# THE IMPACT OF FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS ON EMPLOYEE ENGAGAMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT THROUGH THE MEDIATING ROLE OR WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT

#### A Thesis

Presented to the Faculty

of ISM University of Management and Economics
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Master of International Marketing

by

Ausra Ivanauskaite

May 2015

#### Abstract

The aim of this this research is to examine the relation between the availability of flexible work arrangements (namely, flextime and flexplace) and two organizational outcomes (employee engagement and affective organizational commitment); also, to test whether work-to-family enrichment mediates the relation between the concepts mentioned. Literature review revealed that some of the concepts are well research already (namely, the relation between flextime and commitment) while other were tested for the first time.

Analysis of a sample of 232 employed adults showed that availability of flextime and flexplace leads to higher employee engagement and organizational commitment. Also, the empirical research revealed that work-to-family enrichment full mediates between flextime and engagement and commitment and partially mediates between flexplace and the two organizational outcomes. Thus, the availability of flextime and partially flextime seems to enrich employee personal life, which, in turn, results in increase in employee engagement and organizational commitment.

*Keywords:* flexible work arrangements, flextime, flexplace, employee engagement, organizational commitment, work-family enrichment, Lithuania.

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THE IMPACT OF FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS

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#### Introduction

Over the last 60 years, the change in demographics in the work force has been dramatic with more women joining the workforce and even expressing desire for a job with high responsibility (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2011). As a result, most of the families had to learn to balance work and family responsibilities anew. Due to the changes mentioned, flexible work arrangements have become an increasingly popular business practice around the globe (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006) as a means to reduce work-life conflict. Organizations often offer flexible work arrangements with the goal of facilitating positive outcomes for both organizations and employees; examining whether they actually do result in positive outcomes is important (Casper & Harris, 2008). As a result, scholars have also become interested in flexible work arrangements and a number of researches concerning outcomes of flexible work arrangements have been conducted. For example, academics provided strong evidence that usage of flexible work arrangements leads to higher organizational commitment, job satisfaction, enhanced group dynamics, higher performance, higher organizational citizenship behaviors, and lower intent to leave the organization (Warner & Hausdorf, 2009).

However, it appears that even though flexible work arrangements are universally acknowledged as beneficial both for employers and employees, flexible work arrangements are not entrenched in Lithuanian labor market traditions fully. European Commission review (Plantenga & Remery, 2009) states that in Lithuania only 16.8% male employees and 12% female employees have access to flexible working time arrangements. Moreover, there are signs that flexible work arrangements are considered as a privilege in Lithuania. Therefore, it is important to research different flexible work arrangements now in order to determine which flexible work arrangements are most attractive for employees in Lithuania and most beneficial for organizations. In order to establish the importance of flexible work

arrangements, their link with two important organizational outcomes – employee engagement and organizational commitment - will be analyzed.

The concept of engagement was chosen to study because higher engagement benefits not only organizations, but employees as well (Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008).

Researchers have provided evidence for these employee outcomes: negative relationship with job tension (Hansen, Byrne, & Kierch, 2014); engaged employees more likely to feel positive emotions such as joy or enthusiasm (Albrecht, 2012). Organizational outcomes include high levels of employee performance (Anitha, 2014), willingness to perform an extra role (Albrecht, 2012).

Also, it is important to note that most of the assumptions about employee engagement had been supplied by business not scholarly world. In fact, Macey, Schneider, Barbera, & Young (2009; as cited in Albrecht, 2012) has noted that "rarely has a term [..] resonated as strongly with business executives as employee engagement has in recent years". In 2006 Saks claimed that there is a surprising lack of academic papers on this concept. However, since then employee engagement has become a popular research topic (Hansen, Byrne, & Kierch, 2014). Nonetheless, recent researches show that employee engagement that engagement declines significantly worldwide, indicating that less than 30% employed persons are at least partially engaged in their work (Shuck, Reio, & Rocco, 2001). The decline shows that more research concerning employee engagement is needed in order to determine how to facilitate employee engagement.

Another concept analyzed in this paper is organizational commitment. Broadly put, organizational commitment refers to the attachment one feels for the organization he or she works for (Elizur & Koslowsky, 2001). Similarly to employee engagement, organizational commitment also has positive outcomes, such as high employee productivity (Furtmueller,

van Dick, & Wilderom, 2011) and low employee turnover. Due to these reasons, the concept of organizational commitment remains popular among scholars and business world as well.

In this paper not only direct relationships between flexible work arrangements and employee engagement and organizational commitment will be analyzed, but indirect as well. This will be achieved by evaluating the mediating role of work-family enrichment between flexible work arrangements and employee engagement and/or organizational commitment. The concept in question - work-family enrichment - is fairly recent. The theoretical model of work-family enrichment was proposed by Greenhaus and Powell in 2006. As the name of the concept indicates, the advocates of work-family enrichment theory argue that work and family do not have to be at conflict; contrarily, work and family lives can enrich one another.

To summarize, this paper and the research problem of it aims to answer the research question: how do flexible work arrangements affect employee engagement and organizational commitment in Lithuanian context and if it is done via work-family enrichment?

Consequently, the goal of the research is to expand the current knowledge on flexible work arrangements and their impact on employee engagement and organizational commitment through the mediating role of work-family enrichment. The goal of the research will be reached and the research question will be answered by meeting these objectives:

- 1. To analyze and systematize the main findings on flexible work arrangements, employee engagement, organizational commitment, and work-family enrichment;
- 2. In respect to the previous studies reviewed, to build the research model and formulate the hypothesis that will be tested in the paper regarding the relations among flexible work arrangements, employee engagement, organizational commitment and workfamily enrichment;

- 3. To design the questionnaire to measure the relationships among flexible work arrangements, employee engagement, organizational commitment, and work-family enrichment in Lithuania and carry out the research;
- 4. To analyze the gathered data using statistical tools in order to evaluate relations between flexible work arrangements, engagement, commitment and work-family enrichment in Lithuania;
- 5. To discuss the results and provide conclusions on what is the impact of flexible work arrangements on employee engagement and organizational commitment in Lithuania and whether work-family enrichment mediates between the concepts mentioned.

The objectives will be met in different parts of the paper. In the first part, a review of scholarly literature on flexible work arrangemnts, employee engagement, organizational commitment and work-family enrichment is provided. Also, the relationships among these concepts will be discussed. In the second part, research methodology used to examine relations among the aforementioned concepts is provided: namely, research design, setting and description of the research instrument is provided. In the third part of the study, empirical research results are examined comprehensive which lead to discussion and conclusion part of the study. In the last part of the research, all theoretical and empirical findings are synthesized in order to reveal the most significant conclusions of the study.

#### Literature review

In this part of the study a review of scholarly literature on flexible work arrangements, employee engagement, organizational commitment and work-family enrichment will be provided. Moreover, the relationships and interdependences of the four concepts revealed by other researchers will be discussed. The insights gathered while conducting the literature review will serve as a basis for the formulation of the research model which is needed to answer the research question.

#### **Introducing the Concepts: Flexible Work Arrangements**

As a reaction to socio-demographics changes, flexible work arrangements have become an increasingly popular business practice around the globe (McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010). For example, Families and Work Institute in the USA reports that the number of employers offering flexible work arrangements to at least some of the employees grew from 68% in 1998 to 81% in 2014 (Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005; Matos & Galinsky, 2014). Moreover, similar tendency if noted in Europe as well: European Commission review (Plantenga & Remery, 2009) showed that over 60% of employees have access to flexible working schedules.

However, in Lithuanian context the numbers are significantly smaller. Furthermore, there seems to be a negative school on thought on the usage of flexible work arrangements. For example, Braziene (2011) even notes that "in Lithuanian reality flexible working time is often understood rather as a certain privilege than a legitimate procedure" while judging by readers' comments on articles about flexible work arrangements the public sometimes view those using flexible work arrangements as lazy. This public opinion is surprising given a list of benefits of flexible work arrangements. However, most of studies concerning the outcomes of flexible work arrangements were conducted not with Lithuanian respondents. One of the

aims of this study is to examine whether flexible work arrangements have positive impact on two organizational outcomes (engagement and commitment) in Lithuanian context. In order to accomplish that, first a concept of flexible work arrangement will be introduced: tendencies, motives for using flexible work arrangements and types of them will be discussed.

Before going to deeper analysis of flexible work arrangements, it is important to note that term "flexible work arrangements" and "the availability of flexible work arrangements" will be used interchangeably in this paper. This means that consistent with other researchers (McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010; Batt & Valcour, 2001) the paper will measure and analyze the impact of access to flexible practices rather than use and the access is a sign of organizational support and care which is enough to trigger reciprocal response from an employee.

#### Motives for Flexible Work Arrangements Use, Outcomes and Tendencies

There are many different reasons why employers offer flexible work policies and employees choose them. Shockley and Allen (2012) named two broad categories concerning motivation for flexible work arrangements use: life management motives and work-related motives. Life management motives are consistent with the reason of flexible work arrangements creation – that is to help employees to manage both work and personal life at the same time. Studies confirm that desire to maintain work-life balance is indeed a major motivation for employees to use flexible work arrangements. Typical examples of life management motives include altering one's schedule to take one's children to school or to run one's personal errands.

The other category behind employees' motivation to use flexible work arrangements is work-related motives. This means that flexible work arrangements are used not only to maintain work-life balance but also to increase personal productivity. For example, to

increase one's productivity, a person might choose to work in an office during the hours when the office is the most deserted or to work from a remote area. Also, employees whose tasks are related to creativity and innovations might choose to work not in a usually blank office but areas that inspire them. These examples show work-related motives for flexible work arrangements might be beneficial both for organizations and motivated employees. Regrettably, compared to life management motives, work-related motives have been studied less frequently and there are less knowledge accumulated about them. However, previous studies have already revealed direct and indirect evidence that work-related motives are active. Shockley and Allen (2012) discusses two known studies which provided direct evidence that productivity is a motivating factor for flexible work arrangements use, especially for men. Moreover, Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, and Neuman (1999) in their meta-analysis provided indirect evidence of work-related motives existence. They found that flexible work schedules result in greater productivity. In addition, that possibility to work outside the boundaries of the usual office leads to higher supervisor ratings of performance (Shockley & Allen, 2012).

Concerning part-time employment, Johnson, Shannon and Richman (2008) identified two types of reasoning for using this type of flexible work arrangements. The first type of reasoning involves voluntary agreement that presumably was chosen by employee for personal reasons. The second type of reasoning concerns cases when the decision to go part-time was initiated by employers, presumably to save costs. However, it is important to identify not only the reasons behind the usage of flexible work arrangements, as it was just accomplished, but also the outcomes of employing flexible arrangements.

Besides the several outcomes of flexible work arrangements mentioned above, researchers many more important consequences of the use of flexible work arrangements both for organization and individuals. For example, academics provided strong evidence that

usage of flexible work arrangements leads to an increase in commitment, organizational citizenship and job satisfaction; the employees perform better and are less likely to leave the organization (Warner & Hausdorf, 2009). Duncan and Pettigrew (2012) reported an increase in positive perception of work-family life balance for women when they used flexible schedule.

However, the availability and use of flexible work arrangements differ according to individual characteristics of employees, organizations or sector and national contexts (Sweet, Pitt-Catsouphes, Besen, & Golden, 2014). The 2014 National Study of Employers (Matos & Galinsky, 2014) provides empirical evidence of variance according to the size of organizations and individual characteristics: for example, the study showed that 14% of small organizations allow changing starting and quitting times on daily basis for all or most employees while only 5% of large organizations offer this availability. Moreover, the same study reveals that even though 81% of surveyed organizations allow periodically change starting and quitting times at least for some employees, only 21% offer the same option for all or most employees. This empirically illustrates that the level of flexibility varies within the same organization.

#### **Typology of Flexible Work Arrangements**

Masuda et al. (2012) named four types of flexible work arrangements: flextime, compressed work week, telecommuting (also known flexplace) and part-time work. Flextime refer to "a policy in which the traditional fixed times that employees start and finish the working day are replaced by a framework or set of rules within which employees are allowed some freedom to choose their starting and quitting times" as defined by Hicks and Klimoski 1981). The availability of flextime can be expressed formally (in the internal rules or regulations of the organization) or informally (by agreement with supervisor) (Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012). There are many different types of application of flextime. For instance,

some companies define a name of core hours when all the employees must be present with each of the employee deciding individually when to start and finish his or her day in the office (Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, & Weitzman, 2001; Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright & Neuman, 1999). Also, companies might allow to change starting and quitting times periodically or on daily basis.

However, some companies which offer flextime option for employees use sum working time system; that is the necessary amount of hours (usually, 40 hours a week) must be put in over a set period of time: a week, a month or a quarter of a year, depending on company (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright & Neuman, 1999). Furthermore, it is noted that not all types of companies offer flextime; it is due to the specifics of their operations. For example, flextime is usually not offered in manufacturing organizations. The reason behind this tendency might be difficulty in organizing continuous processes, such as assembly lines, with uncertain relevant employees' working times.

Flextime often allows the employee to choose more flexible how many hours one wants to put it that day while still working five days per week. Other type of flexible work arrangements – compressed workweek – usually allows working fewer days per week. One of the most popular organizations of compressed workweek is working ten hours per day but four days per week (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright & Neuman, 1999). As opposed to flextime, this type of flexible work arrangements is quite popular among the manufacturing companies. According to Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, and Neuman (1999), there are two reasons for this distinction. First, compressed workweek enables employees to follow a certain schedule (i.e., to work at certain allotted time) while allowing a degree of flexibility (e.g. to have three days off instead of two allowing to take care of personal matters). Second, contrarily to service companies, manufacturers usually do not provide services that necessitate employees being present at regular Monday-to-Friday time interval.

Flexplace, also known as telecommuting, is broadly defined as "giving employees varying degrees of control over where their work is done" by Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, & Weitzman (2001); i.e., that some or all working hours are spent working at a location of employee choice. Usually, in flexplace arrangements employees choose to work from home. Scholars named three categories of employees who are more likely to use flexplace arrangements: women, married employees and employees with children (Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012). Also, it was noted that employees working part-time are more likely to telecommute than full-time employees (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

According to Families and Work Institute, the prevalence of flexplace practices has increased considerably over the last ten years. Namely, in 2015 67% of surveyed organizations allowed at least some of their employees to work some regular paid hours at home occasionally, while 34% of organizations offered the same flexibility in 2005 (Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005; Matos & Galinsky, 2014). However, in 2013 a few of large companies — Yahoo was the first, then Best Buy, then and Hewlett-Packard - announced that they are cancelling or tightening their flexplace programs (Lavey-Heaton, 2014); these decisions started discussions on advantages and disadvantages of telecommuting. Before Yahoo decision, the advantages of flexplace, such as time and costs saved in commuting to work and enhanced autonomy, were the focus of attention. Nonetheless, telecommuting has disadvantages also. For example, a few of the scholars noted telecommuting might result in weakened relationship with colleagues and supervisors, which, in turn, might lead to hinder rise in career (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

Another type of flexible work arrangements, i.e., part-time, is very popular in some of the European countries. For example, over 70% of women in the Netherlands work part-time (Plantenga & Remery, 2009). However, there are some negative assumptions about part-time work and part-time employees. One of them is that full-time employees are more engaged in

work compared with part-time employees. However, Johnson, Shannon and Richman (2008) provided evidence contrarily to this this assumption: i.e., that the level of engagement both for part-time and full-time employees is the same. Moreover, there are advantages of part-time work, for example, employees working just part of the time are less likely to experience burnout compared with their full-time colleagues (Johnson, Shannon, & Richman, 2008).

Most researches analyze flexibility in workplace as a homogenous phenomenon (Nadler, Cundiff, Lowery, & Jackson, 2010) and their impact on employee or organizational benefits. However, studies indicate that different flexible work arrangements affect employee and organizational aspects differently (Sweet, Pitt-Catsouphes, Besen, & Golden, 2014). For example, meta-analysis by Gajendran and Harrison (2007) showed that negative correlation between intensive telecommuting and quality of co-worker relationships. Therefore, in this study, flexible work arrangements will be analyzed not as an integral concept but rather a few types of flexible work arrangements will be analyzed separately.

In the present paper, two types of flexible work arrangements are analyzed: flexible working time schedule arrangements, also known as flextime, flexitime, flex-time, or flexible hours, and flexplace. Flextime and flexplace was chosen to be analyzed for practical consideration: 2013 Employee Benefits Survey (2013) states that flextime and flexplace are most common FWA reporting that 58% of surveyed organizations offer flexplace and 53% offer flextime. Even though the survey was conducted in the USA, it is likely that these two types of FWA are most common in Lithuania also allowing sample needed to draw plausible conclusions.

