:

First and most importantly, RLWAs represent a very important yet still underexplored practice as compared to other flexible work practices including flexitime, telework and i-deals, as the amount of work to be completed remains same and constant (Kossek et al., 2016). For instance, flexitime involves re-scheduling of the timing of work to complete the same amount of work within the same pay scale. Same applies to telework. Unlike flexitime and telework where work remains constant, RLWAs challenge managers' assumptions regarding typical workloads. Managers have to reallocate and manage the demands arising from long work hours. It also pursues managers to re-configure their expectations of professional work and talent management for employees who use RLWAs (Lee et al., 2002). Thus, this means RLWAs involve a radical redesign of a focal employee's job, without having career reprimands and negative consequences.

A second reason relates to the fact that the allocation of RLWAs challenge and modify managers' assumption about reduced-load employees' performance and talent management (Lee et al., 2002). RLWAs are sometimes framed as "professional part-time work" (Kossek et al., 2016). While part-time work is usually carried out by low-skilled employees in an insecure and hourly-paid job context, RLWAs are voluntarily chosen by employees who still want to progress in their careers and balance work with non-work roles by reducing the amount of workload and number of hours they work (Friede et al., 2008).

2.2. Hypotheses development

2.2.1. The impact of RLWAs on employee outcomes

In developing our arguments on the impact of RLWAs on employee outcomes, we build on job-demands control theory (Karasek, 1979). A key tenet of this theory is that employee's sense of control buffers the impact of job demands on strain and can help employees achieve satisfaction in their work domain (Karasek, 1979). As delineated in a review study on job-demands control theory, an important mechanism through which employees tackle various job demands is the sense of control and autonomy they possess over the scheduling of their work tasks (Kain & Jex, 2010). Earlier research conceptualized job control as decision authority or work autonomy (Ganster & Fusilier, 1989; Spector, 1986) which involve employee's primary control over work tasks. Primary control is about having the discretion over where and when one works that involves decisions about aspects of work and tasks (e.g., Rothbaum, Weisz, & Snyder, 1982). More recent theorization has conceptualized job control to be a job resource (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) or an aspect of the working environment that allows an employee to, for instance, deal with workplace demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Drawing on this key logic of the theory and recent propositions that underline the role of job control as a job resource, we propose that RLWAs influence employees' work and non-work lives positively because such arrangements are likely to provide employees with the discretion and freedom to control (1) how they work, (2) the pace of their work and (3) and the location of their work (e.g., Bhave, Kramer, & Glomb, 2010; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

The main tenet of the job-demands control theory is that the exertion of influence and control at work leads to feelings of mastery and adjustment to changing or stressful job conditions (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Karasek, 1979). An implicit assumption in RLWAs literature is that these arrangements increase self-reliance in scheduling, prioritizing and completing particular tasks in employee's own pace and time (Kossek et al., 2016). Additionally, having the chance to work with a reduced workload schedule allows employees to have control over breaks, layout, decoration, music and all other ambient elements that add to increased feelings of autonomy and enjoyment of their work tasks (Elsbach, 2003). We thus propose a positive association between RLWAs and employee's perceptions of autonomy regarding their jobs.

In turn, we argue that an increased sense of autonomy, emanating from the use of RLWAs is positively associated with employees' job satisfaction, affective commitment toward their organization while negatively relating to WTF conflict. According to the job-demands control theory (Karasek, 1979; p. 289–290), job autonomy is "the working individual's potential to control his tasks and his conduct during the work day". Further developments on the conceptualization and implementation of the theory underline that, beyond its positive impact on work outcomes, sense of control is likely to shape employee's experience and engagement with their family and activities in leisure life, having a positive spillover effect in non-work domains (Luchman & González-Morales, 2013).

With regards to the impact on employees' well-being, the findings in Lee, MacDermid, Williams, Buck, and Leiba-O'Sullivan (2002) revealed that 91% of reduced-load employees reported increased satisfaction with their balance between home and work as a result of adopting such an arrangement (see also Hill, Martinson, Ferris, & Baker, 2004). More recent studies demonstrated that RLWAs lead to enhanced well-being and positive emotional reactions (de Hauw & Greenhaus, 2015). An untested assumption of the majority of these studies is that employees enjoy a sense of control and discretion over the time and location flexibility over their work tasks and as a result report enhanced well-being.

With regards to the impact on employees' work outcomes, in their study involving interviews with employees, Barnett and Hall (2001) found that seventy percent of employees reported that they would be more satisfied with their jobs if they were given the opportunity to work on a RLWA program. In terms of impact on employees' work performance, earlier evidence generally supports the implementation of RLWAs. It is found that employees with RLWAs are "at least as productive as their full-time counterparts" (Barnett, 2003, p. 1) and can benefit from similar career opportunities for promotion as full-time employees (Hill et al., 2004; MacDermid, Lee, Buck, & Williams, 2001).

More recently, in their study involving interviews with HR managers, Friede et al. (2008) point out to relational and team level characteristics for the successful implementation and management of RLWAs. Their findings highlight that good relations with one's managers and supportive climate facilitate the successful implementation of RLWAs. In another study involving interviews with managers, Kossek et al. (2016) demonstrated the importance of supportive relationships with a focal employee's line manager and supportive climate for the implementation of RLWAs. A similar pattern of finding was observed in the study of Kossek and Olier-Malaterre (2020) who demonstrated that managers' support is crucial for the implementation and management of RLWAs. While earlier research has offered support regarding the impact of RLWAs on employee work outcomes, surprisingly only limited research exists that discusses how RLWAs impact on employee's functioning in their family domains. Indirect evidence comes from research on idiosyncratic work deals: The findings in Hornung et al. (2008) demonstrates a negative association between reduced workload arrangement (a sub-dimension of i-deals) and work-family conflict. Building on this body of research, Las Heras, Rofcanin, Matthijs Bal, and Stollberger (2017) revealed that flexibility i-deals (i.e., personalized discretion over when and where works) improves employee's family performance. A common thread among these studies is that there is need for future research to understand how and why RLWAs are likely to impact on recipients' work and non-work outcomes in the way they do. Therefore,

our first hypothesis is:

H1. *The use* RLWAs *is positively and indirectly associated with employees' job satisfaction, affective commitment towards the organisation and negatively and indirectly associated with WTF conflict through employees' job autonomy.*

2.2.2. The moderating role of overall justice perceptions at workplace level: Ceiling and floor effects

We integrate research on social comparison theory to argue how the moderating impact of perceived overall justice perceptions at workplace level unfolds on the association between RLWAs and autonomy. Social comparison theory underlines that the informational cues retrieved from such a social context in a work environment are key ingredients in shaping the perceptions and behaviours of employees. An important feature of social context is perceived overall justice, which refers to the extent to which policies and procedures in a work environment are implemented in a consistent and fair manner (Li & Cropanzano, 2009). The presence of high (versus) low perceived justice renders the use of RLWAs more (versus less) salient in the eyes of employees.

