

Leader prototypicality moderates the relation between access to flexible work options and employee feelings of respect and leader endorsement

Satu Koivisto^a and Ronald E. Rice^b

^aDepartment of Industrial Engineering and Management, Work Psychology & Leadership, School of Science, Aalto University, Aalto, Finland; ^bDepartment of Communication, 4005 Social Sciences & Media Studies Bldg (SSMS) University of California, Santa Barbara, CA, USA

ABSTRACT

Organizations are increasingly offering flexible work arrangements (FWA), which are associated with a variety of individual and organizational outcomes. Supervisors may support, discourage or prohibit employees' access to and use of such programs. These actions and decisions can affect employees' feelings of being respected, and their endorsement of their supervisor – that is, matters that affect employees' motivation to work in pursuit of group and organizational goals. In the present paper, we take a fresh look at these relationships by proposing, in line with the social identity approach, that they are moderated by leader in-group prototypicality (i.e. the supervisor's representativeness of group identity). Results from two large sample surveys a year apart at one organization show that employees with supervisors who allow more FWA feel more respected as well as express stronger endorsement of their leaders. Importantly, both of those relationships are moderated by the degree of the supervisor's in-group prototypicality, but in opposite ways. The association of FWA allowance with respect increases slightly under conditions of higher prototypicality. However, the association of FWA allowance with endorsement of leaders increases more strongly under conditions of lower prototypicality. The discussion considers theoretical, practical and research implications of these findings.

KEYWORDS

Flexible work arrangements (FWA); leader endorsement; leader in-group prototypicality; respect; social identity model of organizational leadership (SIMOL); social identity theory

Considerable human resources management (HRM) literature explores the role of supervisors in general on shaping HRM activities, as well in mediating between organizational policies and employees (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Thatcher & Bagger, 2011). The fundamental argument is that supervisors shape employees' ability, motivation, opportunities and reactions to HR policies (Purcell & Hutchinson,

2007). The supervisor's mediating role constitutes the "black box" linking HRM and performance' (Knies & Leisink, 2014, p. 58). Supervisors act as agents in implementing HRM practices and thus influence how employees interpret and respond to organizational HRM policies and programs. In this general research approach, supervisors not only implement (positively or negatively) HR policies, but also communicate organizational support (or lack of it) for employees through the implementation of those policies.

This study can be seen as part of that broad research issue: We consider how a supervisor's allowance of organizational flexible work arrangements (FWA) to subordinates relates to employees' feelings of respect and leader endorsement. Both respect and leader endorsement are crucially important for groups' effective functioning (e.g. Haslam, Reicher, & Platow, 2013; Tyler & Blader, 2000) – without them, groups face severe problems as pivotal phenomena such as exceeding role requirements, helping co-workers and improving and developing the way of working depend on these (e.g. Koivisto & Lipponen, 2015).

Stavrou (2005) argues that HRM programs need to match industry, market and societal changes by fostering more organizational flexibility, especially FWA. De Menezes and Kelliher (2011) note that FWA can be considered as part of HRM practices in the general stream of research on HRM and performance.

However, our main contribution is viewing the relationship between leader's FWA decisions and the two selected outcomes from the social identity approach (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987) and examining whether they are moderated by leader in-group prototypicality (Hogg, 2001). As far as we know, this is the first time this prominent approach has been applied to research on FWA and possibly in the HRM literature. We begin by reviewing research on FWAs and particularly supervisors' role in them, then introduce the social identity approach and then turn to the study.

Flexible work arrangements and supervisory influence

Flexible work arrangements

Recent years have witnessed a substantial increase in the use of FWA, which 'permit employees some level of control over when and where they work outside of the standard workday' (Lambert, Marler, & Gueutal, 2008, p. 107). These arrangements include part-time work, flextime, compressed work week, telework and telecommuting, among others (Kossek & Michel, 2010).