#### **Conception of Employee Engagement**

Employee engagement has been a very popular concept in business and consultancy world since 1990s. Its popularity stems from conviction that employee engagement has

positive impact on organizations and their business results (Shuck, Reio, & Rocco, 2001). Thus the concept has become popular among researchers as well (Hansen, Byrne, & Kierch, 2014), just more recently (Welch, 2011). As a consequence, for a period of time there was a surprising lack of theory and empirical research on the concept, providing an illusion that the concept itself is not an independent construct but rather a "refurbished" old one (Saks, 2006). However, since then, a distinctive body of papers had been published in order to analyze and understand the origin, consequences and maintenance of employee engagement (Albrecht, 2012).

Earlier research in organizational commitment (Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, & Brenann, 2008), motivation, and employee involvement laid the ground for the evolvement of the concept of employee engagement (Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008). The first researcher to conceptualize employee engagement was Kahn, who defined it as the "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances" (Kahn, 1990). Saks (2006) summarized it that according to Kahn (1990), "engagement means to be psychologically present when occupying and performing an organizational role".

As mentioned before, Kahn (1990) provided the first definition of employee engagement. However, scholars disagree on the most apt definition; the disagreement has resulted in many of the academics proposing their own definitions. Rothbard (2001), like Kahn (1990), also relates engagement with being psychologically present but expands that two presence is not enough; two critical components must be present to consider an employee to be engaged: attention and absorption. Attention refers to "cognitive availability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role"; absorption refers to "being engrossed in a role" and includes "to the intensity of one's focus on a role."

Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker (2002) defined engagement "as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption." The researchers also emphasize that engagement is not a momentary; also, that it "is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior".

Fleming and Asplund (2008), researchers working for Gallup, went a step further and even added spiritual aspect to engagement concept, stating that to able to engage employees means to be able "to capture the heads, hearts, and souls of your employees to instill an intrinsic desire and passion for excellence".

Scholars interested in burnout research noticed that employee engagement is the exact opposite of burnout. Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker (2002) rephrased burnout as "an erosion of engagement with the job". Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001) expanded that "engagement is characterized by energy, involvement, and efficacy - the direct opposites of the three burnout dimensions", which they argue are exhaustion, cynicism and inefficacy.

As mentioned before, practitioners were first to use the term of employee engagement. Therefore, due to the lack of an established definition of the concept and the lack of theory, some started to discuss whether employee engagement is a separate concept (Saks, 2006). When scholars became interested in the concept as well, the academics took exception to this discussion and a body of works that focuses on distinctiveness of employee engagement has been published since then (Welch, 2011).

The most relevant distinction for this paper is that employee engagement and employee commitment are related but separate concepts (Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008). For example, Saks (2006) argued that "organizational commitment [...] refers to a person's attitude and attachment towards their organization. Engagement is not an attitude; it is the degree to which an individual is attentive and absorbed in the performance of their

roles." However, it is noted that engagement leads to organizational commitment (Hansen, Byrne, & Kierch, 2014); Pitt-Catsouphes and Matz-Costa (2008) called engagement a "supraconstruct" in relation to organizational commitment. Saks (2006) also argues that engagement differs from organizational citizenship behavior and is indeed a unique concept.

Moreover, it is established that employee engagement is also different from job involvement (Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008). For example, May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) argue that:

Job involvement results from a cognitive judgment about the need satisfying abilities of the job. [...] Engagement differs from job involvement in that it is concerned more with how the individual employs his/her self during the performance of his/her job. Furthermore, engagement entails the active use of emotions and behaviours, in addition to cognitions.

Also, in his employee engagement concept, Kahn (41, 1990) defined three psychological conditions that should be in order for the employee to become engaged: meaningfulness (work elements), safety (social element, such as management style, processes, and organizational norms), and availability (individual distractions, such as physical or emotional energy, personal life). The important part for this study is that based on Khans's (1990) theoretics, Saks (2006) developed his own set of determinants of employee engagement. They include job characteristics, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, and distributive justice. The determinant relevant for this study is perceived organizational support because according to Saks' (2006) definition of organizational support, i.e., that organizational support is "general belief that one's organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being"; it includes availability of flexible work arrangements.

There are several important conclusions to draw from the review of literature on employee engagement. Firstly, the literature review demonstrates that employee engagement is a complex and broad concept which is proven by a variety of definitions of the concept. It should be noted, that for the further analysis, a definition by Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker (2002) of employee engagement will be used where the researches depict engagement as a construct composed by three components: vigor, dedication, and absorption. Secondly, analyzing engagement is alluring for practitioners and scholars both due to a long list of its benefits. Thirdly, it was revealed that flexible work arrangements is a viable antecedent of employee engagement; thus allowing further study in the relation of flexible work arrangements and employee engagement.

#### **Development of Organizational Commitment**

The interest in organizational commitment is not losing its momentum due to potential benefits of it to the organizations (Faisal & Al-Esmael, 2014). Committed employees are characterized as more loyal and more productive than their counterparts (Furtmueller, van Dick, & Wilderom). Other positive outcomes of commitment are lower rates of employee turnover, negative impact on employee's intention to leave and less frequent cases of absenteeism (Elizur & Koslowsky, 2001). Because of the many possible positive organizational outcomes, organizational commitment continues to be of interest to business work and remains a popular research object for the last 40 years with different researchers analyzing it. Moreover, it is likely that the topic of commitment will remain relevant for many years to come: Generation Y employees, who are famously less committed to their employers, are dominating the labor force and human resources managers will be looking ways how to retain them (Gratton, 2013). Due to the reasons mentioned above, organizational commitment will be analyzed in this paper as well. In order to understand the

concept of organizational commitment better, first, its definition, distinction from other organizational concepts, key researchers, typology, antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment are introduced. Then, later in the paper, the relationships among organizational commitment and other concepts of this study – flexible work arrangements and work-family enrichment – are discussed.

In general, organizational commitment refers to person's emotional and functional attachment to the organizational one works for (Elizur & Koslowsky, 2001). To be precise, in their summary of their fellow researchers' studies of Faisal and Al-Esmael (2014) defined organizational commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization and the strength of a person's attachment to the organization".

Before further analysis of the construct, it should be established that organizational commitment is a separate concept: as in the case of employee engagement, there is some discussion if organizational commitment is different from other organizational concepts.

Mael and Tetrick (1992; as cited in Hansen, Byrne, & Kierch, 2014) provided empirical evidence that organizational commitment is different from organizational identification.

Moreover, differenced between organizational identification and organizational commitment have been explained as well (Zhang, Kwan, Everett, & Jian, 2012). And finally, differences between the two organizational concepts - organizational commitment and employee engagement – were discusses in previous part of this study.

The key researchers of organizational commitment are Meyer and Allen (Bergman, 2005). These researchers have depicted three ways that individuals can commit to and organization: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). These three ways were picturesquely summarized as: wanting (affective commitment), needing (continuance commitment), and

being obliged (normative commitment) to remain with the organization (Bergman, 2005). Also, it is important to note, that the three ways of a person to commit to the organization should be viewed as components rather than types because a person can be commitment in all three ways at the same types; just the degree of commitment will be different (Meyer & Allen, 1990). For example, Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) found that positive work experience is associated with affective and normative commitment at the same time. Therefore, in order to determine with which of the components of organizational commitment flexible work arrangement might be related to, the three components of organizational commitment will be discussed separately.

#### **Typology of Organizational Commitment and Antecedents**

Of the three components of organizational commitment, affective commitment has been researched the most (Bergman, 2005). According to Meyer and Allen (1991), affective commitment "reflects a desire to maintain membership in the organization that develops largely as the result of work experiences that create feelings of comfort and personal competence". Comparing definitions of the components of organizational commitment, it seems that differences among the components are largely due to the reasons employees become committed to their organization. Therefore, the antecedents of each of the component will be reviewed also.

Meyer and Allen (1991) stated that there are three types of affective organizational commitment antecedents: personal characteristics, organizational structure and characteristics of the employer and work experience. In relation to the first category of the antecedents of affective organizational commitment, i.e., personal characteristics, Meyer and Allen (1991) noted that their colleagues reported ambiguous results when analyzing if demographics characteristics such as age, gender or education have impact on the level of affective organizational commitment. More recent studies show that undisputed conclusion has not

been reached yet (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006). As it will be discussed later, this study will also analyze if demographics characteristics have impact on organizational commitment. However, demographics characteristics are not the only personal characteristics that can be linked to commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), characteristics such as need for achievement or need for autonomy have been found to correlate with commitment.

Organizational structure and characteristics were named as the second category of antecedents of affective organizational commitment as it was reported that decentralization of decision making and formalization of policy and procedures have impact on affective commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Furthermore, Su, Baird, and Blair, (2009) provided evidence that organizational characteristics such as organizational culture (outcome orientation and stability, to be precise) were also found to be significant predictors of affective organizational commitment. However, more importantly to this study, Faisal and Al-Esmael (2014) also noted that high level of autonomy is positively related to organizational commitment. To be precise, the two researchers noted that "if an organization is characterized by a high degree of autonomy, its members have opportunity for scheduling their work; [...] this will positively reflect on the employees' attitude toward their organizations, which, in turn, may increase their commitment"; later in their work, Faisal and Al-Esmael (2014) provided evidence for this notion. Therefore, it is likely that the availability of flexible work arrangements, as a sign of autonomy, a related to affective organizational commitment.

The third category of the antecedents is work experiences. Meyer and Allen (1991) divided work experience variables into two groups: those that allow employees to feel comfortably (both physically and psychologically) in their organizations and those that allow employees to fell competent in their job. Comfort group variables include fair reward system (Faisal & Al-Esmael, 2014), confirmation of pre-entry expectations, role explicitness and

freedom from conflict. Joiner and Bakalis (2006) extended this list of comfort variables by adding supervisory and co-worker support and access to resources. Also, comfort variables include organizational support (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Su, Baird, & Blair, 2009), making work experience relevant antecedent for this study because according to the definition by Saks (2006) provided before, organizational support include availability of flexible work arrangements. Competence related variables include opportunities for self-expressions and career (Faisal & Al-Esmael, 2014), achievements, autonomy, equity of results-related reward distribution, job challenge and job scope, participation in decision making, and, lastly, personal importance to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Later, Meyer and Allen, themselves with an addition of another colleague (Smith) (1993) added a new variable to the antecedents of affective organizational commitment: they provided evidence that job satisfaction also is related to affective organizational commitment (Su, Baird & Blair, 2009).

The other component of commitment - continuance commitment - refers to "extent to which a person needs to stay with the organization, due to the costs of forgoing benefits associated with an individual's investments in the organization", as summarized by Bergman (2006). Bergman (2006) also notes that continuance commitment is related with such organizational outcomes as turnover and intention to leave rather than organizational behaviors such as citizenship. Concerning the antecedents of continuance organizational commitment, any variable that increases the costs of leaving the organization can be regarded as antecedent of this component of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The cost may be both work related and work not related. Possible examples of the cost related with leaving the organization could be loss of attractive benefits, need to relocate and disrupt personal life of other family members. Alternatively, variables that have negative impact on the cost of changing a workplace also have negative impact on continuance commitment. For example, Joiner and Bakalis (2006) provided evidence that employees of higher education, married

employees or those having a second job demonstrated lower level of continuance commitment. However, some of their findings are inconsistent with the studies of other researchers. This fact also illustrates that there a risk in generalizing results of researches concerning antecedents of continuance commitment: the costs associating with changing workplace is quite different for each individual and even might differ for the same individual but in different time (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

The last component of commitment – normative commitment – refers to the extent to which one is obliged to remain within the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Normative commitment stems from one's sense of obligation (Bergman, 2005) which generally originated from two sources. One source is socialization experiences that impress the employee to remain with the organization. Other source is reception of usually money related benefits (e.g., tuition fee) which upon receiving creates obligation within the employee to remain with the organization in order to repay the cost the organization incurred (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993).

In this paper, not all of the three components of organizational commitment will be analyzed, but only affective organizational commitment will be analyzed further. This decision is made for several reasons:

- The analysis of organizational commitment antecedents leads to a belief that
  availability of flexible work arrangements is a quite possible antecedent of this
  component of commitment while not of the other two. Also, it would be difficult
  to test continuance commitment empirically because the antecedents for this
  component of commitment are different for each individual of even for each
  change of a workplace;
- 2. Affective commitment is within the control of management, while the other two are usually beyond their control (Su, Baird, & Blair, 2009). For example, in regard

to continuance commitment, employees who live closer to their workplace are expected to be possessing higher level of continuance commitment compared to those who live farther. Similarly, normative commitment is often a result of upbringing: if employees were engrained to be loyal and committed, their level of normative commitment will be higher. Therefore, continuance and normative organizational commitment are beyond the scope of this study.

3. Affective commitment is more likely to be the antecedent for most of the desirable organizational outcomes. Reasoning behind this statement can be summarized by a quotation from Meyer and Allen (1991) paper: "employees who want to belong to the organization (affective commitment) might be more likely than those who need to belong (continuance commitment), or fell obliged to belong (normative commitment), to exert effort on behalf of the organization".

#### **Outcomes of Organizational Commitment**

Some of the benefits of organizational commitment have been already mentioned. In this part of the paper the outcomes of organizational commitment will be discussed more comprehensively. From a perspective of macro level, a high level of organizational commitment would benefit society and macroeconomics of countries as higher organizational commitment would lead to increase in national productivity and, therefore, higher GDP (Su, Baird, & Blair, 2009). However, this study is interested in organizational level outcomes; therefore, organizational outcomes will be discussed in more details.

The most obvious benefit of organizational commitment is lower employee turnover.

This is a very important outcome as for organization it means lower workforce hiring and training costs, no loss of productivity and work quality due to the inexperience of new employees and avoidance of a decrease in staff morale which is often the case when turnover

increases (Su, Baird, & Blair, 2009). Similar outcome of organizational commitment is less frequent intention to leave (Faisal & Al-Esmael, 2014).

Moreover, organizational commitment is likely to result in higher job performance as more committed employees will more likely to exert effort in order to reach the goals and objectives of the organization (Su, Baird, & Blair, 2009). However, this might be true only in case of affective organizational commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), continuance is not likely to result on higher job performance as employees who remain within the organization primarily due to the cost related with leaving the organization may be interested only to put as much effort as it is needed to maintain their membership in the organization. Employees who feel obliged to remain within the organization (normative commitment) might also not strain themselves in order to reach organizational goals to the maximum.

Another outcome of organizational commitment is higher acceptance of organizational change. Reducing resistance and fear of changes is important because organizational change often result in employees' uncertainty and fear which in turn can lower staff morale and might result in lower productivity. Iverson (1996, as cited in Su, Baird, & Blair, 2009) noted that a high level of organizational commitment id the most important factor in organizational change management concerning human resources.

To summarize literature concerning organizational commitment, it is clear that there is a need to research the antecedent of organizational commitment periodically as high level of organizational commitment is beneficial both for organization and country level.

Moreover, literature review provided information that the concept analyzed in this paper, i.e., the availability of flexible work arrangement and organizational commitment, might be related. However, more comprehensive discussion on their interrelations will be provided

later in the paper. In the next part of the paper, another concept of this paper, i.e., work – family enrichment, will be introduced.

#### Main Findings on Work - Family Enrichment

In the scholarly work, balancing work and family duties had become a popular area of research (Nicklin & McNall, 2013; Sim, 2013). Most of the researchers have promoted a scarcity perspective, suggesting the need to balance work and family obligations leads to situation of and interrole conflict (McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010; Russo & Buonocore, 2012), where individuals struggle to be successful in both areas (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). This approach is based on an assumption that an individual has only a certain amount of psychological and physiological energy which needs to be divided between work and family (Russo & Buonocore, 2012).