We argue that in workplaces where perceived justice is high, the positive impact of RLWAs on autonomy becomes weaker. The workplaces that are characterized by high overall perceived justice, both the processes that lead to the allocation of outcomes and the interpersonal treatment given to employees (i.e., interactional justice; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Greenberg, 1993) are likely to be viewed and judged favourably by all employees. In conceptualising overall perceived justice, we draw on the works of Naumann and Bennett (2000) who first coined the term perceived justice at group level. They defined it as "group-level cognition about how a work group as a whole is treated" (p. 882). This understanding of justice perceptions has been influential in justice literature (e.g., Ehrhart, 2004; Roberson & Colquitt, 2005; Rupp et al., 2007) and is considered a central tenet of SIP theory (Li & Cropanzano, 2009). Meta-analyses support the desirable impact of perceived overall justice, demonstrating that working in a team shaped by high justice perceptions generates an overall positive impact on employee emotions and their attitudes toward their jobs (Colquitt et al., 2013). Yet, we posit that working in a workplace where employees hold high degree of justice perceptions, the positive impact of RLWAs on employee's sense of autonomy will be weaker because the use of RLWAs has become a norm and their use is no longer salient for the perceptions of employee's autonomy.

A key tenet of social comparison theory is the referent others: with whom individuals choose to compare themselves (Gerber, 2020; Johnson & Stapel, 2007). Individuals are more likely to choose a comparison (e.g., point of reference) close in ability to compare with instead of a distant one. This assumption rests on the principle that social comparison unfolds when one's referents are those close in social, structural, and physical distance (Obloj & Zenger, 2017). For employees whose perceptions of overall justice is high in a workplace, the positive impact of RLWAs on perceptions of autonomy is likely to be weakened. The combination of high perceptions of justice and the implementation of RLWAs suggests that policies and principles around the implementation of these work arrangements are transparent and clear for everyone in this specific work team. Policies, procedures and communication regarding the use of RLWAs is same and similar for everyone (Rupp et al., 2007). As such, each member of the team is likely to obtain RLWAs if they seek to benefit from these practices mainly because a work team defined by high justice perceptions indicate equality and fairness in the implementation of any HR policies for every member of this team, indicating consistent application of resources among all members. Consequently, these employees who use RLWAs are less likely to feel sensitive to and benefit from the positive impact of these policies, reporting lower extent of autonomy.

On the contrary, we argue that in a work context characterized by low justice perceptions, access to the use of RLWAs is not tenable for all employees, making their use and impact more sensitive, salient and positive for them (Buunk, Groothof, & Siero, 2007). Following this logic, in a workplace where perceived justice is low, we will expect to see the impact of RLWAs be stronger, strengthening employee's perceptions of autonomy (Rupp et al., 2007) In a work environment where there are no consistent and fair rules regarding various procedures and decisions (i.e., low fairness perceptions), access to and the use of RLWAs will be considered as a unique beneficial work arrangement which will consequently lead employees to feel more autonomous. This is mainly because under these conditions, RLWAs become a salient, valuable and unique work arrangements the benefits of which will only incur on these employees.

In sum, we argue that in workplaces where overall justice perceptions are high (versus low), the positive impact of RLWAs in the form of autonomy is likely to be weakened (versus strengthened):

H2. Overall perceptions of justice at the workplace level moderate the positive association between the use of RWLAs and perceived job autonomy. The positive effects of use of RLWAs will be weaker (versus stronger) in workplaces characterised by high (versus low) perceptions of overall justice perceptions.

Combining our arguments, in workplaces where employees perceive overall justice perceptions to be higher (versus), their experiences of autonomy is expected to be less (versus) meaningful, impactful and significant. As a result of feeling less (versus more) autonomous emanating from the use of RLWAs, these employees are less (versus more) likely to feel satisfied with their jobs, demonstrate affective commitment toward their organization and more likely to report increased (versus decreased) work-family conflict. We thus hypothesize:

H3. Overall justice perceptions at workplace level are likely to moderate the mediation of autonomy between RLWAs and employee outcomes of job satisfaction, affective commitment towards the organisation and WTF conflict: This mediation is significantly more negative (versus positive) in workplaces characterized by high (versus low) perceptions of overall justice perceptions.

3. Method

3.1. Research context and sample

We used linked employer-employee data from the WERS 2011 management and employee surveys. WERS is considered a nationally representative dataset of British workplaces with five or more employees in all industry sectors (with the exception of agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing, and mining and quarrying). Being sponsored by the British government, the Economic and Social Research Council, the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service, and the Policy Studies Institute; it is widely regarded as a highly authoritative data source. In the survey, a workplace is defined as a premise consisting of the activities of a single employer (Van Wanrooy et al., 2013), for example, a bank branch. In each of these workplaces, face-to-face interviews were conducted with the manager who was the primary responsible for employee relations. The management survey comprising of 2680 observations (with a response rate of 46.5 percent) enabled us to identify control variables at the workplace level. The employee survey, based on self-completion questionnaires administered to a random sample of up to 25 employees in each workplace, helped identify the variables for our hypotheses and control variables at the individual level. We used employee identification number (*persid*) to link employee and manager surveys. The final WERS employee survey comprised responses from 21.981 employee surveys (with a response rate of 54.3 per cent) in 1.923 workplaces. Yet, due to missing values on a number of key variables in our study, the retained and useable sample was 21.392 employees in 1914 workplaces (average workplace size = 11.18 employees).

3.2. Measures

The use of RLWAs. To measure RLWAs, employees were asked whether they used a RLWA in the last 12 months. We re-coded the answer categories 3 (i.e. not available to me) into a new code, 0, which represents non-use of RLWAs. We re-coded 1 (i.e. I have this arrangement) into a new code, 1, representing the use of RLWAs.

Overall Justice Perceptions at Workplace Level. In each workplace, employees were asked to evaluate the extent to which managers treat all employees fairly (re-coded into 1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree; to ease the interpretation). We aggregated all the responses at workplace level (ICC: 45%) to reach a measure of overall justice perceptions at workplace level. This approach is adopted in related research (Naumann & Bennett, 2000; Roberson & Colquitt, 2005).