FWA can provide many positive as well as negative implications for health, work–family balance, worker engagement, job satisfaction, performance, commitment, turnover intentions and absenteeism (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Stavrou's (2005) analysis of responses from the top HRM manager in over 2000 companies from 14 EU member states looked at how 4 'bundles' of FWA were associated with 3 organizational

performance measures. The 'non-standard work patterns' bundle was related to decreased turnover in the private sector; the 'work away from the office' cluster was related to improved performance and reduced absenteeism; the 'non-standard work hours' group was related to increased staff turnover; and the 'work outsourced' category was associated with increased staff turnover (but only in the public sector). However, none of the four regressions explained more than 6% of the variance. De Menezes and Kelliher (2011) systematically reviewed (based on 900 academic database search combinations and additional Google searches) 148 publications from 1970 to 2009 assessing the 'business case' for FWAs. The most frequent support was for improvements in absenteeism (61% of the relevant studies supportive), job satisfaction (57%), turnover or retention (46%), financial indicators or productivity (44%), organizational commitment (41%), health or well-being (32%) and individual performance or productivity (31%). Almost all the remaining studies found no support, with only three total finding negative associations. The review discussed results within each FWA category, and identified contingent relationships, such as worker or organization characteristics. However, it did not report any contingencies related to supervisory allowance of FWA.

More employees are using more FWA. For example, a 2008 survey of US organizations with at least 50 employees found a range of FWAs, from flexible schedules (79%) to job shares (29%) (Galinsky, Bond, & Sakai, 2008). In a US representative sample, nearly half of working American adults engaged in at least some supplemental (i.e. not substituting for office work and not contracted telework) work at home using ICT tools (Madden & Jones, 2008). Generally, employees view access to FWA as something desirable (e.g. Solnet, Kralj, & Kandampully, 2012). For example, one study revealed that gratitude to employers for accommodating flexible working arrangements was a dominant discourse among people using FWA (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). According to the Flexible Work Arrangements factsheet (Flexible work arrangements: The fact sheet, 2010), 80% of US workers indicated preferences for more flexible work options, particularly if they weren't associated with negative implications at work.

However, these figures also reveal that many employees do not have access to, or do not use, FWA due to policy, organizational and (our primary concern) supervisory factors. A 2014 web survey of 400,000 US Federal employees (46.8% response) (United States Office of Personnel Management, 2014) revealed that 29% of the sample participated in telework, while 57% did not because of barriers. A third of the sample used alternative work schedules, with 22% reporting that the option was not available to them. Golden (2001) noted the large inequality in access to FWA, as 73% of US workforce did not have access, due to demographic, work and job characteristics (see also Swanberg, Pitt-Catsouphes, & Drescher-Burke, 2005). FWA policy use is often determined by business needs and supervisor choice, criteria such as organizational tenure or full-time work, organizational stratification and norms, and legal and economic 'opportunity structures', leading

to considerable variation in adoption within even one organization (Kossek, Lewis, & Hammer, 2010; Lambort & Haley-Lock, 2004; Swanberg et al., 2005). As a specific example, scheduling control may be available through formal flexwork policies, employee–supervisor negotiation and informal supervisor practices (Henly, Shaefer, & Waxman, 2006). Inconsistencies in results about outcomes of FWA may thus be partially explained by variations in implementation, which can reduce, reinforce or create barriers (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). In particular, we consider supervisors’ influence on FWA use.

Supervisors’ influence on FWA use

The effectiveness and efficiency of FWA-policies depends largely on whether or not the immediate supervisor is supportive of these arrangements (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Eaton, 2003; Leslie, Park, & Mehng, 2012). For example, numerous studies show that supervisors who support FWA promote employees’ work–life balance (e.g. Batt & Valcour, 2003; Bowen, 1998). Supervisors, in particular, have considerable influence on work–family policies by having final approval, deciding how to allocate training and other employees to balance workload, publicizing policies, shaping norms about them, affecting ease of policy use, clarifying roles, monitoring workload and preventing co-worker jealousy (Golden, 2001; Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Implementation of FWA is often made on a case-by-case, idiosyncratic and informal basis (Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2008). These discretionary decisions may be based on the supervisor’s prior experiences with and personal beliefs about work–family balance, such as negatively assessing requests for work flexibility as a sign of low organizational commitment (Rodgers, 1992).