The tendency to focus on negative aspect rather than positive is common for psychology studies as a whole rather than only for work-family interface. Namely, researches on negative aspects outnumber the positive ones by a ratio of 17 to 1 (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). However, more scholars started to concentrate on studying the strengths rather than weaknesses. Similarly, a growing number of researchers have been directing their attention towards positive side of work – family interface (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Russo & Buonocore, 2012; Sim, 2013) and they have encouraged their colleagues to do the same (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The new tendency to emphasize the positive side of work and family interface is in accord with developing trends not only in psychology and organizational behavior that also focuses on positive effects of the concepts in question in order to fully understand the capabilities of individuals (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

The positive interdependence between work and family are named by variety of terms, such as work-family enhancement, enrichment (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), facilitation or positive spillover (Sim, 2013; Mcnall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010). In the present study, one of the positive aspects of work-family interface labeled as enrichment is addressed. The concept is defined by Greenhaus and Powell as "the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role" (2006). Even though the term work-family enrichment was introduced before Greenhaus and Powell work, all the studies reviewed in this paper refer to them as the main authors of the concept. Contrary to the scarcity approach, during the development of work-family interface it was argued that psychological and physiological resources are not finite; moreover, they can be regained by employing them in other spheres (Russo & Buonocore, 2012).

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) based their concept on works by Sieber and Marks. Greenhaus and Powell build upon Marks argument that participation in different roles not only does not leave a person without energy to participate in other roles, but it creates additional energy to perform in the latter roles. Moreover, Sieber developed Role accumulation theory where he has argued that social knowledge gained in one role (e.g., connections and recommendations), can be successfully utilized in other role when needed. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) emphasized that that the process of accumulation of assets is crucial for enrichment process as well.

In essence, non – monetary assets accumulated in work environment could be used to enrich family life creating work-to-family enrichment. Similarly, benefits derived from family life could in turn supplement work environment creating family-to-work enrichment.

Also, the benefits can be redeployed even though situations and environment is different (Zhang, Kwan, Everett, & Jian, 2012).

The benefits are labeled as resources by Greenhaus and Powell (2006). In their framework, the researchers named five types of resources that can be accumulated in work or family situations. First category is named as skills and perspectives which in itself is composed from components. In contrast, one's perspective defines how one would perceive and approach a situation. For example, how much individual differences are appreciated by one or even measure of trust in another person (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). The second type of resources is defined as psychological and physical resources which include self-esteem, hardiness, optimism, and physical help. The third type is labeled as social capital which includes connections and other knowledge gained through interpersonal relationship whether in work or family environment. The last two types of resources are flexibility and material resources.

In addition, Greenhaus & Powell (2006) distinguished two ways by which resource generated on one role can help to enhance performance in another role. It is done via instrumental or affective paths. Instrumental path refers to a mechanism when a resource is relocated directly from one role to another. Usually, it is skills or knowledge accumulated performing one role (e.g., as an employee) that could be also used in another role (e.g., as a family member) (Tummers & den Dulk, 2013) in order to enhance performance in the latter role. Russo & Buonocore (2012) provided an example from their preliminary research where a nurse argued that experience gained working in pediatrics served her to eventually care for her first child better. In contrast, affective path involves not direct transfer of a resource but rather can promote positive affect on the other role. An example of affective resource could be high self-esteem gained by being a valued employee or a family member.

Even though work-family enrichment is a quite recent concept, there are already conclusions on its effect on work-family interface. For example, Carlson, Grzywacz and Kacmar (2010) provided evidence that work-to-family enrichment is positively related to job

satisfaction and family satisfaction. This research will extend knowledge on work-family enrichment as a mediator, namely, if work-family enrichment mediates between flexible work arrangements and employee engagement and commitment.

## The Relationship of Flexible Work Arrangements, Employee Engagement, Organizational Commitment and Family and Work Enrichment

The goal of this research is to expand the current knowledge on flexible work arrangements and their impact on employee engagement and organizational commitment. Also, this study will test mediating role of work-family enrichment; i.e., whether work-family enrichment mediates between flexible work arrangements and on employee engagement and organizational commitment. In order to accomplish that, in this part of study relations researched by other scholars between the concepts of the paper are discussed.

The effect of flexible work arrangements on organizational outcomes: commitment and engagement. Many different studies provided evidence that flexible work arrangements have positive impact on both organizations and employees. Positive outcomes such as higher job satisfaction, lower turnover intentions, lower work–family conflict (Masuda et al., 2012; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010), motivation, self-efficacy and performance (Pederson & Jeppesen, 2012; Sweet, Pitt-Catsouphes, Besen, & Golden, 2014), a reduced level of stress and improved morale (Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, & Brenann, 2008), absenteeism (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright & Neuman, 1999) are proven.

Given the extensive list of positive outcomes of the availability of flexible work arrangements, it is reasonable to assume that employees react positively to flexible work arrangements as they perceive that their organizations care for them and this situation makes them feel more appreciated, and in turn, appreciate their work and organization more (McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010). The theory of (human resources) management explains

this connection of 'give and take' by Signaling theory and Social exchange theory. Casper and Harris (2008) summarized that Signaling theory "observable actions by an organization are interpreted as signals of less observable characteristics" (Spence, 1973). In case of this research, employees would interpret the availability of flexible work arrangements as the observable characteristics which might signal organizations' care about their employees which is the less observable characteristic.

Given that, it is not surprising that there are studies which have already provided evidence for the positive relation between signals of organizational care that are similar to flextime or flexplace and organizational commitment. For instance, studies show that work-life benefits, such as dependent care assistance and flexible work schedules, have positive effect on organizational commitment (Casper & Harris, 2008). Moreover, a meta-analysis of 155 studies found that work-family conflict is significantly related with affective commitment (Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, & Brenann, 2008); and flexible work arrangements are used to minimize work-family conflict. Giving consideration to the findings above, it is reasonable to assume that flexible work arrangements, namely, flextime and flexplace, has direct positive effect on organizational commitment.

Following Signaling theory, it is likely that employee engagement is related with flexible work arrangements. Strangely enough even though workplace flexibility, which is an umbrella term for flextime, flexplace and other flexible work arrangements, and employee engagement as separate concepts are research frequently, their relationship and interdependence have been studied very rarely (Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, & Brenann, 2008). However, there are studies that have done it. For example, Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, and Brenann (2008) have provided evidence that perceived workplace flexibility and supportive work-life policies have positive impact on employee engagement. Moreover, after studying a multi-organizational database of a consulting company, Johnson, Shannon and

Richman (2008) declared that employees who reported having the flexibility they need demonstrated higher result of Engagement Index. Even though neither of the just mentioned researches studied precisely the relationship of flexible work arrangements and employee engagement, having in mind the closeness of the concept they studied with the concepts of this research and principles of Signaling theory (Spence, 1973; Casper & Harris, 2008; Karasek & Bryant, 2012) and Social exchange framework (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) it is reasonable to assume that the connection exists.

Also, it could seem odd that will paper studies the impact of one independent variable (the availability of flexible work arrangements, namely flextime or flexplace) on two organizational outcomes; especially when earlier in this paper it was discussed that organizational commitment and employee engagement are separate constructs. However, it should be noticed that some of their antecedent are the same (see Table 1). Therefore, it is logical to assume that one variable, i.e., the availability of flexible work arrangements, could have impact on two organizational outcomes, i.e., organizational commitment and employee engagement, at the same time.

Table 1

Antecedents of employee engagement and organizational commitment those are common for both concepts

No of example	Researcher	Antecedents
Evennle no 1	Saks (2006)	Perceived organizational support, distributive justice
Example no 1	Meyer and Allen (1991)	
Example no 2	Kahn (1990)	C-f-4
	Meyer and Allen (1991)	Safety, management processes, organizational norms

*Mediating role of work-family enrichment.* Mediating role of work-family enrichment has been tested by other researchers. McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda (2010) provided

evidence that work-family enrichment mediates between flexible work arrangements and high job satisfaction and low turnover intentions. Moreover, Nicklin & McNall (2013) tested and supported their hypothesis that work-family enrichment mediates between supervisor and family support and job and family satisfaction. In their research Tang, Siu, & Cheung (2014) supported their claim that work-to-family enrichment acts as a mediator between job satisfaction and work support (supervisor support, so-worker support, and organizational support). Marais, De Klerk, Nel, and de Beer (2014) argued that for female employees work-family enrichment mediates between availability of work resources (support, autonomy and developmental possibilities) and work engagement. In the same paper, the researchers also proved their other hypothesis that work-family enrichment mediates between availability of home resources and family engagement. However, to the author's knowledge, mediating role of work-family enrichment between flexible work arrangements and employee engagement and organizational commitment has not been tested.

Work-family enrichment and work related outcomes: engagement and commitment.

In order to confirm mediating hypotheses, the relationship between independent variables self-sufficient dependencies between mediator and other variables have to be proven.

Therefore, it is important to review whether those relationships are logical and possible, i.e., have been researched and proven by researchers.

The review of the literature showed that the relationship between work-family enrichment and work engagement has been tested before. For instance, Marais, De Klerk, Nel, and de Beer (2014) provided empirical evidence of positive relationship between work engagement and work-to-family enrichment. However, there are considerable limitations to this research: only female employees were questioned and family-to-work enrichment has not been tested in this research. Also, other scholars tested and supported their claims that work-family enrichment facilitates various positive work, family, and life outcomes, including

affective organizational commitment (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010; Zhang, Kwan, Everett, & Jian, 2012).

#### **Research Problem Definition**

The literature review demonstrated that each concept of this study, i.e., flexible work arrangements, employee engagement, organizational commitment, and work-family enrichment, has been researched comprehensively. However, it is true when considering the concepts of the paper separately. As a result, though out the paper inconsistencies and gaps in theory regarding the relationships between the concepts were identified. To summarize previous references, there are several reasons why this study is significant and several missing elements of the theory of the chosen concepts and their interdependencies are covered.

First, there is a surprising lack of research concerning flexible work arrangements in Lithuanian context. For example, thorough examination of three databases (see Appendix A) revealed that it is possible that the relationship between flexplace and employee engagement, organizational commitment, or work-family enrichment has not been researched in Lithuanian context yet. This research would address this lack of theory and empirical studies.

Second, as previously discussed, previous research allows hypothesizing that there are connections between the chosen types of flexible work arrangements (flextime and telecommuting) and organizational benefits such as engagement and commitment. However, it is unclear whether just the availability of flexibility causes an increase in employee engagement and affective organizational commitment as Signaling theory (Spence, 1973; Casper & Harris, 2008; Karasek & Bryant, 2012) claims; or the increase in engagement and commitment is a result of direct and tangible benefit that employees receive by having flexibility available.

In this paper the latter point of view will be tested. To be precise, in this paper it is hypothesized that having access to flexible work arrangements enriches employees' personal life; therefore, employees reciprocates and become more engaged in their work and committed to the company. By accomplishing that, this study would answer a call by McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin (2010) to further investigate relations between enrichment and work-related outcomes. Moreover, to author's knowledge, mediating role of family-work enrichment between flexible work arrangements and employee engagement and organizational commitment has not been tested before. As a result, the current study would fill this gap.

Third, this study will be one of the first studies regarding work-family enrichment in Lithuanian context. To the author's knowledge, only one research concerning the concept in Lithuanian context has been conducted this far (i.e., Gustaite, 2010). Moreover, this research did not analyze work-family enrichment as a moderating concept.

Thus, the research problem for the present study is how the availability of flexible work arrangements (flextime or flexplace) impact employee engagement and organizational commitment and whether work-to-family enrichment mediates in this relation. Answers to these questions are significant for employers and employees both.

## Research Methodology

The main goal of this research is to examine the impact of the availability of flexible work arrangements on employee engagement and organizational commitment and to examine to what extent does work-family enrichment mediates between flexible work arrangements and the organizational outcomes mentioned before in Lithuanian context. In this part of the study the research design which will be employed in order to reach the goal of the paper is introduced and justified. Namely, this part of the paper discusses research settings and procedures that were employed in order to answer the research question: research design, research setting and participants, research instrumentation, discussion on internal and external validity, and, finally, ethical considerations. The starting point and basis for choosing the right research methodology is the literature review in the previous part of this paper.

### Research design

As it is discussed in the paper before, nowadays many employees are member of dual-career couples that have responsibilities at work and at home at the same time. Businesses have responded to this change in workforce demographics and offered flexible work arrangemnts that provide opportunities to balance the needs of work and personal lives (Shockley & Allen, 2012). However, researches showed that flexible work arrangements not only allow employees to balance work and personal life responsibilities, but also bring other benefits to organizations and employees at the same time. For example, scholars provided evidence that organizations which offer flexible work arrangements are more likely to have employees with higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions (McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010). However, even though the positive outcomes of flexible work arrangements are discussed widely in some European countries and the USA, flexible work arrangements are still scarcely used in Lithuania. The reason behind this might be a lack of evidence that

flexible work arrangements would result in positive outcomes in Lithuanian labor market as well. Therefore, more research is needed in order to found out whether the outcomes of flexible work arrangements that are common in other countries are relevant in Lithuania too. At the same time, this research will expand current knowledge of work-family enrichment which is currently scarce, particularly in Lithuania.

In order to provide more knowledge on the outcomes in employing flextime or flexplace the model in Figure 1 will be tested with each arrow representing a different hypothesis which will be introduced later.

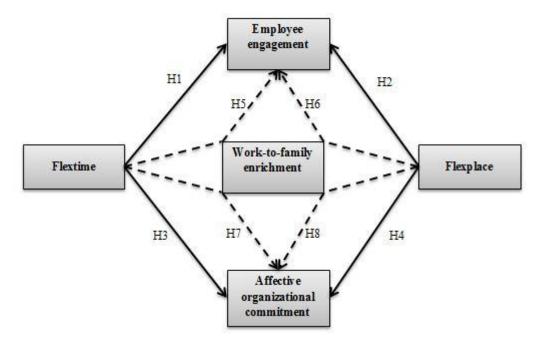


Figure 1. The research model.

*Note:* solid lines represent direct relation between the concepts and dashed lines represent mediating relation. The figure developed by the author.

Each arrow in Figure 1 represents a possible relationship that will be tested in this paper. In order to question the relations, a number of hypotheses are formulated using the information gathered in literature review. The hypotheses are summarized in Table 2 naming authors whose researches serves as a foundation for a particular hypothesis. Later justification for formulating the hypotheses is provided.

Table 2

A summary of hypotheses of the research and scholars contributing to them

Number	Content of hypothesis	Authors
H1	The availability of flextime is positively related to	McNall, Masuda, and Nicklin, 2010;
	employee engagement.	Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, and
H2	The availability of flexplace is positively related to	Brenann, 2008; Casper and Harris, 2008;
	employee engagement.	Saks, 2006
Н3	The availability of flextime is positively related to the	Casper and Harris, 2008; McNall, Masuda,
	organizational commitment.	and Nicklin, 2010; Richman, Civian,
H4	The availability of flexplace is positively related to the	Shannon, Hill, and Brenann, 2008;
***	organizational commitment.	, , ,
H5	Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the	
	positive relation between the availability of flextime and	
Ш	employee engagement.	
Н6	Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the	Tong Sin & Chaung 2014, Margia Da
	positive relation between the availability of flexplace and	Tang, Siu, & Cheung, 2014; Marais, De Klerk, Nel, and de Beer, 2014; 14, Nicklin
H7	employee engagement.  Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the	& McNall, 2013; McNall, Masuda, and
117	positive relation between the availability of flextime and	Nicklin, 2010;
	affective organizational commitment.	McKilli, 2010,
Н8	Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the	
110	positive relation between the availability of flexplace and	
	affective organizational commitment.	
	1 11 1 1	

*Note:* developed by the author.

While flexible work arrangements have been researched widely, their relationship with employee engagement have not been researched broadly. However, there have been a few researches that analyzed the interdependence between the concepts. For example, Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, & Brenann (2008) provided evidence that workplace flexibility has positive impact on employee engagement. Even though workplace flexibility is broader concept than flexible work arrangements (Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, & Brenann, 2008), it is likely that flexible work arrangements have positive impact on employee engagement as well. Signaling theory (Spence, 1973; Casper & Harris, 2008) and Social exchange framework (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) also suggest that this relation is viable. However, previous studies showed that different types of flexible work arrangements might affect employees differently. Therefore, two particular types of flexible work arrangements will be analyzed in this paper – flextime and flexplace. Consequently, the first two hypotheses are:

*Hypothesis 1 (H1):* The availability of flextime positively relates to employee engagement.

*Hypothesis 2 (H2):* The availability of flexplace positively relates to employee engagement.