Employees' Job Autonomy. We used a composite score of the following five items to measure employees' autonomy at work (re-coded into 1 = do not know; 5 = a lot; to ease the interpretation; $\alpha = 0.81$): In general, how much influence do you have over the following? "The tasks you do in your job", "the pace at which you work", "how you do your work", "the time you start or finish your working day" and "the order in which you carry out your tasks" $\alpha = 0.86$). The WERS research team selected these items based on prior research (e.g., Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987; Kim, Cable, Kim, & Wang, 2009).

Employees' Affective Commitment. In line with studies that draw on WERS 2011 (Ogbonnaya, Daniels, Connolly, & van Veldhoven, 2017, we used three items to measure employees' affective commitment to their organization. Employees were asked to state the extent to which "they share the organization's values"; "feel loyal to the organization"; and "are proud to tell people about the organization" (recoded into 1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree to ease the interpretation; $\alpha = 0.85$).

Employees' Job Satisfaction. Following recent research on WERS (Wood & Ogbonnaya, 2016), we used a composite score to represent job satisfaction. These included the following items: Satisfaction from the sense of achievement from work; from using one's own initiative, influence over one's job, training one receives, opportunity to develop one's skills, pay, job security and the work itself (recoded into 1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree to ease the interpretation; $\alpha = 0.87$).

WTF Conflict. The WERS has one item to measure WTF conflict which asks employees to evaluate the extent to which they often difficult to fulfil non-work commitments because of the time spent on job (recoded into 1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree to ease the interpretation).

Controls. In testing our hypotheses, we included control variables at the individual and workplace level, which we selected in the light of studies on flexible work practices, affective commitment to organization and of previous studies based on the WERS series (e.g., Conway & Sturges, 2014). At the individual level, we controlled for gender, age, dependent children, workplace tenure, managerial status, contract type (permanent versus temporary), membership of trade union, ethnicity and fixed wage. At the workplace level, following prior research (Ogbonnaya et al., 2017; Wood & Ogbonnaya, 2016), we controlled for workplace and organization size, whether it is a single independent workplace or otherwise, nationality of ownership, union recognition, the formal status of the organization, number of years the workplace has been operational, socio-economic group of the employees within the workplace, whether some employees are non-UK nationals, the number of male/female and non-UK national employees in managers and senior officials group and, finally, industry.

Additionally, we controlled for (1) employees' quality of relationship with their managers (i.e., "In general, how would you describe relations between managers and employees here"; re-coded into 1 = very poor, 5 = very good); (2) employees' work interfering with their non-work domains (i.e., "I often find it difficult to fulfil my commitments outside of work because of the amount I spend on my job"; re-coded into 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree); and (3) their non-work domains interfering with their work domains ("I often find it difficult to do my job properly because of commitment outside work"; recoded into 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). We controlled for these variables because recent research on FWPs (Kossek et al., 2016) as well as other related research, i.e., telecommuting (Gajendran, Harrison, & Delaney-Klinger, 2015) revealed that relationship quality with managers and interference between work and non-work domains might explain why reduced load arrangements shape employee attitudes. To provide a stronger argument for the role of employees' perceived job autonomy as a mechanism, we included these variables as controls in our analyses.

3.3. Analytical strategy

Due to the nested structure of the data, i.e., employees (Level 1) nested in their workplaces (Level 2), multi-level regression modelling is used. We utilized MPLUS software to test our proposed hypotheses in a comprehensive, multilevel, path model. The WERS is based on sample designs that involve departures from simple random sampling. Weighting is needed to account for the probability of selection of the respondent's workplace into the main management sample, the respondent's own probability of selection from the employee population at the workplace, and bias introduced as a result of employee non-response. Accordingly, we used weighting procedures as suggested by the WERS team.[2] Specifically, in weighting the analyses, we used the variable: svyset serno [pweight = seqwtnrc - (seqwtnrc_apr13)] from the raw dataset, where: seqwtnrc is the employee weight variable and serno is the unique workplace identifier. As the mode of weighting, standardized weights are used. Our analyses include weighted results.

4. Results

Table 1 reports the mean, standard deviation, and correlations among study variables. For correlations between continuous variables, we made use of Pearson correlation coefficients, while for correlations with dichotomous variables (i.e. those with RLWAs), we made use of Kendall's tau coefficients.

We conducted statistical analyses (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012) to see if CMB is a problem. Building on our findings[3] and the various measures taken by the WERS team, it can be concluded that CMB was not an issue.

[2] First, we conducted split-half reliability test, which is suggested when single item measures are used and sample size is relatively large (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). Accordingly, we split the data into two groups: according to use and non-use of reduced work load arrangement. In each separate groups, the correlations between job autonomy and affective commitment ($r = 0.52$, $p < .01$ for group who had reduced work load; $r = 0.56$, $p < .01$ for group who do not have reduced work load) were similar. Second, we conducted a marker variable analysis (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). We did this by subtracting the lowest positive correlation between self-report variables which can be considered a proxy for common method bias, from each correlation value. Each of these values was then divided by 1 – the lowest positive correlation between self-report variables. The resulting correlation values reflect common method bias adjusted correlations. Large differences between the unadjusted and common method bias adjusted correlations suggest that common method bias is a problem. The absolute differences were relatively minimal in our findings, ranging between 0.01 and 0.005.

[3] As MPLUS does not allow bootstrapping for multi-level models, we estimated a simplified model in which the use of RLWAs relates to our three outcome variables, both directly and indirectly through autonomy. This essentially did not alter any results as the interaction with justice perceptions at the workplace level turned was insignificant. Hence, it allowed us to perform bootstrapping with 1000 iterations to estimate confidence intervals for the indirect relationships.

Table 1
Means, standard deviations and correlations.

	Variables	*Mean*	*S.D.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Use of RLWA (0 = No; 1 = Yes)	0.34	0.47	n.a.						
2	Job Autonomy	3.07	0.74	0.04	n.a.					
3	Affective Commitment	3.81	0.81	0.04	0.33	0.85				
4	Job Satisfaction	3.55	0.72	0.06	0.47	0.62	0.92			
5	Work-to-Family Conflict	2.77	1.12	−0.03	−0.09	−0.12	−0.22	n.a.		
6	Overall Justice Perceptions at Workplace Level	3.58	0.57	0.01	0.14	0.26	0.27	−0.09	n.a.	