Even when available, FWA may be underused, partially due to supervisor-related factors, such as lack of supervisory support (Batt & Valcour, 2003). Supervisors may discourage employees from using formal FWA by implementing penalties on their use (e.g. hampering flexible workers’ career success or cutting out pay raises; Batt & Valcour, 2003; Leslie et al., 2012). Supervisors may be reluctant to allow their subordinates to work remotely or during non-formal work hours (e.g. Thatcher & Bagger, 2011), for example because they fear losing control (Clear & Dickson, 2005), or have doubts about subordinates’ abilities to work away from the office.

Supervisory ‘discretion’ may consist more of implicit biases and discrimination than an informal but still objective evaluation of the employee or task needs. Supervisors make different kinds of attributions for the reasons why employees want to utilize FWA (Leslie et al., 2012). Whether they think that an employee wishes to work flexibly to increase productivity (e.g. having international calls during non-standard work hours), or for personal reasons (e.g. structuring work around childcare) influences supervisors’ willingness to allow an individual to use FWA. For example, in a scenario-based experiment, managers’ dispositions toward an employee’s request for a FWA, or the granting of the request, were very

substantially influenced by indicators of disruption to the work and thus increased effort for the supervisor (Powell & Mainiero, 1999). Another scenario analysis found that participants perceived female users of flexible scheduling, compared to those working regular hours, as less dedicated to their job/career and less motivated by advancement, even though there was no difference in perceived capability. However, supervisors may also mitigate unsupportive organizational norms by making it clear that the use of FWA will not cause negative consequences for employees (Batt & Valcour, 2003), or by providing access to FWA beyond formal organizational policies. Overall, these incongruencies between official FWA policies, supervisory behavior and employee use represent another instance of the more general gaps between intended, implemented and used HR practices (Khilji & Wang, 2006). In sum, many workers are denied, or gain, access to FWA through their immediate supervisors.

Contributions of this study

The present research concentrates on immediate supervisors' allowance of access to FWA, and subsequent direct and moderated influences of that allowance on employee and supervisor social identity implications. Prior empirical research in the area of FWA has mostly concentrated on increasing our understanding of the effects of flexwork use (as briefly noted above). Here, we suggest that a supervisor's decisions on employees' access to FWA may have implications for both employee- and leader-related identity issues – a sense of being respected, and leader endorsement. Further, we suggest that beyond direct effects of supervisor allowance of FWA, there may be subtle moderating effects of supervisory prototypicality. Theoretically, this study extends and tests the social identity model of leadership (see below) in the new context of FWA. Practically, the study provides some insight into the social contexts of supervisory decisions about FWA.

Theoretical foundations: subordinate and supervisor social identity and leader in-group prototypicality

Social identity model of organizational leadership

We ground our work in the social identity approach (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner et al., 1987), particularly the Social identity model of organizational leadership (SIMOL; Haslam et al., 2013; Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). This theoretical approach focuses on factors that give supervisors authority in the eyes of their followers, particularly as it concerns subordinate- and leader-related identity issues.

The social identity approach integrates social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and self-categorization theory (Turner et al., 1987). Its core presumption is that salient group membership shapes attitudes, feelings and behavior. When

belonging to a salient group, people develop a social identity. They start to define themselves not only in terms of personal identity and relationships, but also in terms of social identity, based upon group salience, one's membership and an in-group prototype.

An in-group prototype is a constructed and subjective representation of characteristics (e.g. attitudes, values, norms, beliefs, manners, goals and behavior) that describe and prescribe what the group is and what it is not (Haslam et al., 2013). Members actively monitor the group in its context and notice even subtle signs in how prototypical their supervisor is. As a result, some supervisors are perceived as more prototypical than others (Hogg, 2001).