Organizational commitment is a desired outcome for an organization because committed employees are likely to "better" employees: they are more loyal and productive, also less likely to leave the organization (Furtmueller, van Dick, & Wilderom, 2011; Elizur & Koslowsky, 2001). Social exchange theory explains why organizational commitment might be an outcome of flexible work arrangements: organizations that offer flexibility signal to their employees that they care about employees' well-being, therefore, employees in turn reciprocate by committing to the organization. However, organizational commitment is not a homogenous construct. Most researchers use distinction of three components of organizational commitment: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Due to reasons explained in Literature review chapter, only affective organizational commitment is analyzed in empirical part of the study. Therefore, the following is predicted:

*Hypothesis 3 (H3):* The availability of flextime positively relates to the affective organizational commitment.

*Hypothesis 4 (H4):* The availability of flexplace positively relates to the affective organizational commitment.

Moreover, it is possible that work-to-family enrichment mediates between the availability of flexible work arrangements (flextime and/or telecommuting) and employee engagement and/or organizational commitment. This possible relation is explained by the very essence of work-family enrichment theory. That is, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) named five types of resources that work as drivers in work-family enrichment process. Flexibility is

among the types of the resources is the relevant resource for this study. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) define flexibility as "discretion to determine the timing, pace, and location at which role requirements are met". According to work-family enrichment theory, resources accumulated in role A can enrich life where role B is performed. In other words, enrichment might happen both ways: resources generated in work might enrich family life and resources generated in family situations might enrich work life. However, as in this case the resource in question – flexibility – is generated in work life, only work-to-family enrichment is analyzed; i.e., it is analyzed whether flexibility that an employee has access to in work situations may have direct or indirect positive influence on one's performance of a family role (Mcnall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010). An availability to take one's children to and from extra curriculum activities thus allowing to the children start taking them up at early age would be an example how flexibility at work may directly enrich family life. Positive emotions that are generated by having flexibility at work, e.g., enthusiasm or high energy, might, in turn, indirectly enrich employee's interactions with her or his family.

Having this in mind, it is likely that flexibility acts as a resource gained at work when flexible work arrangements are offered which enriches the family life and in turn employees reciprocate by becoming more engaged in their work and more committed to their organization. Given that, the following hypotheses are formulated:

*Hypothesis 5 (H5):* Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the positive relation between the availability of flextime and employee engagement.

*Hypothesis 6 (H6):* Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the positive relation between the availability of flexplace and employee engagement.

*Hypothesis* 7 (*H7*): Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the positive relation between the availability of flextime and affective organizational commitment.

*Hypothesis 8 (H8):* Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the positive relation between the availability of flexplace and affective organizational commitment.

# Research setting and participants

For accepting or declining the hypotheses define in previous part of the study, the quantitative research method with standardized questionnaire has been chosen. This research design has been chosen for several reasons. Firstly, quantitative research method allows to large, representative samples of the chosen country, community, industry or other. Secondly, quantitative research method allows reliably assert causal relationships among the analyzed concepts. This is particularly important to this study as its goal is to analyze if flexible work arrangements can be considered as a cause to certain organizational outcomes. Thirdly, quantitative research method enables to summarize results of the research in ways that are persuasive to decision makers (Fassinger & Morrow, 2013). And finally, the fixed-response questions that are used in quantitative research method allow greater objectivity as the author has less change to misinterpret the opinion of a respondent.

After determining the research design, the population relevant for this research must be defined. Population refers to a group of objects that possess common characteristics significant for the research (Vobolevicius, n.d.). In this case, the population is the total workforce in Lithuania. According to the Lithuanian Department of Statistics, labor force of Lithuania was 1.47 million people in the last quarter of 2014 which is the population relevant for this study. Having determined that, next, using the formula below, the sample size is calculated. The sample size for this survey is 384 respondents. In order to compare results among employees having flextime options, having flexplace options and not having availability of flexible work arrangemnts, ideally each of the three groups should be represented by equal number of respondents.

$$SS = \frac{Z^2 \times P \times (1 - P)}{C^2}$$

SS - sample size;

Z - Z value (1.96 for 95% confidence level);

P - Percentage picking a choice, expressed as decimal (usually 0.5)

C - Confidence interval, expressed as decimal (0.05)

The survey was conducted using online survey tool. The questionnaire was published on apklausa.lt website on the Internet. The link to the survey was distributed using social media, via personal acquaintances of the author and was sent to a few associations whose activities are related with the research problem with a kind request to publish the link in their intranets or other internal communication tools.

# **Research Instrumentation and Questionnaire Design**

A quantitative research design has been employed in this study. Specifically, a questionnaire has been designed to meet the research goal. The structure of the questionnaire is summarized in Table 3. More detailed comments of the questions are provided below and the full questionnaire is provided in Appendix B.

Table 3

The structure of the research questionnaire

Type of variable	Area of evaluation	Questions number
Dan and ant anniables	Employee engagement	1 - 9
Dependent variables	Affective commitment	10 - 17
Mediating variable	Work-to-family enrichment	18 - 26
Independent variables	Availability of flextime and/or flexplace	27 - 28
Control variables	Demographical data	29 - 33

*Introduction.* In this part of the questionnaire the aim of the research will be presented to the respondents and respondents will be kindly asked to contribute to the research by filling the questionnaire. Also, in order to assure respondents' privacy, the

respondents will be informed that the confidentiality is guaranteed. The objective of the introduction of the questionnaire is to explain clearly what and why will be tested in order to ensure accurate responses,

*Employee engagement.* Engagement is measured by a shortened version of Utrecht Work Engagement Scale which has nine items as developed by Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006). The items are listed in Table 4. A seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagrees") to 7 ("strongly agree") is used to measure employee engagement.

Table 4

Items for the assessment of employee engagement

No	Statement	Engagement scale
1	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	Vigor scale
2	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	Vigor scale
3	I am enthusiastic about my job.	Dedication scale
4	My job inspires me.	Dedication scale
5	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	Vigor scale
6	I feel happy when I am working intensely.	Absorption scale
7	I am proud of the work that I do.	Dedication scale
8	I am immersed in my work.	Absorption scale
9	I get carried away when I am working.	Absorption scale

Organizational commitment. An eight-item scale of affective organization commitment developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) is used. The items are listed in Table 5. Organizational commitment is measured using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagrees") to 5 ("strongly agree").

Table 5

Items for the assessment of commitment

No	Scale statement	Type of item
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	Direct keyed item
2	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	Direct keyed item
3	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	Direct keyed item
4	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am	Reversed keyed item
	to this one.	
5	I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.	Reverse keyed item
6	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	Reverse keyed item
7	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	Direct keyed item
8	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	Reverse keyed item

*Work-to-family enrichment*. Nine items from Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne and Grzywacz's (2006) scale were assessed in order to evaluate the level of work-family enrichment. The items are listed in Table 6. Respondents had to indicate the level of their agreement with the statements using a five-point Likert scale.

Table 6

Items for the assessment of work-to-family enrichment

First part of the statement	Second part of the statement
	helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member
	helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member
	helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member
My	puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member
involvement in	makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member
my work	makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member
	helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member
	provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member
	provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member

Flexible work arrangements. Respondents will be asked whether they are offered flextime and/or flexplace options by the organizations they work for. The availability of flextime and flexplace options is measured rather than the actual use of it because, as explained earlier, the fact that flexible options are offered is a symbol of organizational

concern for work-family balance and as such it can influence employee perceptions (Mcnall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010).

**Demographical questions.** The respondent will be asked to identify their gender, age, education, marital status and number of children. The data gathered will be used to analyze if demographical and sociological aspects influence the dependent variables.

### **Internal and External Validity**

For every research it is important to consider whether internal and external validity is ensured. In the respect of this paper, internal validity is guaranteed by using scales that have been validated and tested in different contexts and various research conducted by different scholars. However, there was a threat to the internal validity due to the translation from their original language (English) to Lithuanian which was used to question the respondents. In order to avoid breach of internal validity due to the translation, the translated questionnaire was approved by an academic professional.

To ensure external validity of this research, no particular group of respondents was targeted; the research participants were selected randomly. Moreover, the participants were allowed to fill the questionnaire at the time and place of their convenience and without being observed by the researcher.

#### **Ethical Considerations of the Research**

The research was conducting preserving ethics. There are several reasons to claim that. First, all respondents filled the questionnaire voluntarily and were informed about the goal of the research. Second, the participants were assured that the survey is anonymous in terms of individual responses. Third, the answers of the respondents are not published publically; they are available only upon request to the author. Fourth, the research is conducted principals of honesty, objectivity, and respect intellectual property.

### **Empirical Research Results**

In the previous part of the study the research methodology employed in the study was discussed and the hypotheses for the empirical part of the research were presented. In this part of the study, the results of the empirical research are analyzed and discussed in order to accept or reject the hypotheses of the research. The analysis of the empirical research results will be conducted in the following sequence:

- Data are filtered in order to reveal any responses that are not relevant for this study;
- 2. Demographic data of the research sample is discussed. The data include respondents' occupational status, level of education, gender, age, marital status and number of children;
- Reliability analysis of the scales used in the research is conducted. Cronbach's Alpha test is used to measure the reliability;
- Correlation and regression analysis are conducted in order to test the first four hypotheses;
- 5. Tests of mediation are performed in order to accept or reject H4 H8.

Before the further analysis is carried out, adjustment of the data is executed. The scores of employee engagement scale were summed into an overall measurement for the further study, consistent with other researchers (e.g., Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, & Brenann, 2008). The same modification was performed for scores of both organizational commitment and work-to-life enrichment scales.

Also, in some cases short codes are used in further analysis; they are provided in Table 7.

Table 7

Short codes used

Full name	Short code
Occupation	Occup
The sum of the scores of Likert scale for Employee engagement	EEsum
The sum of the scores of Likert scale for Affective organizational commitment	OCsum
Work-to-family enrichment	WtFEsum

232 responses were collected via the Internet questionnaire published on apklausa.lt website. However, not all of the responses were used for the further analysis: four respondents indicated that they were not employed at that moment or were full time students. Also, the same four respondents indicated that they belong to the younger age group – from 18 to 24 years of age. Due to the respondents' occupational status and age, it is likely that the four respondents do not have any work experience or any experience in managing workfamily balance. Therefore, their responses were eliminated from further study. Moreover, for the same reasons, responses from respondents under 18 years of age would have been eliminated too; however, all respondents indicated that they at least 18 years of age. As a result, 228 responses were used in the further study. The further analysis starts with the discussion of the demographics of the respondents.

### **Descriptive Characteristics of the Research Sample**

In this part of the paper, descriptive characteristics, such as occupational status, age, gender, of the research sample will be overviewed. This is done in order to have a better understanding of the sample analyzed.

All the respondents were asked to indicate their occupational status. As respondents who were not working answers were eliminated, the sample is composed of respondents who either are employed or are employed and are studying at the same time. The majority of the respondents (79%) work as opposed to working and studying at the same time (see Table 8).

Table 8

Distribution of the respondents according to occupational status

Index	Occupational status	Count	Percent
1	Employed	181	79
2	Employed and studying	47	21
	Total	228	100

Among the demographics of the sample, gender is one of the most significant for researches concerning work-family balance. In the sample of this research, the number of female respondents outnumber male respondents by almost three times (see Table 9) which might have influence for the outcomes of the study as scholars (for example, Carlson, Grzywacz and Kacmar (2010)) hypothesized whether gender has influence on the perception of the benefits of flexible work arrangements. Moreover, Matos and Galinsky (2014) stated that organizations where female workforce make up a more significant proportion that the male workforce, are more likely to be more flexible. However, Sweet, Pitt-Catsouphes, Besen, and Golden (2014) were not able to provide evidence for the similar hypothesis in their study, i.e., that organizations where female workforce are significantly larger than male offer a greater variety of flexible work arrangements. Furthermore, the developers of work family enrichment theory - Greenhaus and Powell (2006) - recommended furthering research if gender has any significance in the work-family enrichment process as previous studies reported inconsistent results (Russo & Buonocore, 2012).

Table 9

Distribution of the respondents according to gender

Index	Gender	Count	Percent
1	Female	170	75
2	2 Male	58	25
	Total	228	100

Other important demographic of the sample is age. For example, Pitt-Catsouphes and Matz-Costa (2008) hypothesized that as long as older workers are offered flexibility they needed they might be even more engaged than their younger colleagues. Moreover, McNall, Masuda, and Nicklin (2010) found that age is has positive relation with work-to-family enrichment. However, in this study the majority of the respondents are rather young, i.e., the largest part of the respondents belong to the 25-34 years of age category (see Table 10). Therefore, in this study it would not be possible to reach valid conclusions on whether age has relation with engagement and commitment.

Instead, this empirical research will be valuable for other insight. That is, there are evidence that availability of flexible work arrangements could be used as HR tool to raise commitment of employees (Casper & Harris, 2008). However, it is likely that these conclusions have been reached after surveying employees that belong to Generation X or Baby Boomers generation, and Generation Y is expected to be less committed (Gratton, 2013). Therefore, the question is whether the same HR tools will work with younger generation.

Table 10

Distribution of the respondents according to age

Index	Age	Count	Percen t
1	18 – 24 y.o.	25	11
	25 - 34 y.o.	168	74
	35 - 44 y.o.	18	8
	45 - 54 y.o.	7	3
	55 y.o. and more	10	4
	Total	228	100

The respondents were also asked to indicate their level of education. The level of education is common control variable for this type of research (see McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010; 57, Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012). Moreover, it is possible that the level of education of the respondents has impact on their attitudes and behaviors towards flexible work arrangements and their perspective of work situations such as engagement or commitment (Shockley & Allen, 2012). The majority of the respondents of this research have university or college education.

Table 11

Distribution of the respondents according to the level of education

	vel of cation	Count	Percent	1 2
1 Seconda education		8	4	
2 Vocation education		8	4	
3 Univers	ity or education	212	93	
Total		228	100	
				3

Furthermore, the respondents were asked to indicate two more demographic data: marital status and number of children. These control variables are also common for work-file balance studies (see Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, & Brenann, 2008 or Carlson, Grzywacz,& Kacmar, 2010). The larger part of the respondents is not married (see Table 12); however, even larger percentage of the respondents does not have children (see Table 13).

Table 12

Distribution of the respondents according to the level of education

Table 13
Distribution of the respondents according to the level of education

Number of Children	Count	Percent
No children	170	75
One child	25	11
Two children	26	11
Three or more children	7	3
Total	228	100
_	No children One child Two children Three or more children	No children 170 One child 25 Two children 26 Three or more children 7

Descriptive characteristics of the sample, such as occupational status, gender, age or marital status, have been discussed. The following part of the study will deal with the reliability analysis of the scores of the scales of the questionnaire.

# **Reliability Analysis of the Scales**

In this part of the paper, reliability of scores obtained using the scales of the questionnaire is examined. Simply put, Groth - Marnat (2003) explains reliability as "the extent to which scores obtained by a person are the same if the person is reexamined by the same test on different occasions". In this research, the Cronbach's Alpha test is employed in order to examine the reliability of the scores received using the scales used in the research. The questionnaire was composed using three different scales; therefore, Cronbach's Alpha is calculated four times: to measure internal consistency of employee engagement scale, affective organizational commitment scale, and work – to – family enrichment scale, and, finally, to measure reliability of the scores received using all three scales.

There is no indisputable agreement on how Cronbach's alpha value should be interpreted. However, in this paper for evaluation of Cronbach's alpha results George and Mallery's (as cited in Gliem & Gliem, 2003) rules of thumb are used where alpha that equals is considered to be "\_> .9 - excellent, \_> .8 - good, \_> .7 - acceptable". The calculations show that the scores received employing affective organizational commitment scale provided "good" internal consistency; while the scores received employing other two scales - i.e., employee engagement and work - to - family enrichment - provided "excellent" internal consistency. The total reliability of the constructs is also "excellent". As a result, the scales used in the research are reliable (see Table 14). However, it is important to note that in the commitment scale there were four items that were reverse keyed; the four items were recoded before the calculation of the Cronbach's alpha.

Table 14

Cronbach's alpha values of the scales used in the research

Scale	The value of Cronbach's alpha	The number of items in the scale
Employee engagement scale	0.917	9
Affective organizational commitment scale	0.834	8

Work – to – family enrichment scale	0.929	9
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# **Testing the Hypotheses**

In order to further analyze the relationships between control variables, independent variables (availability of flextime or flexplace) and dependent variables (employee engagement and affective organizational commitment) hierarchical multiple regressions are performed. Later on the mediating effect of work-to-family enrichment is tested in two methods: using steps defined by Baron and Kenny (1986) and Sobel test (see Table 15).