Notes. Pearson correlations are used for continuous variables, and Kendall's tau correlations were used for correlations with dichotomous variables (i.e. the use of RLWA).
RLWA = Reduced Load Work Arrangement.
n = 21.392 employees in 1.914 workplaces.
All correlations are significant at: **p < .01.
Reliabilities, where applicable, are shown along the diagonal in parentheses.

4.1. Hypothesis testing

To test our hypotheses in their entirety, we estimated a multi-level path model in MPLUS (Preacher, 2015). Specifically, we built a model in which the use of RLWAs (at the individual level) and the overall justice perceptions (at the workplace level) related to autonomy, which then subsequently related to job satisfaction, affective commitment and work-to-family conflict. Moreover, we allowed for a direct relationship between the use of RLWAs as well overall justice perceptions and the outcome variables to capture both indirect and direct relationships. Finally, we included an interaction term between the use of RLWAs and overall justice perceptions (using group-mean centering to avoid multicollinearity). Based on several fit indices, the fit of this model was excellent: RMSEA (0.01), CFI (1.00), TLI (1.00), SRMR (0.01) and Chi-square (6.31; p = .10). The unstandardized coefficients are reported in Fig. 2. Hypothesis 1 proposed that employees' job autonomy would mediate the association between the use of RLWAs and our three outcome variables, i.e. affective commitment, job satisfaction and work-to-family conflict. To test this, we first estimated the indirect relationships in MPLUS between the use of RLWAs and the outcome variables through autonomy. These proved to be significant (*unstandardized coefficients*): job satisfaction (0.04; p = .000), affective commitment (0.03; p = .000) and work-to-family conflict (−0.01; p = .000).

Moreover, following the recommendations from Preacher and Hayes (2008), we used bootstrapping (k = 1000) to estimated confidence intervals for the indirect relationships[4]. For all three outcome variables, the 95% confidence intervals (unstandardized coefficients) did not contain zero: job satisfaction (0.03/0.06), affective commitment (0.02/0.05) and work to family conflict (−0.02/-0.01). In other words, we can conclude that autonomy mediates the relationship between the use of RLWAs and our three outcome variables. However, as can be seen on Fig. 2, there are still significant direct relationships between the use of RLWAs and the three outcome variables. Hence, we conclude that hypothesis 1 is confirmed, yet our results suggest that it concerns a partial mediation. To get a sense of the effect sizes of these indirect effects, we calculated the Cohen's f-square for each dependent variable (Selya, Rose, Dierker, Hedeker, & Mermelstein, 2012). Specifically, this captures explained variance in each dependent variable relative to a model in which the mediator would not be modelled. Importantly, looking at the absolute R^2 sizes (at the employee level, where the independent variable and mediator are modelled), we see an increase for each of the dependent variables when we compare a model without and with job autonomy as a mediator: 0.22 (job satisfaction), 0.01 (work to family conflict) and 0.10 (affective organizational commitment). This results in Cohen's f-square values of 0.27 (job satisfaction), 0.01 (work to family conflict) and 0.11 (affective organizational commitment). Following the general guidelines by Cohen (1988), we can conclude that for job satisfaction the effect size is medium to large, for affective organizational commitment small to medium and for work to family conflict very small. Hence, the practical significance of the indirect effects is most pronounced for job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2 and 3 proposed that overall justice perceptions at the workplace level moderate the association between the use of RLWAs and

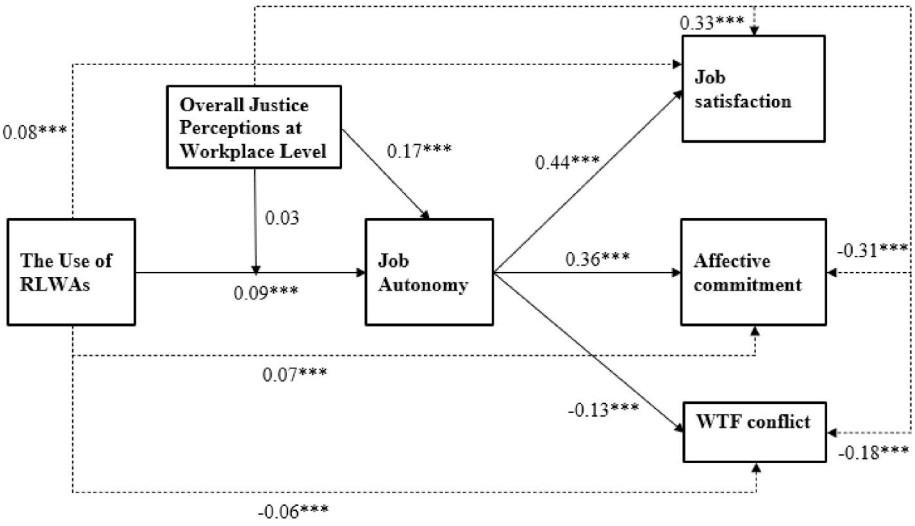

Fig. 2. Results path modelling in MPLUS
Notes: unstandardized coefficients; n = 21.392 in 1.914 workplaces; RLWAs = reduced load work arrangement; *** = p < .001.

our three outcome variables, through its moderation effect on autonomy. The interaction term between the use of RLWAs and overall justice perceptions was not significant, offering no evidence for Hypothesis 2 and 3 (β = 0.03; p = .23).

To strengthen the rigour of our findings and conceptual model, we conducted additional analyses. First, as they are dependent variables in our model, adding the correlation between them to the model (estimated at 0.21***), does not alter any of the other coefficients in our model. Hence, this does not add value to our model. Second, adding a path from job satisfaction to affective organizational commitment (which seems to be the most supported causal relationship; Saridakis et al., 2020) leads to a much poorer model fit (RMSEA = 0.09; CFI = 0.95; TLI = 0.70; SRMR = 0.05) than our original model (RMSEA = 0.01; CFI = 1.00; TLI = 1.00; SRMR = 0.01). Finally, adding a reciprocal path (so a path from job satisfaction to affective organizational commitment and vice versa) equally leads to a poorer fit (RMSEA = 0.08; CFI = 0.96; TLI = 0.76; SRMR = 0.05). Hence, these additional analyses lend support to our original – more parsimonious – model, which we report in our manuscript.