Supervisor's decisions on employees' FWA use and group members' feelings of respect: moderating role of leader in-group prototypicality

A central prediction from the social identity approach is that people strive for favorable self-definitions and want to feel that they are valued members of their groups (Tyler & Blader, 2000). They use interactions and dealings with other group members as sources of identity-related information such as their self-worth and standing (respect) within the group (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Group members assess treatment and outcomes received from their supervisor to make inferences about their own standing (e.g. Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Lind, 1992). When a supervisor rewards an employee with desired outcomes, he/she likely attributes the treatment received to one's own behavior and infers oneself to be a respected member of the group. When the treatment by a group authority does not seem fair and/or favorable to an individual, he/she is likely to conclude that he/she is not a particularly respected member of the group (Tyler & Blader, 2000; Tyler & Lind, 1992). From this perspective, a supervisor's FWA allowance carries an important symbolic message. It signals that the group member is worthy of being allowed to use the desired benefit of FWA, and that his/her standing within the group is secured.

Thus, *H1a*: A supervisor's allowance of a subordinates' access to FWA is positively related to subordinates' feelings of being respected.

SIMOL proposes that the extent to which the supervisor's decisions and behavior influence group members' identity-related inferences is to some extent contingent upon the supervisor's in-group prototypicality. Supervisors who are able to represent what is common to the group are likely to have more influence than non-prototypical leaders over group members' identity-related attitudes, emotions and behaviors (e.g. van Knippenberg, 2011; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003).

This is because, in salient groups, prototypicality is the basis of perception and evaluation of self and other group members (Hogg, 2001). An in-group prototypical supervisor's behavior informs an individual not only about supervisor's, but also about other group members' opinions and attitudes towards him/her (Tyler & Lind, 1992). Thus, if this kind of leader allows a certain member access to FWA, this member can consider himself/herself to be valued by the whole group. On the

other hand, if the in-group prototypical leader denies access to FWA, the member can see himself/herself as devalued by the entire group (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992). A non-prototypical leader's FWA-decision is not expected to have such a prominent effect, since a non-prototypical leader does not represent the views of a group that is important for one's social identity.

Thus, *H1b*: The relationship between supervisory allowance of FWA and one's sense of being respected is stronger when the supervisor is perceived to be more prototypical.

Supervisor's decisions on employees' FWA use and leader endorsement: moderating role of leader in-group prototypicality

A supervisor's allowance of subordinates' FWA use is also likely to affect subordinates' attitudes towards the leader. Generally, and not surprisingly, leaders who perform well are evaluated more positively by subordinates on a variety of attributes that may not be related to the performance (Giessner, van Knippenberg, & Sleebos, 2009). These associated evaluations reflect what Meindl and Ehrlich (1987) referred to as the 'romance of leadership'. Further, according to leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, social, attitudinal and material resources are exchanged in leader-employee relationships to maintain equity (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In exchange, employees may express their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the leader's decision by increasing or decreasing their endorsement (Wit & Wilke, 1988). For example, in high-quality LMX relations, the leader provides more resources – above formal or contractual levels – to favored subordinates, increasing their sense of autonomy, responsibility, well-being, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship and work performance (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003; Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999).

Thus, *H2a*: A supervisor's allowance of subordinates' access to FWA is positively related to subordinates' leader endorsement.

Van Knippenberg & Hogg (2003) note that LMX theory emphasizes the leader-subordinate dyadic relationship, ignoring broader social influence factors such as leader prototypicality or group identification. Instead, SIMOL predicts that the extent to which the supervisor is in-group prototypical is likely to moderate members' interpretations of and reactions to the supervisor's decisions (Haslam et al., 2013).

Importantly, for our study, SIMOL proposes that prototypical leaders are less stringently evaluated than non-prototypical leaders, and thus, they get more leeway in making also unfavorable decisions. This fundamental presumption of SIMOL builds on two classical notions. The first is Hollander's (1964) idiosyncrasy credit theory, which proposes that highly normative leaders who have earned credit within the group are allowed to behave non-normatively without negative consequences (up to a point). Unlike Hollander's conceptualization of credits as being earned through social exchange relationships, SIMOL presumes such

credits result from being representative (i.e. prototypical) of the group (Giessner et al., 2009). The second is Sherif and Sherif's (1964) demonstration that leaders who are respected, legitimate and group-oriented receive more leeway within their groups. In-group prototypical leaders are viewed as such (Hogg, 2001). They thus have more leverage in influencing group members' inferences, attitudes and behavior (Haslam et al., 2013; van Quaquebeke & Eckloff, 2013). One mechanism for this relationship is that more prototypical leaders foster greater trust. They are trusted to make decisions that in the end benefit the group and its individual members, even if their decisions and behavior would seem unfavorable (Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001), or ineffective (Giessner et al., 2009).