Table 15

Analysis methods used to test the hypotheses

Hypot-	Content of the hypothesis	Test	Reason for choosing	<b>Consistent</b> with
hesis	Content of the hypothesis	Test	the test	other researches
H1	The availability of flextime is positively related to employee engagement.	Hierarchical multiple	1. In this study there are two types of	Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008;
H2	The availability of flexplace is positively related to employee engagement.	regression	independent variables: independent variable	Carlson, Grzywacz, & Kacmar, 2010; McNall, Masuda, &
НЗ	The availability of flextime is positively related to the organizational commitment.		<ul> <li>availability of flexible work arrangements and</li> </ul>	Nicklin, 2010. Although different from other researches,
H4	The availability of flexplace is positively related to the organizational commitment.		control variables; 2. Availability of flexible work arrangements is more relevant for the research problem; therefore, its impact on the dependent variables should be tested first.	in this study the independent variable is regressed first compared with the control variables.
Н5	Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the positive relation between the availability of flextime and employee engagement.	Baron and Kenny (1986) procedure		Carlson, Grzywacz, & Kacmar, 2010; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010;
Н6	Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the positive relation between the availability of flexplace and employee engagement.	and Sobel test		
Н7	Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the positive relation between the availability of flextime and affective organizational commitment.			
Н8	Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the positive relation between the availability of flexplace and affective organizational commitment.			

As in this research there are two equal dependent variables, two separate multiple hierarchical models have been analyzed with each of them having a separate dependent variable:

In Model 1 the impact of availability of flextime and flexplace on employee
engagement together with significant control variables are analyzed (see Figure
2);

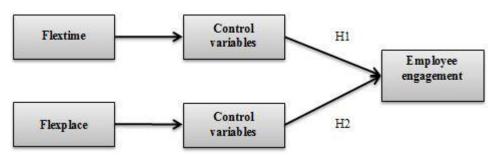


Figure 2. Model 1.

 In Model 2 the impact of availability of flextime and flexplace on affective organizational commitment together with significant control variables are analyzed (see Figure 3);

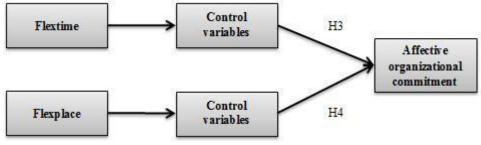


Figure 3. Model 2.

# **Assessment of Assumptions for Regression Analysis**

The regression analyses are performed after testing basic statistical assumptions of hierarchical multiple regression which coincide with other types of multiple regression. Most of the assumptions have been tested for Model 1 and 2 separately. The tested assumptions are as follows:

1. Dependent variables must be continuous. This assumption is met.

- 2. There is a linear relationship between independent and dependent variables;
- 3. The error is normally distributed, that is there is independence of errors;
- 4. The variance of errors in constant (homoscedasticity);
- 5. There is no multicollinearity; that is there is no perfect linear interdependence among the predictor variables.

Assessment of linearity between independent and dependent variables. A few of the independent variables are dichotomous (the availability of flextime or flexplace, gender, and marital status); therefore, no calculations were carried out for them as dichotomous variables automatically have linear relationship. For the rest of the independent variables (i.e., occupation, age, education, and number of children) the linearity was tested using scatter plot graphs (see Appendices B and C).

Assessment of error distribution normality. In order to asses of the errors are normally distributed both in Model 1 and 2, histograms and normal probability plots (P-P plots) are evaluated visually. After visually examining the plots (see Appendix D), it is concluded that residuals are normally distributed as:

- 1. The histograms of Model 1 and Model 2 for both flextime and flexplace show close to normal distribution;
- 2. P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual values are approximately normal. i.e., the values of are close to or on top of the reference line.

Assessment of homoscedasticity. The assumption of homoscedasticity implies that the residuals of different independent variables (predictors) remain similar along the line of best fit. In order to verify the assumption of homoscedasticity scatterplots of each independent variable where standardized residuals were regressed on to standardized predicted value. Moreover, for the ease of performing the eyeball test, a linear fit line was fitted in the plots.

From the visual examination of the scatter plots (see Appendices B and C) it is not quite clear whether the assumption of homoscedasticity is violated. However, satisfying linear fit indicated that there is homoscedasticity. Therefore, is it concluded that the assumption of homoscedasticity is met.

**Assessment of multicollinearity**. Multicollinearity means that there interdependency among the independent variables. In order to asses if the assumption of no multicollinearity is violated or met, two tests are conducted:

- 1. Correlations between the variables are calculated for Model 1 and 2 separately;
- 2. Variance Inflation Factor is also calculated.

First, in order to choose the right type of correlation coefficient, it is checked whether the data (each independent variable) is normally distributed. For that Shapiro – Wilk test is employed. The results of Shapiro – Wilk test show that the distribution of scores is significantly different from normal in Model 1 but normal in model with commitment as dependent variable (see Appendices E and F). Therefore, Spearman's rho was calculated as a correlation coefficient for Model 1 but Pearson's correlation for Model 2.

The correlation indexes (see Appendices G and H) show that there is no multicollinearity. In the case of Model 1, as the highest correlation index is approximately equal 0.6; therefore, it is concluded that there is no multicollinearity among the independent variables in Model 1. As the independent and control variables and the data are the same for both models, in the case of Model 2, the highest correlation also is not high; even though different correlation coefficients were used.

Nonetheless, correlation matrix method might miss some more subtle signs of multicollinearity; therefore, VIFs are also calculated. As all VIF coefficients fall between approximately 1 and 2, it is concluded that there no multicollinearity in neither Model 1 nor Model 2.

# Model 1 analysis: correlation and regression

In the previous part of the paper the assumptions of multiple regression were tested. It was confirmed that are assumptions are met; therefore, the data were not transformed or corrected in order to perform a hierarchical multiple regression. In this part of the research H1 and H2 will be tested; i.e., whether the availability of either flextime or flexplace will positively relate to employee engagement. The analysis of Model 1 is carried out in two steps: first, correlation coefficients are calculated; second, the regression analyses are conducted.

Correlation analysis. In order to analyze initial relationship among between the dependent variables – employee engagement in Model 1 - and independent and control variables, correlation analysis is performed. As discussed previously, due to not normally distributed data, Spearman's rho is chosen as correlation coefficient. In the Model 1 the Spearman's rho indicate that education and occupation have almost no influence on employee engagement. Out of control variables age has the strongest correlation with employee engagement. However, independent variables, i.e., the availability of flextime and telecommuting, have the strongest correlation with employee engagement (see Table 16). This indicates that H1 and H2 might be true but to state that surely further analysis is needed.

Moreover, two-tailed significance values confirm that the availability of flexible work arrangements (either flextime or flexplace) is significantly related to the dependent variable. Also, two-tailed significance values shows that gender, education, occupation, and marital status are not statistically significant for Model 1 (p>0.05). However, to be completely positive of this, all control variables will be regressed in stepwise method. Next, to fully accept or reject H1 and H2 hypotheses regression analyses are performed.

Table 16

Correlation statistics for Model 1 for the dependent variable

Variables	Spearman's rho	Sig. (2-tailed)
Gender (1 for female)	146*	.028
Age	.197**	.003
Education	.014	.836
Children	.154*	.020
Occup (1 for work)	.000	.999
Marital status (0 if married)	139*	.036
Flextime	.266**	.000
Flexplace	.322**	.000

*Notes:* \*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. \*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

**Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis.** Hierarchical multiple regression was performed in two steps:

- In the first step independent variables (the availability of flextime, then availability of flexplace) were entered;
- 2. In the second step control variables were entered using SPSS multiple regression stepwise method.

Hierarchical multiple regression was chosen as the method of analysis because although there were no hypothesis about the impact of control variables (for example, gender) on the dependent variables in this research, the study would be more applicable and comprehensive if it noted any variances occurred due to the demographical data of the respondents. In stepwise method, variable will be added to the regression if a variable is statistically significant. Due to the stepwise method, Model 1 is divided into four models: Model 1.1a which includes only one independent variable – the availability of flextime; Model 1.1b which includes the independent variable and any control variables that are statistically significant; Model 1.2a which include only the availability of flexplace, and, finally, Model 1.2b which include flexplace and significant control variables.

First, regressions concerning the impact of flextime on engagement are performed (Models 1.1a and 1.1b). The results of hierarchical multiple regression (see Table 17) indicate that the Model 1.1a is statistically significant (p<0.05) and hypothesis 1 is confirmed; i.e., the availability of flextime has impact on employee engagement. Moreover, in Model 1.1.a R<sup>2</sup> equal to 0. 067 means that the availability of flextime accounts for 6.7% of the variability of employee engagement. Moreover, stepwise method of multiple regression suggested that out of all control variables only age also has impact of employee engagement showing that F change related to R<sup>2</sup> is statistically significant (Model 1.1b.; see Table 17). To remind, the same tendency was identified using correlation coefficients. Moreover, if age was included, the Model 1.1b would explain 3.4% more of the variability of employee engagement than Model 1.1a alone. As a result, flextime and age together would account for 10.1% of variability of employee engagement. However, it was decided to disregard this suggestion as the sample of respondents of different age in this study is not enough to make conclusions about the impact of age on employee engagement and model is still statistically significant without age of other control variables. Therefore, Model 1.1a is considered to be final model when testing the impact of flextime on engagement.

On the whole, the R and R<sup>2</sup> values received in these regressions are not high and in some studies the relationship would be ignored as not important. However, employee engagement is a broad concept and different researches provided evidence of a variety of other variables being antecedents for employee engagement as well (Kahn, 1990; Saks, 2006). Therefore, the relationship between employee engagement and the availability of flextime is not only statistically significant but logically as well.

Table 17
Statistics for regression for Model 1

	Model Summary					Ano	va
Mode	R	R	Adjusted R	R Square	Sig. F	F value	Sig.
1		Square	Square	Change	Change		
1.1a	.258a	.067	.063	.067	.000	16.151	$.000^{a}$
1.1b	.317 <sup>b</sup>	.101	.093	.034	.004	12.589	$.000^{b}$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Predictors: (Constant), Flextime

Dependent Variable: EEsum<sub>c</sub>

To sum up, the final Model 1.1 would consist of the dependent variable 'employee engagement' and independent variable 'availability of flextime'. The calculations of regression show that if an organization does not offer flextime, the engagement of their employees would score on between 41.6 and 45.1 (with 95% certainty). If flextime is available, the engagement of employees would be from 2.7 to 7.9 higher (also with 95% certainty). In other words, on average engagement would increase by 12.2%.

Table 18

Regression coefficients for Model 1.1a

Coefficient	<b>Unstandardized Coefficients</b>		Coefficient Unstandardized Coefficients 95		95.0% Confiden	ce Interval for B
for	В	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
(Constant)	43.347	.892	41.589	45.104		
Flextime	5.307	1.321	2.705	7.909		

Now the same calculation will be conducted for Model 1.2 where the impact of flexplace on employee engagement will be tested where Model 1.2a would include flexplace and Model 1.2b would include flexplace and control variables. The results of hierarchical multiple regression (see Table 19) indicate that the Model 1.2a is statistically significant (p<0.05) and hypothesis 2 is confirmed; i.e., the availability of flexplace has impact on employee engagement. Moreover, in Model 1.2a R<sup>2</sup> equal to 0. 095 means that telecommuting accounts for 6.7% of the variability of employee engagement. Regarding control variables, the outcome is the same as with relation between flextime and engagement:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Predictors: (Constant), Flextime, Age

out of all control variables only age also has impact of employee engagement. Nonetheless, age is disregarded for same reason as it was decided when analyzing the impact of flextime on employee engagement.

Table 19
Statistics for regression for Model 1.2

	Model Summary					Ano	va
Mode	R	R	Adjusted R	R Square	Sig. F	F value	Sig.
<u>l</u>		Square	Square	Change	Change		
1.2a	.315a	.099	.095	.099	.000	24.833	$.000^{a}$
1.2b	.364 <sup>b</sup>	.132	.125	.033	.004	17.159	.000b

a. Predictors: (Constant), Flexplace

b. Predictors: (Constant), Flexplace, Age

Therefore, the final Model 1.2 would consist of the dependent variable 'employee engagement' and independent variable 'availability of flexplace'. The regression coefficients show that without flexplace, the engagement of employees would score on between 41.6 and 44.8 (with 95% certainty). If flexplace is available, the engagement of employees would be from 4 to 9.2 higher (also with 95% certainty). In other words, on average engagement would increase by 15.3%. Also, this shows that the availability of flexplace has larger impact on employee engagement than flextime.

Table 20

Regression coefficients for Model 1.2a

Coefficient	Unstandardized Coefficients		95.0% Confiden	ce Interval for B
for	В	Std. Error	Lower Bound	<b>Upper Bound</b>
(Constant)	43.214	.825	41.589	44.839
Flexplace	6.615	1.327	3.999	9.231

## Model 2 analysis: correlation and regression

In this part of the research H3 and H4 will be tested; i.e., whether the availability of wither flextime of flexplace will positively relate to affective organizational commitment. As

in case of Model 1, the analysis of Model 2 is also carried out in two steps: first, correlation coefficients are calculated; then, the regression analyses are conducted.

Correlation analysis. As previously discussed, the data for Model 2 are normally distributed therefore Pearson correlation coefficients are calculated. Correlation coefficients show that both independent variables (flextime and flexplace) are significantly correlated with commitment. Out of control variables, age and number of children is significant as well. However, two-tailed significance coefficients show that neither of control variables are significant while both independent variables are significant. This indicates that H3 and H4 might be accepted. However, in order to decide that, regressions are calculated.

Table 21

Correlation statistics for Model 2 for the dependent variable

Variables	Correlation coefficients	Sig. (2-tailed)
Flextime	.235**	.000
Flexplace	.293**	.000
Gender (1 for female)	064	.337
Age	.157*	.018
Education	.039	.553
Children	.157*	.018
Occup (1 for work)	.009	.896
Marital status (0 if married)	106	.111

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).\*\*

Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).\*

Regression Analysis. Regression analysis are conducted in the same method as it was done with Model 1: in hierarchical regressions, first, availability of flexible work arrangement (either flextime or flexplace) are regressed in 'enter' method; then control variable are regressed in 'stepwise' method. In Model 2.1 the availability of flextime is regressed while in Model 2.2 the availability of flexplace is regresses. In model name letter 'a' indicates that only independent variable is used to predict commitment; letter 'b' indicates that control variable are included in regression as well.

Stepwise method suggested including only age out of all control variables (see Appendix K). However, significant coefficients showed that the impact of age is not significant enough. Therefore, this suggestion was disregarded and only Model 2.1a is analyzed further which means that control variables do not have significant impact on commitment when flextime is offered. The finding that demographic characteristics of the respondents could not be used to determine organizational commitment corresponds with the finding of other researchers. Namely, Meyer and Allen (50, 1991) noted that while their colleagues have found connections between demographic statistics and commitment, the relations have been weak or inconsistent.

The results of regression (see Table 22) show that the Model 2.1a is statistically significant (p<0.05) and hypothesis 3 is confirmed; i.e., the availability of flextime is positively related to affective organizational commitment. Moreover, the availability of flexible work arrangements accounts for 5.5% of the variability of organizational commitment. As in the case of Model 1, the value of R and R<sup>2</sup> is not high but is significant due to the complexity of the concept of organizational commitment.

Table 22

The summary of regression statistics for Model 2.1

R	R	Adjusted R	F value	Sig.	Unstandardized
	Square	Square			Beta
.235	.055	.051	13.252	$.000^{b}$	3.056

Also, the coefficients of the regression show that in organizations when flextime is not offered, the average score of affective organizational commitment is 24.6. If flexible work arrangements are offered, the score of commitment would on average increase by 3 points. i.e., would increase by 12.4%. Also, it should be noted that flextime has approximately the same impact on commitment as it has on engagement. However, flextime

has steadier impact on commitment than it has on engagement as standard error is smaller in Model 1.2a model.

Table 23

Regression coefficients for Model 2.1a

Coefficient	Unstandardize	<b>Unstandardized Coefficients</b>		Unstandardized Coefficients 95.0% Confidence In		ce Interval for B
for B Std. Error Lower		<b>Lower Bound</b>	Upper Bound			
(Constant)	24.589	.567	23.472	25.706		
Flextime	3.056	.839	1.402	4.709		

Now hypothesis 4 will be tested. Analogically to Model 2.1, stepwise method suggested adding age to regression however significance coefficients showed that age is not significant enough (see Appendix K). Therefore, linear regression was calculated in order to test the impact of flexplace in commitment with flexplace as only independent variable.