5. Discussion

The role of job autonomy as a missing linchpin. Our findings revealed that job autonomy translates the positive effects of RLWAs on employees' affective commitment, job satisfaction and reduces WTF conflict, emphasizing its role as a linchpin (H1). This finding supports the core tenet of job-demands control theory in showing that, sense of autonomy and ownership constitute important mechanisms through which work practices shape employee outcomes. From the perspective of job-demands control theory, our findings expand prior research which revealed that job autonomy leads to enhanced well-being at work, such as reduced anxiety, stress, and burnout/exhaustion (e.g., de Lange, Taris, Kompier, Houtman, & Bongers, 2003; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). In terms of its impact on work outcomes, our finding corroborates meta-analyses on job-demands control theory, demonstrating a positive impact with job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment (Humphrey et al., 2007; van der Doef & Maes, 1999) and is line with recent research that utilize job-control theory (e.g., MacKinnon & Fairchild, 2009; Weigl et al., 2013).

From the perspective of research on RLWAs; prior research prior research has assumed that the effects of RLWAs unfold either via a relational route (e.g., LMX, co-worker support, supervisor support) or via an enrichment – conflict route between work and family domains (e.g., spill over from work to non-work, spill over from non-work to work domain). Our findings, going beyond the predictions of these theoretical perspectives and based on the premises of research on job-demands control theory, support the role of perceived job autonomy. In this regard, our findings build on and expand recent body of research (Friede et al., 2008; Kossek et al., 2016; Meiksins & Whalley, 2002) by revealing that RLWAs can be used by a wide range of employees with varying demographics (e.g., age, gender, tenure, position, as well as performance levels), thus offering a more fine-tuned and comprehensive picture with regards to its consequences and by exploring the impact of RLWAs on recipients' work and non-work domain outcomes.

The role of social context: Overall Justice Perceptions at Workplace Level. Our findings did not reveal a significant interaction effect between the use of RLWAs and overall justice perceptions on employee outcomes. One possible explanation may be rooted in how overall justice perceptions are conceptualized and measured at workplace level in the current study. Research on justice perceptions demonstrates that different dimensions of justice perceptions, such as interpersonal or procedural justice possess unique features and their interaction with the characteristics of job or task impact on employee outcomes differently (e.g., Liao & Rupp, 2005). In their findings, Liao and Rupp (2005) demonstrated that justice dimensions had different organisation predicting organisation directed employee outcomes. These findings suggest that research on justice perceptions, especially in the context of research on RLWAs could benefit from finetuning the focus on a specific dimension of justice (e.g., overall procedural justice perceptions). A second possible explanation is likely to be rooted in social comparison theory. Our results revealed that overall justice perceptions at workplace level did not make a difference in how employees perceived and experienced autonomy: it is likely that the recipients of RLWAs did not view their co-workers as possible and salient referent groups, which may explain why the results of interaction are non-significant (Buunk et al., 2007; Lin & Leung, 2014). The implication of this finding is that irrespective of whether employees perceive the workplace to be fair or not, the use of RLWAs grants employees a sense of entitlement, privilege and autonomy, leading to desirable employee outcomes. Our post-hoc analyses revealed that, in contrast to the positive consequences of entitlement to RLWAs, non-entitlement to such practices reduce employee sense of autonomy and decrease their commitment to the organisation. It will be interesting for future research to unearth the potential darker side of the implementation of RLWAs. This will call into question the context and conditions under which employees form their perceptions of justice in a workplace and whether (to what extent) employees have access to this information in forming their judgments (Goodman & Haisley, 2007; Kossek & Michel, 2016). A final explanation may arise from the legal context at the time the WERS survey was undertaken. In 2011, the right to request flexible work practices including RLWAs was extended to the majority of working population, including carers of adults and parents with children below the age of 17. Therefore, employees who felt they needed or deserved RLWAs had the support of legal context to access this right and experience it irrespective of the overall justice perceptions in their workplaces (Kossek & Lee, 2008; Rofcanin et al., 2019).

Finally, our model answers to research calls to focus on particular types of FWPs (Chadwick, 2010; Kelliher & Anderson, 2010; Kinnie, Hutchinson, Purcell, Rayton, & Swart, 2005; Paauwe, 2009). Defining aspects and implications of each FWP for employee outcomes are different and unique. It is likely that RLWAs, flexitime, flexi location, or taking leave to take care of elderly or children operate differently, with unique antecedents as well as consequences (Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, 2013; Kossek et al., 2011, 2016). Focusing solely on RLWAs, we contribute to this research stream by outlining the overlooked role of perceived job autonomy and the role of perceived justice at workplace level, as a social context, in influencing employee affective commitment towards their organization (Friede et al., 2008).

5.1. Practical implications

Our results reveal that, across a wide range of industries, occupational groups and types of organizations, the use of RLWAs are beneficial for their recipient: employees feel more autonomous of their jobs and as a result, report lower levels of conflict and increased job satisfaction as well as enhanced affective commitment toward their organization. A key component of our finding is that the higher levels of perceived job autonomy mediates the associations between RLWAs and employee outcomes.

An important implication for managers and HR units is to support the development and implementation of bottom-up and proactive approaches at workplaces. One practical strategy and intervention organizations can implement is job crafting, which is likely to provide employees the discretion over how they work and enhance their perceptions of autonomy (e.g., Gordon et al., 2018; Tyler & Lind, 1992; 1996). Furthermore, at person level, creating a work environment that emphasizes ongoing social support and proactivity to facilitate continuous feedback and communication are among ways to develop a psychologically safe environment where employees are likely to feel autonomous and supported. Interventions on job autonomy may emphasize ongoing training, coaching and developmental support to build supportive and psychologically safe environment so that

employees feel encouraged to voice and approach their tasks proactively.

Another key implication is that managers, in approving the use of RLWAs, need to think about the structure and design of this arrangement and how employees will work on their jobs. Different scenarios and possibilities must be considered in implementing RLWAs: Managers, along with HR units, must address the complexities of RLWAs, not simply reducing the hours that they are expected to be in the office but re-shuffling according to co-workers and team dynamics. For example, in some industries and jobs; employees may be given fewer projects or supervisors may be given fewer employees to manage the workload implications (e.g., Kossek et al., 2016). Human resource professionals must get involved in the process of managing the consequences of RLWAs because the career progression and talented employees who are on RLWAs may be at risk if other managers in the organization do not support the use of RLWAs (e.g., Lirio, Lee, Williams, Haugen, & Kossek, 2008; Pollock, Whitbred, & Contractor, 2000). A further implication of our finding is that the recipients of RLWAs demonstrated desirable attitudes because they felt the ownership of their jobs. This suggests that RLWAs are most effective when are combined with increased perceptions of job autonomy, enabling the crafting of their jobs, along with approving the use of RLWAs, may constitute an area for managers to drive employee satisfaction and commitment towards their organization (e.g., Kossek & Olier-Malaterre, 2020).