As a consequence, prototypical leaders are at least somewhat endorsed by in-group members simply on the basis of that in-group prototypicality (Hogg, 2001). In practice, this implies that compared to less prototypical supervisors, in-group prototypical supervisors' effectiveness and endorsement is *less* contingent upon their actual decisions or behavior (Giessner et al., 2009). This allows leaders to make decisions and engage in behaviors that may be counter-normative or against subordinate preferences (up to a point) without losing subordinates' endorsement. In comparison, non-prototypical leaders have to earn their endorsement by engaging in group-oriented and member-serving decisions and behavior.

Thus, *H2b*: The relationship between supervisory allowance of FWA and leader endorsement is weaker when the group leader is perceived to be more prototypical.

Method

Sampling and procedures

We conducted a survey in the spring of 2013 and again in the spring of 2014 in a Finnish telecommunication company. We chose this setting because of the known flexible work programs offered by the company and its long history of utilizing FWA. The entire organizational membership working at the company headquarters ($N = 1538$ at T1, $N = 1447$ at T2) was emailed an invitation with a short introduction of the online survey, a link to the company's intranet site explaining the study in detail and the link to the survey. Eight hundred and thirty-seven usable responses were received at T1 (response rate 54%), and 735 at T2 (50.1%). We focus on the T1 responses, using T2 as a replication to assess the reliability of the results. The T1 and T2 samples are not, however, completely independent, as nearly half of the respondents were the same.

Measures

Both surveys included the following measures. All of the scales exhibited unidimensionality (via principal components analysis; table available from the author) and good reliability (from .80 to .94; see Table 1 below).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations between variables, T1 and T2.

Variable	M	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
T1 (N = 827-833)												
1. Supervisor's allowance of FWA use (a)	5.3	1.3	.82	-								
2. Leader in-group prototypicality (a)	4.8	1.3	.94	.21 ***	-							
3. Respect (a)	5.4	.80	.91	.21 ***	.22 ***	-						
4. Leader endorsement (a)	5.5	1.2	.93	.43 ***	.36 ***	.34 ***	-					
5. Desire for FWA use (b)	4.9	1.3	.80	.20 ***	.00	.07 *	-.04	-				
6. Interaction centered 1 & 2	0.3	1.8	-	-.20 ***	-.07 *	.03	-.30 ***	.07 *	-			
7. Age < 30 4.4%; 31-40 29.0%; 41-50 38.4%; 51-60 24.0; > 60 4.2	2.9	.94	-	-.06	-.01	-.08 *	.04	-.22 **	-.02	-		
8. Sex m 60.5%; f 39.5	.40	.49	-	-.11 **	.05	.05	.03	-.08 *	.02	.08 *	-	
9. Tenure	15.6	9.6	-	-.09 *	.01	-.07	.05	-.22 **	-.04	.70 **	.08 *	-
10. Education elementary 2.4%; upper secondary or vocational 27.5; university applied sciences 35.9; university 34.3	3.0	.85	-	.14 **	-.03	.08 *	.01	.06	-.02	-.12 **	-.12 **	-.29 ***
T2 (N = 716-732)												
1. Supervisor's allowance of FWA use (a)	5.1	1.2	.81	-								
2. Leader in-group prototypicality (a)	5.0	1.2	.94	.15 ***	-							
3. Respect (a)	5.4	.83	.88	.13 ***	.17 ***	-						
4. Leader endorsement (a)	5.6	1.1	.91	.41 ***	.37 ***	.21 ***	-					
5. Desire for FWA use (b)	5.1	1.4	.80	.32 ***	-.09 **	.04	.03	-				
6. Interaction centered 1 & 2	.21	1.6	-	-.14 ***	.02	.08 *	-.18 **	-.01	-			
7. Age < 30 3.3%; 31-40 23.7%; 41-50 41.5%; 51-60 25.5; > 60 6.0	3.1	.93	-	-.11 **	.05	-.03	.00	-.31 ***	.05	-		
8. Sex m 58.8%; f 41.2	.41	.49	-	-.08 *	.00	.05	.06	.00	-.02	.04	-	
9. Tenure	17.6	9.7	-	-.13 ***	.03	-.03	-.01	-.32 ***	.01	.68 ***	.03	-
10. Education elementary 2.1%; upper secondary or vocational 27.9; university applied sciences 37.5; university 32.7	3.0	.83	-	.14 ***	.01	.08 *	.02	.09 **	.02	-.10 **	-.17 ***	-.30 ***