Linear regression shows that availability of flexplace has positive impact on commitment, i.e., H4 is accepted. Availability of flexplace accounts for 8.6% of deviations in commitment. Compared with flextime impact on commitment, flexplace has larger impact on the organizational outcomes. The same tendency, that the impact of flexplace is larger, was observed in regressions where dependent variable was engagement.

Table 24

The summary of regression statistics for Model 2.2a

R	R	Adjusted R	F value	Sig.	Unstandardized
	Square	Square			Beta
.293ª	.086	.082	21.278	.000	3.896

Regression coefficients (see Table 25) show employees that are not offered flexplace would on average score 24.5 points on commitment scale while employees that are offered flexplace would score 3.9 point higher, i.e., 15.9% higher. Moreover, flexplace compared with flextime, has higher impact on organizational commitment.

Table 25

Regression coefficients for Model 2.2a

Coefficient	Unstandardize	d Coefficients	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		
for	В	Std. Error	Lower Bound	<b>Upper Bound</b>	
(Constant)	24.479	.525	23.444	25.513	
Flexplace	3.896	.845	2.232	5.561	

## **Testing the mediation**

In this part of the paper the mediating role of work-to-family enrichment will be assessed, i.e. hypothesis 5-6 (perceptions of work-to-family enrichment will mediate the positive relation between the availability of flexible work arrangements (either flextime or flexplace) and employee engagement) and hypothesis 7-8 are tested (perceptions of work-to-family enrichment will mediate the positive relation between the availability of flexible work arrangements (either flextime or flexplace) and organizational commitment). For the assessment of the mediating role of work-to-family enrichment the procedure defined by Baron and Kenny (1986) was employed. Also, Sobel tests (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) were conducted.

Procedure by Baron and Kenny (1986). First step of the procedure focuses on assessing whether the independent variables (the availability of flextime or telecommuting) is significantly related to dependent variable (employee engagement in H5-6 and organizational commitment in H7-8). These relationships were confirmed during the testing of Models 1 and 2. Second, the independent variable has to be significantly related with the mediator - perceptions of work-to-family enrichment. To test that, regressions were calculated. The regression shows that the availability of flextime is related to work-to-family enrichment, as well as the availability of flexplace (see Appendices M-N). In the third step of the procedure of testing the mediation it is tested whether the mediator is related with the dependent variable. To accomplish that, two additional regressions are calculated:

- Regression with work-to-family enrichment as independent variable and employee engagement as dependent variable. The regression shows that the variables are related (see Appendix O);
- 2. Regression with work-to-family enrichment as independent variable and affective organizational commitment as dependent variable. In this case, statistics of a regression also shows statistically significant relationship (see Appendix P);

The fourth condition for the mediation is as that the independent variable must be insignificant in regression where the original dependent variables remains dependent and independent variable and the moderator are regarded as independent variables. In the regression where independent variables are flextime and work-to-family enrichment, and dependent variable is employee engagement, flextime becomes insignificant (p=0.16) (see Appendix R). As a result, H5 is fully accepted; i.e., the perceptions of work-to-family enrichment fully mediate between flextime and engagement. However, in the regression where independent variables are flexplace and work-to-family enrichment, and dependent variable is employee engagement, flexplace remains significant (p=0.03) (see Appendix S). Therefore, H6 is only partly accepted.

Now H7 and H8 will be tested. In the regression where dependent variable is organizational commitment and independent variables are flextime and work-to-family enrichment, the availability of flextime becomes insignificant when the mediator is included in the regression model, thus satisfying all four conditions for the mediation (see Appendix T). As a result, H7 is accepted as it is confirmed that work-to-family enrichment mediates the relationship between the availability of flextime and affective organizational commitment. However, in the regression independent variables are flexplace and work-to-family enrichment, the availability of flexplace remains significant (see Appendix T). Thus, H8 is partly accepted.

Sobel tests. Another way to test mediation is to conduct Sobel tests (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). For the calculation of the statistic (Z) of the test, Preacher and Leonardelli's (2001) interactive tool was employed. The test showed that work-to-family enrichment mediates the relationship between the availability of flextime and organizational commitment (Z= 3.14, p<0.01), thus confirming H5. In case of H6, Sobel test also shows mediation (Z= 3.80, p<0.01). However, since Baron and Kenny method shows only partial mediation, to be completely objective, the conclusion for H3 will not be changed, i.e, that the relationship is partially mediated. When testing H7, Sobel test also shows mediation (Z= 3.03, p<0.01) which corresponds to the conclusion received using Byron and Kenny steps; therefore, H7 is fully accepted. In case of H8, Sobel test also indicates mediation; however, since Byron and Kenny showed only partial mediation, this conclusion that H8 is only partially accepted will not be changed.

To summarize the testing of the hypotheses, out of four hypotheses, three hypotheses were accepted and one hypothesis was partly accepted (see Table 26).

Table 26

Results of the hypotheses tests

Hypothesis	Content	Results
H1	The availability of flextime is positively related to employee engagement.	Accepted
H2	The availability of flexplace is positively related to employee engagement.	Accepted
Н3	The availability of flextime is positively related to the organizational commitment.	Accepted
H4	The availability of flexplace is positively related to the organizational commitment.	Accepted
Н5	Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the positive relation between the availability of flextime and employee engagement.	Accepted
Н6	Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the positive relation between the availability of flexplace and employee engagement.	Partly accepted
Н7	Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the positive relation between the availability of flextime and affective organizational commitment.	Accepted
H8	Perceptions of work-to-family enrichment mediate the positive relation between the availability of flexplace and affective organizational commitment.	Partly accepted

## **Discussion and Conclusions**

This chapter has two main components: discussion and conclusions. In discussion part main findings of the empirical research are summarized and compared with the existing theory. Also, both theoretical and practical implications are discussed as well as limitations of the study. In conclusions part the main points of the research are summarized and possible directions for related future research are considered.

#### **Discussion**

The aim of this paper is to investigate the relation between of flextime and flexplace on one side and employee engagement and organizational commitment on the other side. Also, the study aimed to answer whether work-to-family enrichment mediates the aforementioned relations. To accomplish this, hypothesis regarding relations between the concepts of the research have been raised and tested using data gathered via questionnaire. Consequently, in this part of the paper, main conclusions of the empirical research will be discussed and the finding will be compared to those of other researchers. In addition, theoretical and practical value of this research will be reviewed. Finally, the limitations of the study are outlined.

# Findings of the Empirical Research

In order to test the hypotheses of the study, three types of methods have been employed: hierarchical multiple regression, Baron and Kenny, and Sobel test. The former has been applied to test hypotheses regarding positive relations between concepts; the latter to have been used to test hypothesis regarding mediation of work-to-family enrichment. In this part of the paper, the results of the hypotheses tests are discussed and findings of this paper are compared to the findings of other researchers.

The first hypothesis (H1) regarding the positive relation of the availability of flextime and employee engagement was confirmed. Also, the empirical research confirmed that not only flextime but flexplace also has a positive relationship with employee engagement. This means that organizations that offer flextime or flexplace have employees that are more engaged in their work. Unfortunately, due to a lack of theory concerning employee engagement and flexible work arrangements (Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, & Brenann, 2008), the author of this paper did not find analogical peer-reviewed researches to compare results to. However, review of researches of similar constructs show that this finding is supported by other researches. For instance, Pitt-Catsouphes and Matz-Costa (2008) found that employees who have access to flexibility – which is umbrella term including flexible work arrangements - they need are significantly more engaged. Concerning the effect of flexplace, is a particularly important discovery for this paper as there is practically no research on effect of telecommuting in Lithuania.

The third and fourth hypotheses were confirmed as well which means that employees that have access either to flextime or flexplace are more committed to their organizations in affective way. Being affectively committed leads that employees do not "need" or "feel obliged" to stay with organization, which is a case with other two types of commitment; rather, they want to stay within it in a way which might lead to other positive outcomes, such as employees exerting more effort to reach the goals of the organization. Moreover, the findings of other scholars are in accordance to the conclusion that flextime and flexplace have positive impact on affective organizational commitment (e.g., Casper & Harris, 2008).

While testing the first four hypotheses, the significance of individual demographical and sociological characteristics was evaluated. The results of this research showed that most of demographical characteristics (i.e., occupational status, gender, education, marital status, number of children) do not have significant impact on relation between flexible work

arrangements on analyzed organizational outcomes. This finding corresponds with the findings of other researchers. For example, Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, and Brenann (2008) have found that individual and family demographics accounted only for 0.6% variance in employee engagement before including perceived flexibility and other subjects of the study.

In this research the only demographical characteristic that could have influence on engagement and commitment is age. The findings indicate that the older employees who have access to flexible work arrangements (either flextime or flexplace) are more engaged and affectively committed than the younger employees. This discovery coincides with findings of Pitt-Catsouphes and Matz-Costa (2008); however, the two researchers emphasized that there are studies that contradicts the relation between age, perceived flexibility and employee engagement. Due to controversial findings and more than uneven distribution across age groups of the sample of this study, this finding should not be considered to be conclusive.

In contrast to hypotheses concerning the effect of flexible work arrangements on engagement and commitment which were all confirmed, the last four hypotheses concerning the mediation of work-to-family enrichment were not all gully accepted. Empirical research showed that work-to-family enrichment fully mediates the relation between flextime and employee engaged and organizational commitment. In other words, one of the reasons explaining why employees become more engaged and committed if flexible work schedule is available to them is that this mode of work establishes conditions that eventually enrich the family. The pathways in which the enrichment might happen are varied. For example, considering instrumental path, having a flexible schedule would encourage one to master planning and time management skills which would also help to manage family obligations more efficiently (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

As mentioned before, to author's knowledge, this is a first research that tests the mediation of work-family enrichment between flexible work arrangements and engagement and commitment. Therefore, the findings of this paper cannot be compared to those of other research very precisely. However, McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda (2010) found that work-to-family enrichment mediates relation between the availability of flextime and job satisfaction which is an outcome of employee engagement. Also, they found that work-to-family enrichment mediates relation between the availability of flextime and turnover intention which is one of the main results of organizational commitment. Therefore, it is concluded that findings regarding flextime and mediation of work-to-family enrichment are in accordance to theory.

However, empirical research showed that work-to-family enrichment only partially mediates relationship between flexplace and engagement. The same conclusion was reached with commitment: only partial mediation was found. That means that the connection exists (there are hierarchical relationships between all the concepts) but is not strong enough to claim that work-to-family enrichment is a reason behind the positive effect on flexplace on engagement or commitment. Given the mixed findings concerning telecommuting and work and family balance this conclusion is not surprising. The findings of other researchers contradict each other: Gajendran and Harrison (2007) found that telecommuting reduces work-life conflict; however, Olson-Buchanan and Boswell (2006) found the opposite.

Therefore, a conclusion that would claim that family is enriched because of telecommuting to an extent that the enrichment mediates the relation between flexplace and engagement and commitment would be doubtful.

To summarize, this research is significant for several reasons. First, the results of the empirical research revealed that in fact regarding availability of flexible work arrangements as a privilege in Lithuania is even harmful to the business world as then business do not get

the benefits that flexibility would bring. To be precise, this study showed that employees that have access to flexible work schedule or telecommuting are more engaged in their work and are more committed to their organization in affective way. What is more, the positive outcomes that would be brought by allowing access to flexible work arrangements would initiate further positive changes. Literature review reported that increased work engagement would result in, for example, increased performance and willingness to perform extra role (Anitha, 2014; Albrecht, 2012). Increase on organizational commitment would result in, for instance, decrease employee turnover and less cases of absenteeism (Elizur & Koslowsky, 2001). Also, literature review revealed that not only the actual usage of flexible work arrangements ensures these benefits, but the availability as well.

Second, there was a need to investigate antecedents of engagement and commitment in particular. The need to investigate employee engagement was two-fold. First, there is a lack of researches concerning the relation between flexible work arrangements and engagement making it difficult to generalize the results. Second, there is a decrease in employee engagement worldwide. Therefore, all possible antecedent of engagement needed to be research in order to provide a variety of solution on how to affect engagement.

Moreover, there was a need to investigate commitment also due to changes of workforce. Younger generation which is famously less committed have been joining the workforce (Gratton, 2013) making it necessary to test whether the same antecedents are true with younger employees. Even though age was not considered to be a significant variable in this research, the majority of respondent belong to Generation Y showing that at least in Lithuania the same tool (i.e., availability of flexible work arrangements) could be used to affect organizational commitment as it was done with employees of other generations abroad.

Third, it should be stressed separately that the empirical research confirmed that flexplace have positive relationship with both employee engagement and commitment. This

outcomes of telecommuting in Lithuanian context is practically non-existent. Therefore, this paper would be one of the first to research benefits of flexplace in Lithuanian environment. Second, the results show that the availability of flexplace has stronger impact on organizational outcomes than flextime. Therefore, if an organization in Lithuania is considering making either flextime or flexplace available, it should be aware that flexplace would result in higher commitment and engagement than flextime. Third, the paper appeared in due time considering the trend to cancel their telecommuting programs that was started by a few international companies. Therefore, it could be hoped that the findings of this paper would allow decision makers to review their policy regarding flexplace once again.

Moreover, in this research not only impact of flextime and flexplace was research but the concept of work-family work enrichment as well. The topic of balancing work and family obligations has been a popular area of research for some time (Sim, 2013). However, at first focusing on negative aspects of work-family interface was a prevailing point of view (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Yet, in organizational psychology a more recent trend is to learn from strengths rather than weaknesses. One of the theories that does so regarding work and family relation is labeled as work-family enrichment (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006). The theory is fairly new: Greenhaus and Powell, who are the key researchers of this theory, published their theoretical model of work-family enrichment in 2006.

Due to the recency of the work-family enrichment theory, the body of research on it is insufficient worldwide and practically non-existent in Lithuania. Therefore, this research is significant due to its input in creating theory of work-family enrichment for several reasons. First, this research showed that there is a mediation of work-to-family enrichment between flextime and engagement and commitment which has not been tested before. Second, this

finding and this research extends the aforementioned school of thought that concentrates of positive side of work and family interface as it provides evidence that work and family do not necessarily have to be at conflict. Right conditions at work would actually enrich one's personal life which ultimately may lead to higher employee engagement and affective organizational commitment.

### **Managerial Implications of the Findings**

In this part of the paper, managerial implications will be discussed. There are number managerial implications that can be adopted in daily life of a business. Many successful managers emphasize that key to success is suitable people. In his book about successful companies, Collins (2001) goes even a step further: he suggests first finding the key employees, only when deciding on the strategy of the company. Given the importance of suitable employees, it is important to use all the tools to engage them and inspire their commitment.

This study shows that the availability of flexible work arrangement, namely flextime and flexplace, has positive impact on employee engagement and affective organizational commitment. These findings suggest that the Lithuania's current state where only a minority of employees has access to flexibility and even it is considered a privilege is in fact harmful to the business. Having in mind that engaged and committed employees would bring better results and considering that organizing business in a way to allow certain flexibility for employee to choose time and place to have the work done is not very costly, it is hopeful that the conclusions of this research would convince decision makers to evaluate their HR policies anew.

Also, business world should notice that the findings of this research are in complete accordance to those of other researchers conducted in different countries or even continents. It could lead to generalizing that in cases where unambiguous conclusions regarding HR

practices are reached by researchers in other countries, it would be true in Lithuania as well.

Therefore, if there are no resources to test the assumptions, the suggested of other researchers could be quite successfully adapted without further researchers.

### **Research Limitations and Implications for Further Research**

Despite many valuable findings of the research, there are some limitations of the research as well. First, one of the main limitations of the study is relatively small sample size. The sample size required in order to appropriately representing the whole Lithuania's workforce population is 384; however, only 232 responses were collected. Although the sample size is a research limitation, it was sufficient for statistical analysis to be carried out. Second, employee perceptions were measured at one point of time. Therefore, their answers could be affected by their mood that day or the questionnaire might have been filled in a hurry. Thus, it would be beneficial to gather more longitudinal data.

As mentioned before, there are a quite limited number of researches concerning the concepts of this research in Lithuania. This is particularly true in regard to researches of flexplace and work-family enrichment. Therefore, even analogical research with other sample of respondents would be useful in order to generalize the results in future. Concerning worldwide researches, there is still a lack of researches concerning the mediation of work-family enrichment between flexible work arrangements and other organizational outcomes, such as absenteeism or performance. Moreover, this research empirically tested the impact of two out of four types of flexible work arrangements. Therefore, similar study could be conducted with compresses week and part-time work as independent variables.