5.2. Limitations and future research suggestions

This study has notable methodological strengths including (1) it's use of a nationally representative large data set, (2) its rigorous measurement of normativeness of RLWAs for each workplace and (3) its use of a matched employee-employer, multi-level design when testing the hypotheses. However, some limitations need to be noted. One is its cross-sectional nature. Our creation of a dichotomous variable (use/non-use of reduced load work) and the calculation of overall perceived justice at workplace level can be considered as more objective measurement approaches compared to subjective Likert scales (e.g., Bal, de Jong, Jansen, & Bakker, 2012; Golden & Fromen, 2011). Moreover, our results are in line with causal predictions based on SIP theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Guyer and Vaughan-Johnson., 2020). However, a longitudinal design is suggested to disentangle the causal inferences in future research.

Another related limitation is our reliance on single-item use for work-family conflict. It should be noted that the WERS is carried out at national level and with a team of area-specific experts who had done necessary preliminary tests and checks for the reliability of the items selected in the surveys. While these steps had been undertaken to ensure that single-item use is appropriate, nevertheless we recommend future studies to integrate the full-items of related constructs, including but not limited to work-family conflict, work-family enrichment and balance (e.g., Valcour, Ollier-Malaterre, Matz-Costa, Pitt-Catsouphes, & Brown, 2011). Future studies ma benefit from the inclusion and test of other related constructs to expand our proposed conceptual model.

A third limitation is the measurement of RLWAs as a dichotomous variable. While prior research has adopted a similar approach is testing the models that included dichotomous variable (e.g., Lemoine & Blum, 2019 for gender; Hoque, Bacon, Wass, & Jones, 2018 for disability practices), we nevertheless recommend future research to explore the variance using Likert scales, which are known to capture variance better.

Our focus in this research was on employees in receipt of RLWAs, showing that employees and organizations especially benefit when they are one of the happy few being subject to such an arrangement. Yet, it is possible that these positive effects are offset by the reactions of employees not in receipt of them. Future research might explore the effects of such practices from non-recipient's perspective and question the assumption that these HR practices are always beneficial by underlining a darker side.

We suggest future research to consider the perspective of different stakeholders in evaluating the success or un-success of RLWAs. It is possible that HR managers and supervisor's value different aspects when implementing the reduced load work arrangements (e.g. Friede et al., 2008). For HR managers, it might be that employees who are high performers could be granted reduced load because they deserve such arrangements (e.g., Lee et al., 2002) while managers might value employees' preferences for work-life balance and grant these practices accordingly (Kossek et al., 2016). In relation to this point, future research should investigate why different stakeholders might value and perceive different factors as critical to the implementation of RLWAs.

Funding

There has not been any funding for this manuscript.

Declaration of competing interest

This manuscript has no conflict of interest.

References

Allen, T. D., Johnson, R. C., Kiburz, K. M., & Shockley, K. M. (2013). Work–family conflict and flexible work arrangements: Deconstructing flexibility. *Personnel Psychology, 66*(2), 345–376.

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22*, 309–328.

Bal, P. M., de Jong, S. B., Jansen, P. G. W., & Bakker, A. B. (2012). Motivating employees to work beyond retirement: A multi-level study of the role of i-deals and unit climate. *Journal of Management Studies, 49*(2), 306–331.

Bal, P. M., & Dorenbosch, L. (2015). Age-related differences in the relations between individualized HRM and organizational performance: A large-scale employer survey. *Human Resource Management Journal, 25*, 41–61.

Barnett, R. (2003). Reduced-hours work/Part-time work. *Sloan Work and Family Encyclopedia*. from http://wfnetwork.bc.edu/encyclopedia_entry.php?id =252&area=academics. (Accessed 5 August 2006).

Barnett, R. C., & Gareis, K. C. (2002). Full-time and reduced-hours work schedules and marital quality: A study of female physicians with young children. *Work and Occupations, 29*, 364–379.

Barnett, R. C., & Hall, D. T. (2001). How to use reduced hours to win the war for talent. *Organizational Dynamics, 29*, 192–210.

Becker, T. E., Atinc, G., Breaugh, J. A., Carlson, K. D., Edwards, J. R., & Spector, P. E. (2016). Statistical control in correlational studies: 10 essential recommendations for organizational researchers. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 37*(2), 157–167.

Beutell, N., & O'Hare, M. (2018). Work schedule and work schedule control fit: Work-family conflict, work-family synergy, gender, and satisfaction. Available at: SSRN: https://ssrn.com/abstract=3105671 http://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3105671.

Bhave, D., Kramer, A., & Glomb, T. G. (2010). Work family conflict in workgroups: Crossover, support, and demographic dissimilarity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*, 145–158.

Buckingham, J. T., & Alicke, M. D. (2002). The influence of individual versus aggregate social comparison and the presence of others on self-evaluations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 83*, 1117–1130.

Buck, M. L., Lee, M. D., MacDermid, S. M., & Smith, S. (2000). Reduced load work and the experience of time among professionals and managers: Implications for personal and organizational life. In C. L. Cooper, & D. Rousseau (Eds.), *Time in organizational behavior: Trends in organizational behavior* (pp. 13–36).

Buunk, A. P., Groothof, H. A., & Siero, F. W. (2007). Social comparison and satisfaction with one's social life. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 24*, 197–205.

Chadwick, C. (2010). Theoretic insights on the nature of performance synergies in human resource systems: Toward greater precision. *Human Resource Management Review, 20*(2), 85–101.

Cohen, J. E. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O. L. H., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 425–445.

Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Rodell, J. B., Long, D. M., Zapata, C. P., Conlon, D. E., & Wesson, M. J. (2013). Justice at the millennium, a decade later: A meta-analytic test of social exchange and affect-based perspectives. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98* (2), 199–236. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031757

Conway, N., & Sturges, J. (2014). Investigating unpaid overtime working among the part-time workforce. *British Journal of Management, 25*(4), 755–771.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 499–512.

van der Doef, M., & Maes, S. (1999). The job demand–control(–support) model and psychological well-being: A review of 20 years of empirical research. *Work & Stress, 13*(2), 87–114.

Ehrhart, M. G. (2004). Leadership and procedural justice climate as antecedents of unit-level organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology, 57*, 61–94.
Elsbach, K. D. (2003). Relating physical environment to self- categorizations: identity threat and affirmation in a non-territorial office space. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 48*(4), 622–654. https://doi.org/10.2307/3556639
Flexible Working. (2019). UK government, 3rd of July, 2019 and available at: https://www.gov.uk/flexible-working.
Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). Fairness theory: Justice as accountability. In J. Greenberg, & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 1–55). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
Friede, A., Kossek, E. E., Lee, M. D., & Macdermid, S. (2008). Human resource manager insights on creating and sustaining reduced-load work arrangements. *Human Resource Management, 47*, 707–727.
Gajendran, R. S., & Harrison, D. A. (2007). The good, the bad, and the unknown about telecommuting: Meta- analysis of psychological mediators and individual consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 1524–1541.
Gajendran, R. S., Harrison, D. A., & Delaney-Klinger, K. (2015). Are telecommuters remotely good citizens? Unpacking telecommuting's effects on performance via i-deals and job resources. *Personnel Psychology, 68*(2), 353–393.
Ganster, D. C., & Fusilier, M. R. (1989). Control in the workplace. In C. L. Cooper, & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*. Chichester, UK: Wiley.
Gascoigne, C., & Kelliher, C. (2018). The transition to part-time: How professionals negotiate 'reduced time and workload' i-deals and craft their jobs. *Human Relations, 71*(1), 103–125. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726717722394
Gerber, J. P. (2020). Social comparison theory. In V. Zeigler- Hill, & T. K. Shackelford (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of personality and individual differences*. New York: Springer.
Golden, T. D., & Fromen, A. (2011). Does it matter where your manager works? Comparing managerial work mode (traditional, telework, virtual) across subordinate work experiences and outcomes. *Human Relations, 64*(11), 1451–1475.
Goodman, P. S., & Haisley, E. (2007). Social comparison processes in an organizational context: New directions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 102*, 109–125.
Gordon, H. J., Demerouti, E., LeBlanc, P. M., Bakker, A. B., Bipp, T., & Verhagen, M. A. (2018). Individual job redesign: Job crafting interventions in health care. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 104*, 98–114.
Greenberg, J. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and infor- mational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management* (pp. 79–103). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
Guyer, J. J., & Vaughan-Johnson, T. I. (2020). Social comparison (upward and downward). In V. Zeigler- Hill, & T. K. Shackelford (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of personality and individual differences*. New York: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-24612-3_1182.
de Hauw, S., & Greenhaus, J. (2015). Building a sustainable career: The role of work–home balance in career decision making. In A. De Vos, & B. I. J. M. Van der Heijden (Eds.), *Handbook of research on sustainable careers* (pp. 223–238). Edward Elgar Publishing.
Hill, E. J., Martinson, A., Ferris, M., & Baker, R. (2004). Beyond the mommy track: The influence of new- concept part time work for professional women on work and family. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues, 25*, 121–136.
Hoque, K., Bacon, N., Wass, V., & Jones, M. (2018). Are high performance work practices (HPWPs) enabling or disabling? Exploring the relationship between selected HPWPs and work-related disability disadvantage. *Human Resource Management, 57*(2), 499–513.
Hornung, S., Rousseau, D. M., & Glaser, J. (2008). Creating flexible work arrangements through idiosyncratic deals. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(3), 655–664.
Humphrey, S. E., Nahrgang, J. D., & Morgeson, F. P. (2007). Integrating motivational, social, and contextual work design features: A meta-analytic summary and theoretical extension of the work design literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 1332–1356.
Idaszak, J. R., & Drasgow, F. (1987). A revision of the job diagnostic survey: Elimination of a measurement artifact. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*, 69–74.
Johnson, C., & Stapel, D. A. (2007). No pain, No gain: The conditions under which upward comparisons lead to better performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 92*(6), 1051–1067.
Kain, J., & Jex, S. (2010). Karasek's (1979) job demands-control model: A summary of current issues and recommendations for future research. In P. L. Perrewé, & D. C. Ganster (Eds.), *New developments in theoretical and conceptual approaches to job stress* (pp. 237–268). Emerald Group Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1108/S1479-3555(2010)0000008009.
Karasek, R. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude and mental strain: Implications for job redesign. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 24*, 285–330.
Kelliher, C., & Anderson, D. (2010). Doing more with less? Flexible working practices and the intensification of work. *Human Relations, 63*(1), 83–106.
Kim, T.-Y., Cable, D. M., Kim, S.-P., & Wang, J. E. (2009). Emotional competence and work performance: The mediating effect of proactivity and the moderating effect of job autonomy. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30*, 983–1000.
Kinnie, N., Hutchinson, S., Purcell, J., Rayton, B., & Swart, J. (2005). Satisfaction with HR practices and commitment: Why one size does not fit all. *Human Resource Management Journal, 15*(4), 9–29.
Kossek, E. E., Baltes, B. B., & Matthews, R. A. (2011). How work–family research can finally have an impact in organizations. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice, 4*, 352–369.
Kossek, E. E., & Lautsch, B. A. (2018). Work–life flexibility for whom? Occupational status and work–life inequality in upper, middle, and lower level jobs. *The Academy of Management Annals, 12*(1), 5–36. https://doi.org/10.5465/annals.2016.0059
Kossek, E. E., Lautsch, B. A., & Eaton, S. C. (2006). Telecommuting, control and boundary management: Correlates of policy use and practice, job control, and work–family effectiveness. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68*, 347–367.
Kossek, E., & Lee, M. (2008). Implementing a reduced-workload arrangement to retain high talent: A case study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 11*(1), 49–64.
Kossek, E., & Michel, J. (2016). Flexible work schedules. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 1, pp. 535–572). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
Kossek, E. E., & Olier-Malaterre, A. (2020). Desperately seeking sustainable careers: Redesigning professional jobs for the collaborative crafting of reduced-load work. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2019.06.003
Kossek, E. E., Olier-Malaterre, A., Lee, M. D., Pichler, S., & Hall, D. T. (2016). Line managers' rationales for professionals' reduced-load work in embracing and ambivalent organizations. *Human Resource Management, 55*(1), 143–171.
de Lange, A. H., Taris, T. W., Kompier, M. A., Houtman, I. L., & Bongers, P. M. (2003). The very best of the millennium": Longitudinal research and the demand–control–(support) model. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 8*(4), 282–305.
Las Heras, M., Rofcanin, Y., Matthijs Bal, P., & Stollberger, J. (2017). How do flexibility i-deals relate to work performance? Exploring the roles of family performance and organizational context. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 38*(8), 1280–1294.
Leana, C., Appelbaum, E., & Shevchuk, I. (2009). Work process and quality of care in early childhood education: The role of job crafting. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*, 1169–1192.
Lee, M. D., MacDermid, S., Williams, M., Buck, M., & Leiba-O'Sullivan, S. (2002). Contextual factors in the success of reduced-load work arrangements among managers and professionals. *Human Resource Management, 41*, 209–223.
Lemoine, G. J., & Blum, T. C. (2019). Servant leadership, leader gender, and team gender role: Testing a female advantage in a cascading model of performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 1–26. https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12379
Li, A., & Cropanzano, R. (2009). Fairness at the group level: Justice climate and intraunit justice climate. *Journal of Management, 35*, 564–599. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308330557
Liao, H., & Rupp, D. E. (2005). The impact of justice climate and justice orientation on work outcomes: A cross-level multifoci framework. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 242–256.
Lindell, M. K., & Whitney, D. J. (2001). Accounting for common method variance in cross-sectional research designs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(1), 114–121.
Lin, X., & Leung, K. (2014). What signals does procedural justice climate convey? The roles of group status, and organizational benevolence and integrity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 35*, 464–488.
Lirio, P., Lee, M. D., Williams, M. L., Haugen, L. K., & Kossek, E. E. (2008). The inclusion challenge with reduced-load professionals: The role of the manager. *Human Resource Management, 47*(3), 443–461.
Luchman, J. N., & González-Morales, M. G. (2013). Demands, control, and support: A meta-analytic review of work characteristics interrelationships. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 18*(1), 37–52. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030541
MacDermid, S. M., Lee, M. D., Buck, M., & Williams, M. L. (2001). Alternative work arrangements among professionals and managers: Rethinking career development and success. *The Journal of Management Development, 20*, 305–317.
MacKinnon, D. P., & Fairchild, A. J. (2009). Current directions in mediation analyses. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 18*(1), 16–20.
Mayer, D., Nishii, L., Schneider, B., & Goldstein, H. (2007). The precursors and products of justice climates: Group leader antecedents and employee attitudinal consequences. *Personnel Psychology, 60*, 929–963.
Meiksins, P., & Whalley, P. (2002). *Putting work in its place: A quiet revolution*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
Naumann, S. E., & Bennett, N. (2000). A case for procedural justice climate: Development and test of a multilevel model. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*, 881–889.
Obloj, T., & Zenger, T. (2017). Organization design, proximity, and productivity responses to upward social comparison. *Organization Science, 18*, 1–18.
OECD. (2018). *Part-time employment rate(indicator)*. https://doi.org/10.1787/f2ad596c-en. . (Accessed 1 November 2018)
Ogbonnaya, C., Daniels, K., Connolly, S., & van Veldhoven, M. (2017). Integrated and isolated impact of high-performance work practices on employee health and well-being: A comparative study. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 22*(1), 98–114.
Paauwe, J. (2009). HRM and performance: Achievements, methodological issues and prospects. *Journal of Management Studies, 46*(1), 129–142.
Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social sciences research and recommendations on how to control it. *Annual Review of Psychology, 63*(1), 539–569.
Pollock, T. G., Whitbred, R. C., & Contractor, N. (2000). Social information processing and job characteristics: A simultaneous test of two theories with implications for job satisfaction. *Human Communication Research, 26*, 292–330.
Powell, G. N., & Mainiero, L. A. (1999). Managerial decision making regarding alternative work arrangements. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 72*, 41–52.
Preacher, K. J. (2015). Advances in mediation analysis: A survey and synthesis of new developments. *Annual Review of Psychology, 66*, 825–852.
Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods, 40*(3), 879–891.
Roberson, Q. M., & Colquitt, J. A. (2005). Shared and configural justice: A social network model of justice in teams. *Academy of Management Review, 30*, 595–607.