### Conclusion

Flexible work arrangements for a long time have been a popular tool to manage work and life balance. This need to manage work and life obligations has become exponentially

more significant recently due to a shift in demographics of the workforce when most of households are managed by two working adults. However, European Commission review showed that only a minority of employees have access to flexible work arrangements in Lithuania. Even more concerning is the prevailing opinion that flexible work arrangements are a privilege or employees request for it because of their laziness (4, Braziene, 2011). In order to initiate a public discussion about the usage of flexible work arrangements, there is a need to investigate whether flexibility would provide the same benefits in Lithuanian context that it provides in other countries. This has been one of the goals of this research.

The goal of the research is reached by meeting the objectives of the research. These are the objectives met and the main findings revealed in the process:

- An in-depth literature review regarding the concepts of the research and their relations is executed which served as a background for the further steps of the research. The literature review reveals that there is a lack of research concerning the concepts of this research (for example, flexplace of work-family enrichment) in Lithuanian context. However, given the researches conducted in other countries and their conclusions that are discussed in Literature review chapter, it is reasonable to assume that the relations questioned in this research might be present on Lithuania as well;
- Employing the information provided in Literature review chapter, a research model is build which represents the relations between the concepts that are questioned in this research. The research model questions direct relations between flexible work arrangements (namely, flextime and flexplace) and employee engagement and organizational commitment in Lithuania and mediating relation of work-family enrichment;
- A questionnaire for the research is composed using scales confirmed by other researchers. Nine-item scale is employed to determine respondent's engagement in their work, an eight-item scale is used to evaluate commitment, and nine-item scale determines a

level of work-to-family enrichment felt by a respondent. Also, demographic data about the respondents is collected;

- Data is analyzed and regression analysis and mediation tests are conducted in order to accept or reject the hypotheses. However, before discussing the results of the analysis, the limitations of the research should be also considered. The main limitation is relatively small sample size. Although sample size is enough to make statistically significant conclusions, one should be careful in claiming that the conclusions of this research are true in case of all Lithuanian population;
- The analysis showed that both types of flexible work arrangements are positively related to both organizational outcomes employee engagement and organizational commitment in Lithuanian context. By making flextime of flexplace available, organizations could increase the engagement and commitment of their employees on average by 12-16%. Considering that Literature review showed that both organizational outcomes are very complex concepts and have many antecedents, the increase if this size is quite considerable. However, flexplace has more significant impact on both organizational outcomes: while flextime would on average result in 12% rise in engagement and commitment, the availability of flexplace would result in 15-16% rise in the two organizational outcomes. Moreover, work-to-family enrichment also mediates differently for flextime and flexplace: work-to-family enrichment fully mediates between flextime and organizational outcomes in question while there is only partial mediation in case of flexplace.

The availability and usability of flexible work arrangements is low in Lithuanian compared to most European and North American countries. Moreover, the availability of flexibility is viewed as a privilege in Lithuania. However, the results of this research show that the availability of flexible work arrangements should not be considered as a privilege and organizations should seek to offer wider access to them as the availability of flextime of

flexplace is positively related to a few important organizational outcomes such as engagement and commitment in Lithuania. Therefore, hopefully the results of this research would encourage both Lithuanian scholars and practitioners to take more interest on flexible work arrangements and their positive impact in Lithuania.

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# Appendices

**Appendix A.** The results of search of similar researchers concerning flexplace in Lithuanian context.

Database	Keywords searched	Number of results	How many papers are significant to this paper*
Electronic Theses and	Telecommuting	1	0
Dissertations (ETD)	Flexplace	0	0
information system	Flexi-place	0	0
	Flexiplace	0	0
Emerald	Telecommuting Lithuania	0	0
	Flexplace Lithuania	0	0
	Flexi-place Lithuania	1	0
	Flexiplace Lithuania	0	0
EBSCO (all	Telecommuting Lithuania	1	0
databases)	Flexplace Lithuania	0	0
	Flexi-place Lithuania	10	0
	Flexiplace Lithuania	0	0

<sup>\*</sup>Note: I.e., studies the relationship between flexible work arrangement (flexplace of flextime) and employee engagement, organizational commitment or work-family enrichment in Lithuanian context.

# Appendix B. Questionnaire.

# Lankstaus darbo organizavimo įtaka darbuotojų įsitraukimui į darbą ir prisirišimui prie darbdavio

Laba diena,

Mano vardas Aušra ir aš atlieku tyrimą magistriniam darbui apie lankstaus darbo organizavimo (flexible work arrangements) įtaką darbuotojų įsitraukimui į darbą ir prisirišimui prie darbdavio, tuo pačiu metu įvertinant darbuotojų darbo ir šeimyninio gyvenimo santykį.

Būčiau labai dėkinga, jei padėtumėte atsakydami į žemiau pateiktus klausimus.

Anketos pildymas užtruks apie 10 minučių. Ši apklausa yra anoniminė, gauti rezultatai bus naudojami tik baigiamajame darbe. Noredami gauti informaciją apie apklausos rezultatus, rašykite ausraiv [eta] yahoo [taškas] com.

Ačiū už pagalbą!

Šic

os a	anketos rezultatai viešai nepublikuojami							
	Kokia Jūsų padėtis darbo rinkoje? ☐  Jeigu nedirbate, galite nebetęsti anketos pildymo.  1. ☐ Dirbu 2. ☐ Mokausi 3. ☐ Dirbu ir mokausi 4. ☐ Nedirbu  Žemiau pateikti teiginiai, apibūdinantys Jūsų savijautą darbe. Įvert pasirinkdami Jums labiausiai tinkantį variantą. ☐  kur 1 reikštų "visiškai nesutinku", 2 — "nesutinku", 3 — "labiau nes sutinku, nei nesutinku", 5 — "labiau sutinku, nei nesutinku", 6 — "s	utir	ıku,	nei	suti	nku'	', 4·	–"nei
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Savo darbe jaučiuosi pilnas(-a) energijos.	$\bigcirc$						
	Darbo metu aš jaučiuosi stiprus(-i) ir galintis(-i) daug ką padaryti							
	Aš esu entuziastingai nusiteikęs(-usi) savo darbo atžvilgiu	$\bigcirc$			$\bigcirc$	$\bigcirc$	$\bigcirc$	
	Mano darbas mane įkvepia	$\bigcirc$					$\bigcirc$	
	Pabudęs(-usi) ryte, aš noriu eiti į darbą					$\bigcirc$		
	Aš jaučiuosi laimingas(-a) intensyviai dirbdamas(-a)	$\bigcirc$			$\bigcirc$	$\bigcirc$	$\bigcirc$	$\bigcirc$
	Aš didžiuojuosi savo darbu					$\bigcirc$		
	Aš esu pasinėręs(-usi) į darbą	$\bigcirc$						
	Dirbdamas(-a) pamirštu viską aplink save							

3. Žemiau pateikti teiginiai, apibūdinantys Jūsų prisirišimą prie Jūsų dabartinės darbovietės. Įvertinkite kiekvieną teiginį, pasirinkdami Jums labiausiai tinkantį variantą kur 1 reikštų – "visiškai nesutinku", 2 – "nesutinku", 3 – "nei sutinku, nei nesutinku", 4 –

"sutinku", 5 – "visiškai sutinku".					
	1	2	3	4	5
Būčiau labai laimingas (-a), jeigu mano likusi karjera būtų susieta su organizacija, kurioje dabar dirbu.	0				
Man patinka pasakoti kitiems apie organizaciją, kurioje dirbu.					
Aš jaučiuosi taip, lyg šios organizacijos problemos būtų mano paties/pačios problemos.	0			0	0
Manau, galėčiau lengvai pajausti tokį patį prieraišumą, kurį jaučiu dabartinei darbovietei, ir kitai organizacijai.	0	0	0	0	
Savo organizacijoje aš nesijaučiu "šeimos dalimi".					
Aš nesijaučiu "emociškai prisirišęs (-usi)" prie šios organizacijos.					
Man asmeniškai ši organizacija daug reiškia.					
Aš nejaučiu stipraus prisirišimo prie šios organizacijos.					
Žemiau pateikti teiginiai, apibūdinantys Jūsų darbo ir šeimininio gyvenimo sant kiekvieną teiginį, pasirinkdami Jums labiausiai tinkantį variantą variantą variantą variantą variantą variantą variantų variantų variantų variantų variantų variantų variantų, sutinku", 3 − "nei sutinku, nei nesuti "sutinku", 5 − "visiškai sutinku".		٠		kite	
	1	2	3	4	5
Mano darbinė veikla man padeda suprasti skirtingas nuomones ir tai man padeda būti geresniu šeimos nariu.	0	0			0
Mano darbinė veikla man suteikia žinių, kurios man padeda būti geresniu šeimos nariu.	0				
Mano darbinė veikla man suteikia įgūdžių, kurie man padeda būti geresniu šeimos nariu.	0	0	0	0	0
Mano darbas man pakelia nuotaiką ir tai man padeda būti geresniu šeimos nariu.	0				
Dėl savo darbo aš jaučiuosi laimingas (-a) ir tai man padeda būti geresniu šeimos nariu.	0	0		0	0
Mano darbas mane pralinksmina ir tai man padeda būti geresniu šeimos nariu.					
Mano darbas man suteikia asmeninį pasitenkinimą ir tai man padeda būti geresniu šeimos nariu.	0		0	0	
Mano darbas man suteikia jausmą, jog esu kažką pasiekęs (-usi), ir tai man padeda būti geresniu šeimos nariu.	0			0	
Dėl savo pasiekimų darbe aš jaučiuosi sėkmingas (-a) ir tai man padeda būti geresniu šeimos nariu.	0	0	0	0	0
Ar Jūsų darbovietė Jums siūlo lanksčius lanksčius darbo organizavimo sprendir Pavyzdžiui: • nėra nustatytas griežtas darbo dienos pradžios laikas ar Jums buvo pasirinkti, kokiu laiku pradėsite darbą; • Jūsų darbovietė suteikia galimybę (kardirbti iš namų ar kitos lokacijos;	o su	teikt			
1.					
Kokias lankstaus darbo organizavimo galimybes suteikia Jūsų darbdavys? Galite pasirinkti kelis atsakymo variantus.					
1. Nesuteikia.					

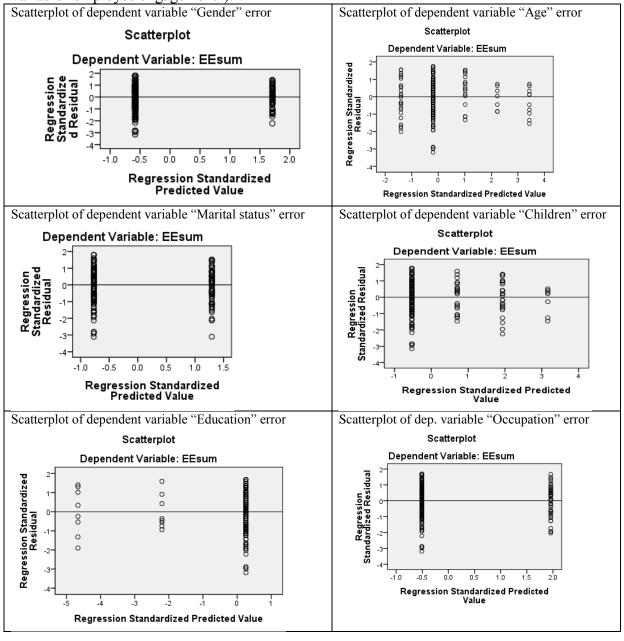
2. Lankstaus darbo grafiko (nėra nustatyto griežto darbo laiko ar laiką galite pasirinkti 3. lanksti darbo vieta (kartais ar nuolatos galite dirbti ne iš biuro) 4. Kitas variantas. Pakomentuo Jūsų lytis: Moteris 2. Vyras Jūsų amžius: Iki 18 m. 2. □ 18 – 24 m. 3.  $\bigcirc$  25 – 34 m. 4. 35 – 44 m. 5. 45 - 54 m. 6. 55 metai ir daugiau Jūsų išsilavinimas: 1. Vidurinis 2. Profesinis 3. Aukštasis Jūsų šeimyninė padėtis: Vedęs/ištekėjusi 2. Nevedęs / netekėjusi Vaikų skaičius:

Siųsti atsakymą

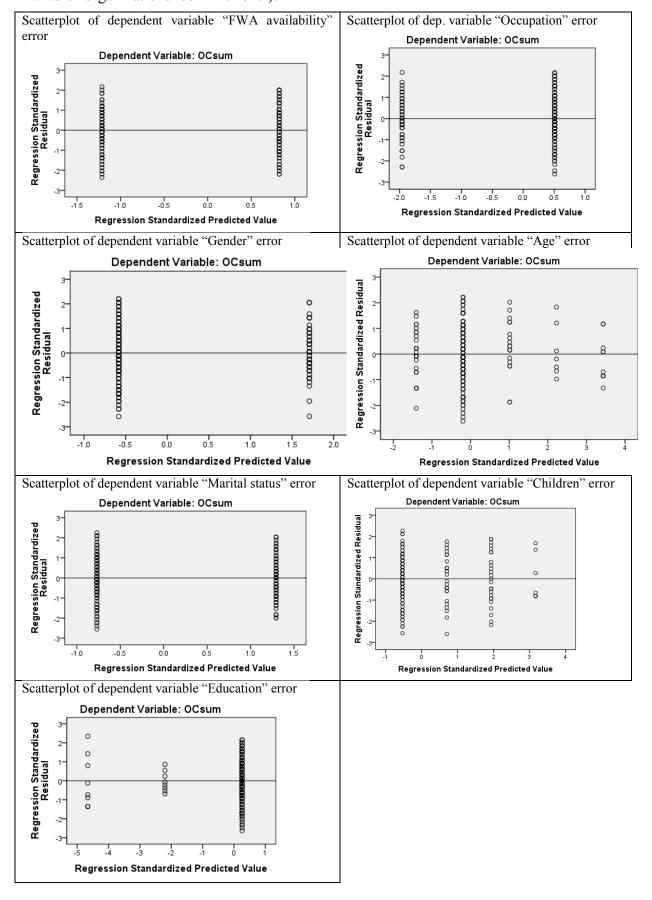
Neturiu vaikų
 Turiu 1 vaiką
 Turiu 2 vaikus

4. Turiu 3 ir daugiau vaikų

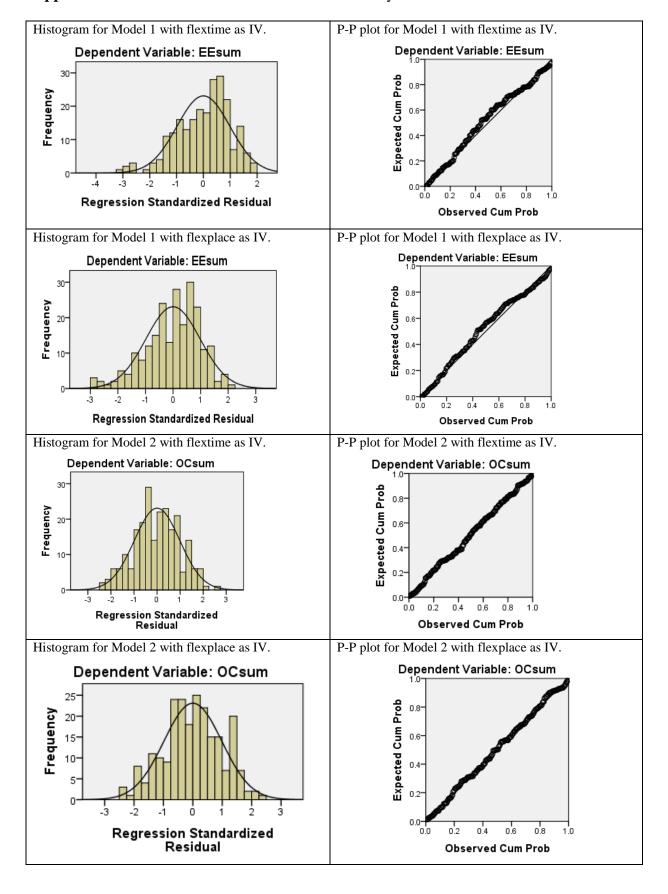
**Appendix C.** Scatter plots for homoscedasticity and linearity for Model 1 (dependent variable "employee engagement").