Rofcanin, Y., Berber, A., Marescaux, E., Bal, P. M., Mughal, F., & Afacan Findikli, M. (2019). Human resource differentiation: A theoretical paper integrating co-workers' perspective and context. *Human Resource Management Journal, 29*(2), 270–286.

Rothbaum, F., Weisz, J. R., & Snyder, S. S. (1982). Changing the world and changing the self: A two-process model of perceived control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 42*, 5–37.

Rupp, D. E., Bashshur, M. R., & Liao, H. (2007a). Justice climate past, present, and future: Models of structure and emergence. In F. Dansereau, & F. Yammarino (Eds.), *Research in multilevel issues* (Vol. 6, pp. 357–396). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.

Rupp, D. E., Bashshur, M. R., & Liao, H. (2007b). Justice climate: Consideration of the source, target, specificity, and emergence. In F. Dansereau, & F. Yammarino (Eds.), *Research in multilevel issues* (Vol. 6, pp. 439–459). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitude and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 23*(2), 224–253.

Selya, A. S., Rose, J. S., Dierker, L. C., Hedeker, D., & Mermelstein, R. J. (2012). A practical guide to calculating cohen's f(2), a measure of local effect size. *Frontiers in Psychology, 3*, 111.

Spector, P. E. (1986). Perceived control by employees: A meta-analysis of studies concerning autonomy and participation at work. *Human Relations, 39*, 1005–1016.

Tyler, T. R., Degoey, P., & Smith, H. J. (1996). Understanding why the justice of group procedures matters: A test of the psychological dynamics of the group-value model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70*, 913–920.

Tyler, T. R., & Lind, E. A. (1992). A relational model of authority in groups. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 25, pp. 115–191). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Valcour, P. M., Ollier-Malaterre, A., Matz-Costa, C., Pitt-Catsouphes, M., & Brown, M. (2011). In uences on employee perceptions of organizational work-life support: Signals and resources. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 79*(2), 588–595.

Van Wanrooy, B., Bewley, H., Bryson, A., Freeth, S., Forth, J., Stokes, L., et al. (2013). *Employment relations in the shadow of recession: Findings from the 2011 workplace employment relations study*. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan.

Wanous, J. P., Reichers, A. E., & Hudy, M. J. (1997). Overall job satisfaction: How good are single-item measures? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(2), 247–252.

Weigl, M., Müller, A., Hornung, S., Zacher, H., & Angerer, P. (2013). The moderating effects of job control and selection, optimization, and compensation strategies on the age–work ability relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 34*, 607–628.

Wood, S., & Ogbonnaya, C. (2016). High-involvement management, economic recession, well-being, and organizational performance. *Journal of Management, 44*(8), 32–44.