**Appendix D.** Scatter plots for homoscedasticity and linearity for Model 2 (dependent variable "organizational commitment").



**Appendix E.** Assessment of error distribution normality.



**Appendix F.** Normality test for dependent variable employee engagement. The scores are not normally distributed many of the p values are below 0.05

		Sh	apiro-Wilk	
Variable	Values of variable	Statistic	df	Sig. (p value)
Flextime	Not available	.970	124	.008
	Available	.955	104	.002
Flexplace	Not available	.967	140	.002
	Available	.957	88	.005
Gender (1 for female)	Male	.966	58	.105
	Female	.964	170	.000
Age	18 to 24 y.o.	.956	25	.334
	25 to 34 y.o.	.957	168	.000
	35 to 44 y.o.	.898	18	.053
	45 to 54 y.o.	.893	7	.292
	55 y.o. and more	.930	10	.449
Education	Secondary education	.934	8	.552
	Vocational education	.887	8	.220
	University or college education	.960	212	.000
Children	No children	.960	170	.000
	One child	.960	170	.000
	Two children	.939	25	.144
	Three or more	.939	26	.128
Occup (1 for work)	children			
Occup (1 for work)	Employed and studying	.962	47	.126
	Employed	.961	181	.000
Marital status (0 if married)	Married	.960	85	.010
	Not married	.964	143	.001

**Appendix G.** Normality test for dependent variable organizational commitment. The scores are normally distributed all of the p values are above 0.05

		Sha	piro-Wilk	
Variable	Values of variable	Statistic	df	Sig. (p value)
Flextime	Not available	.990	124	.507
	Available	.978	104	.084
Flexplace	Not available	.988	140	.259
	Available	.978	88	.136
Gender (1 for female)	Male	.979	58	.421
	Female	.989	170	.185
Age	18 to 24 y.o.	.969	25	.608
	25 to 34 y.o.	.989	168	.226
	35 to 44 y.o.	.949	18	.405
	45 to 54 y.o.	.900	7	.333
	55 y.o. and more	.889	10	.166
Education	Secondary education	.902	8	.299
	Vocational education	.952	8	.731
	University or college education	.988	212	.065
Children	No children	.988	170	.154
	One child	.974	25	.738
	Two children	.959	26	.367
	Three or more children	.781	7	.027
Occup (1 for work)	Employed and studying	.985	47	.812
	Employed	.988	181	.128
Marital status (0 if married)	Married	.977	85	.134
	Not married	.986	143	.148

**Appendix H.** Spearman's rho correlations for Model 1.

	<b>x II.</b> Spean	Flextime	Flexplace	Gender (1 for female)	Age	Education	Children	Occup (1 for work)	Marital status (0 if married)	EEsum
Flextime	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.377**	153*	032	022	035	056	.050	.266**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.021	.626	.744	.603	.402	.448	.000
Flexplace	Correlation Coefficient	.377**	1.000	323**	021	033	035	108	.034	.322**
riexpiace	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.757	.623	.598	.103	.613	.000
Gender (1 for	Correlation Coefficient	153*	323**	1.000	.009	.236**	.032	.051	034	146*
female)	Sig. (2-tailed)	.021	.000		.896	.000	.628	.445	.612	.028
Age	Correlation Coefficient	032	021	.009	1.000	.154*	.553**	.294**	379**	.197**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.626	.757	.896		.020	.000	.000	.000	.003
Education	Correlation Coefficient	022	033	.236**	.154*	1.000	030	.161*	.033	.014
Education	Sig. (2-tailed)	.744	.623	.000	.020		.655	.015	.620	.836
Children	Correlation Coefficient	035	035	.032	.553**	030	1.000	.157*	609**	.154*
Ciliaren	Sig. (2-tailed)	.603	.598	.628	.000	.655		.018	.000	.020
Occup (1	Correlation Coefficient	056	108	.051	.294**	.161*	.157*	1.000	124	.000
for work)	Sig. (2-tailed)	.402	.103	.445	.000	.015	.018		.062	.999
Marital	Correlation Coefficient	.050	.034	034	.379**	.033	609**	124	1.000	139*
status (0 if married)	Sig. (2-tailed)	.448	.613	.612	.000	.620	.000	.062		.036
EEsum	Correlation Coefficient	.266**	.322**	146*	.197**	.014	.154*	.000	139*	1.000
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.028	.003	.836	.020	.999	.036	

<sup>\*\*.</sup> Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Appendix I.** Correlations for Model 2.

# Correlations

		Flextime	Flexplace	Gender (1 for female)	Age	Education	Children	Occup (1 for work)	Marital status (0 if married)	OCsum
Flextime	Pearson Correlation	1	.377**	153*	063	001	040	056	.050	.235**
Plexume	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.021	.345	.986	.546	.402	.448	.000
Flexplace	Pearson Correlation	.377**	1	323**	047	061	009	108	.034	.293**
Техріасс	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.482	.361	.891	.103	.613	.000
Gender (1 for	Pearson Correlation	153*	323**	1	007	.246**	.012	.051	034	064
female)	Sig. (2-tailed)	.021	.000		.914	.000	.862	.445	.612	.337
Age	Pearson Correlation	063	047	007	1	.117	.624**	.232**	365**	.157*
1190	Sig. (2-tailed)	.345	.482	.914		.079	.000	.000	.000	.018
Education	Pearson Correlation	001	061	.246**	.117	1	.018	.189**	.001	.039
Education	Sig. (2-tailed)	.986	.361	.000	.079		.792	.004	.986	.553
Children	Pearson Correlation	040	009	.012	.624**	.018	1	.163*	565**	.157*
Cinitaren	Sig. (2-tailed)	.546	.891	.862	.000	.792		.014	.000	.018
Occup (1 for	Pearson Correlation	056	108	.051	.232**	.189**	.163*	1	124	.009
work)	Sig. (2-tailed)	.402	.103	.445	.000	.004	.014		.062	.896
Marital status (0		.050	.034	034	.365**	.001	565**	124	1	106
if married)	Sig. (2-tailed)	.448	.613	.612	.000	.986	.000	.062		.111
OCsum	Pearson Correlation	.235**	.293**	064	.157*	.039	.157*	.009	106	1
OCSUIII	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.337	.018	.553	.018	.896	.111	

<sup>\*\*.</sup> Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Appendix J**. VIF tests for Model 1 and 2.

	Coefficientsa				Coefficients <sup>a</sup>			
Model		(	Collinearity Statistics VIF		Model	Collinearity Statistics VIF		
Gender (1 for female)  Age Education  Children Occup (1 for work) Marital status (0 if married) Flextime  a. Dependent Variable: EEsum			1.097 1.715 1.120 2.092 1.092 1.474 1.033		Gender (1 for female)  Age Education Children 1 Occup (1 for work) Marital status (0 if married) Flexplace a. Dependent Variable: EEsum	1.192 1.715 1.120 2.095 1.100 1.474		
	Coefficientsa				Coefficients <sup>a</sup>			
Model			Collinearity Statistics VIF		Model	Collinearity Statistics VIF		
1	Gender (1 for female)  Age Education Children Occup (1 for work) Marital status (0 if married) Flextime  dent Variable: OCsum		1.097 1.715 1.120 2.092 1.092 1.474 1.033		Gender (1 for female)  Age Education Children Occup (1 for work) Marital status (0 if married) Flexplace	1.192 1.713 1.120 2.093 1.100 1.474		
a. Deper	ndent Variable: OCsum				a. Dependent Variable: OCsum	1.13		

**Appendix K.** Statistics for hierarchical regression where the availability of flextime is independent variable and commitment is dependent variable.

Variables Entered/Removed<sup>a</sup>

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Flextime <sup>b</sup>		Enter
			Stepwise
			(Criteria:
			Probability-of-F-
2	Age		to-enter <= .050,
			Probability-of-F-
			to-remove >=
			.100).

a. Dependent Variable: OCsum

b. All requested variables entered.

**Model Summary** 

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R	Std. Error of	Change Statistics						
			Square	the Estimate	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig. F		
					Change	Change			Change		
1	.235a	.055	.051	6.31260	.055	13.252	1	226	.000		
2	.291b	.085	.077	6.22682	.030	7.270	1	225	.008		

a. Predictors: (Constant), Flextime

b. Predictors: (Constant), Flextime, Age

Coefficientsa

Mode	el	Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.	95.0% Confide	nce Interval for
	Coefficients		cients	Coefficients			В	
		В	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	24.589	.567		43.375	.000	23.472	25.706
1	Flextime	3.056	.839	.235	3.640	.000	1.402	4.709
	(Constant)	20.252	1.703		11.892	.000	16.896	23.608
2	Flextime	3.196	.830	.246	3.852	.000	1.561	4.831
	Age	1.351	.501	.172	2.696	.008	.364	2.339

a. Dependent Variable: OCsum

**Appendix L.** Statistics for hierarchical regression where the availability of flexplace is independent variable and commitment is dependent variable.

Variables Entered/Removeda

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Flexplace <sup>b</sup>		Enter
2	Age		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to- enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to- remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: OCsumb. All requested variables entered.

**Model Summary** 

	Hivaer Summary								
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R	Std. Error of	Change Statistics				
			Square	the Estimate	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig. F
					Change	Change			Change
1	.293ª	.086	.082	6.20931	.086	21.278	1	226	.000
2	.339b	.115	.107	6.12304	.029	7.413	1	225	.007

a. Predictors: (Constant), Flexplaceb. Predictors: (Constant), Flexplace, Age

Coefficientsa

Model Unstandardized		lardized	Standardized	t	Sig.	95.0% Confide	nce Interval for	
		Coeff	cients	Coefficients		C	В	
		В	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	(Constant)	24.479	.525		46.645	.000	23.444	25.513
1	Flexplace	3.896	.845	.293	4.613	.000	2.232	5.561
	(Constant)	20.198	1.655		12.204	.000	16.937	23.460
2	Flexplace	4.003	.834	.301	4.800	.000	2.359	5.646
	Age	1.341	.492	.171	2.723	.007	.370	2.311

a. Dependent Variable: OCsum

**Appendix M.** Statistics for regression where availability of flextime is independent variable and work-to-family enrichment is dependent variable.

**Model Summary** 

_	1.10401 541111141 9								
M	Iodel	R	R Square	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the				
				Square	Estimate				
1		.209ª	.044	.040	7.91996				

a. Predictors: (Constant), Flextime

### $ANOVA^{a} \\$

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	649.134	1	649.134	10.349	.001 <sup>b</sup>
1	Residual	14176.006	226	62.726		
	Total	14825.140	227			

a. Dependent Variable: WtFEsumb. Predictors: (Constant), Flextime

### Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

	Coefficients							
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.		
		В	Std. Error	Beta				
1	(Constant)	27.516	.711		38.688	.000		
1	Flextime	3.388	1.053	.209	3.217	.001		

a. Dependent Variable: WtFEsum

**Appendix N**. Statistics for regression where availability of flexplace is independent variable and work-to-family enrichment is dependent variable.

**Model Summary** 

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the
			Square	Estimate
1	.253ª	.064	.060	7.83539

a. Predictors: (Constant), Flexplace

## **ANOVA**<sup>a</sup>

Mode	el	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	950.234	1	950.234	15.478	.000b
1	Residual	13874.906	226	61.393		
	Total	14825.140	227			

a. Dependent Variable: WtFEsumb. Predictors: (Constant), Flexplace

#### Coefficientsa

	Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	
		В	Std. Error	Beta			
1	(Constant)	27.443	.662		41.441	.000	
1	Flexplace	4.194	1.066	.253	3.934	.000	

a. Dependent Variable: WtFEsum

**Appendix O.** Statistics for regression where the work-to-family enrichment is independent variable and employee engagement is dependent variable

**Model Summary** 

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the
			Square	Estimate
1	.700a	.490	.487	7.34369

a. Predictors: (Constant), WtFEsum

**ANOVA**<sup>a</sup>

			III IO VII			
Mod	lel	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	11696.545	1	11696.545	216.885	.000b
1	Residual	12188.135	226	53.930		
	Total	23884.680	227			

a. Dependent Variable: EEsum

b. Predictors: (Constant), WtFEsum

Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

_		Coefficients							
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.			
		В	Std. Error	Beta					
ľ	(Constant)	19.954	1.819		10.970	.000			
	WtFEsum	.888	.060	.700	14.727	.000			

a. Dependent Variable: EEsum

**Appendix P.** Statistics for regression where the work-to-family enrichment is independent variable and organizational commitment is dependent variable

**Model Summary** 

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the
			Square	Estimate
1	.520a	.270	.267	5.54847

a. Predictors: (Constant), WtFEsum

**ANOVA**<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	2576.396	1	2576.396	83.689	.000 <sup>b</sup>
1	Residual	6957.534	226	30.786		
	Total	9533.930	227			

a. Dependent Variable: OCsumb. Predictors: (Constant), WtFEsum

Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

Ν	Model	Unstandardize	ed Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		В	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	13.867	1.374		10.090	.000
_	WtFEsum	.417	.046	.520	9.148	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OCsum

**Appendix Q**. Statistics for regression where the work-to-family enrichment and availability of flextime are independent variables and employee engagement is dependent variable.

**Model Summary** 

ľ	Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the
L				Square	Estimate
	1	.709ª	.503	.498	7.26507

a. Predictors: (Constant), Flextime, WtFEsum

**ANOVA**<sup>a</sup>

Mod	lel	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	12008.905	2	6004.452	113.761	.000b
1	Residual	11875.775	225	52.781		
	Total	23884.680	227			

a. Dependent Variable: EEsum

b. Predictors: (Constant), Flextime, WtFEsum

Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

_						
Model		Unstandardize	ed Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		В	Std. Error	Beta		
I	(Constant)	19.761	1.801		10.970	.000
	1 WtFEsum	.857	.061	.675	14.048	.000
	Flextime	2.403	.988	.117	2.433	.016

a. Dependent Variable: EEsum

**Appendix R.** Statistics for regression where the work-to-family enrichment and availability of flexplace are independent variables and employee engagement is dependent variable.

**Model Summary** 

			•	
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the
			Square	Estimate
1	.714ª	.510	.506	7.21288

a. Predictors: (Constant), Flexplace, WtFEsum

ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	12178.902	2	6089.451	117.047	.000 <sup>b</sup>
1	Residual	11705.777	225	52.026		
	Total	23884.680	227			

a. Dependent Variable: EEsum

b. Predictors: (Constant), Flexplace, WtFEsum

Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

_						
Model		Unstandardize	ed Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
L		В	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	20.134	1.788		11.263	.000
	1 WtFEsum	.841	.061	.663	13.735	.000
	Flexplace	3.088	1.014	.147	3.045	.003

a. Dependent Variable: EEsum

**Appendix S.** Statistics for regression where the work-to-family enrichment and availability of flextime are independent variables and organizational commitment is dependent variable.

**Model Summary** 

Mode	el	R	R Square	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the
				Square	Estimate
1		.536ª	.287	.281	5.49659

a. Predictors: (Constant), Flextime, WtFEsum

ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	2736.124	2	1368.062	45.281	.000 <sup>b</sup>
1	Residual	6797.806	225	30.212		
	Total	9533.930	227			

a. Dependent Variable: OCsum

b. Predictors: (Constant), Flextime, WtFEsum

Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

Model		Unstandardize	ed Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		В	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	13.729	1.363		10.074	.000
	1 WtFEsum	.395	.046	.492	8.549	.000
	Flextime	1.719	.747	.132	2.299	.022

a. Dependent Variable: OCsum

**Appendix T.** Statistics for regression where the work-to-family enrichment and availability of flexplace are independent variables and organizational commitment is dependent variable.

Variables Entered/Removeda

Model	Variables Entered	Variables	Method
		Removed	
1	Flexplace, WtFEsum <sup>b</sup>		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: OCsum

b. All requested variables entered.

**Model Summary** 

wiodei Summai y										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the						
			Square	Estimate						
1	.546a	.298	.292	5.45327						

a. Predictors: (Constant), Flexplace, WtFEsum

Coefficientsa

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.			
		В	Std. Error	Beta					
	(Constant)	14.001	1.352		10.360	.000			
1	WtFEsum	.382	.046	.476	8.247	.000			
	Flexplace	2.295	.767	.173	2.993	.003			

a. Dependent Variable: OCsum