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

Correlations among 1-6 are one-tailed; correlations with 7-10 are two-tailed.

(a) 1 strongly disagree to 7 strongly agree; (b) 1 not at all important to 7 extremely important.

Supervisor's allowance of subordinates' access to FWA was measured with four items derived from a study by McNamara, Pitt-Catsouphes, Brown, and Matz-Costa (2012): 'My supervisor allows me to' (a) 'change starting and quitting times', (b) 'choose a work schedule that varies from the typical schedule at our worksite', (c) 'compress the work week by working longer hours on fewer days for at least part of the year' and (d) 'work from an off-site location (such as home) for part of the regular work week'.

Leader in-group prototypicality was measured using three items from Platow and van Knippenberg's (2001) scale: 'Overall, I would say that my supervisor' (a) 'is a good example of the kind of people who work at (name of the organization)', (b) 'represents what is characteristic about employees of (name of the organization)' and (c) 'stands for what people who work at (name of the organization) have in common'.

Respect was measured with three items from Tyler and Blader's (2002) respect scale: (a) 'Other members of (name of the organization) react well to me', (b) 'I have made a good impression on others in (name of the organization)' and (c) 'Most members of (name of the organization) respect me'.

Leader endorsement was measured with Colquitt (2001)'s scale: (a) 'I speak favorably about my supervisor to my friends', (b) 'I think that my supervisor is a good one' and (c) 'I really like my supervisor'.

As noted in the review, variations in preferences for FWA might affect assessments of supervisor's decisions about FWA. Thus, *Desire for FWA use* was measured with the same items used for *Supervisor's allowance of subordinates' access to FWA*, except that respondents were asked to rate how important it is / would be for them to have each of the four FWA opportunities. Control variables included *age, sex, tenure* and *education*.

Results

Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics, alpha reliabilities, response choices and correlations for the scales and demographics at both time periods. At T1, 60.5% of the respondents were men. Most of the respondents worked full-time (99%) and had a regular working contract (97%). On average, respondents were 41–50 years old (under 30, 4.4%; 31–40, 29.0%; 41–50, 38.4%; over 60 yrs, 4.2%). Over 70% had university education (elementary school, 2.4%; upper secondary school or vocational school, 27.5%; university of applied sciences, 35.9%; university 34.3%). They had been working at the organization for 16.6 (SD = 9.6) years. Most of the respondents reported having children (55%) but only 20% had elder care responsibilities. The following percentage of respondents reported engaging in these FWA once a week, a few times a week or every day: change starting and quitting times (71.0%), choose a work schedule that varies (41.2%), compressed workweek (11.4%) or work at home (51.1%). They participated in another nine

Table 2. Regression analyses for respect and for leader endorsement.

	T1	T2
<i>Respect explanatory variables</i>		
<i>Step 1</i>		
Supervisor's allowance of FWA use (1)	.17 ***	.10 **
Leader in-group prototypicality (2)	.18 ***	.16 ***
Desire for FWA use	.04	.03
R ²	.08	.04
Adjusted R ²	.07	.04
F	(3,823) = 23.1 ***	(3,726) = 10.1 ***
<i>Step 2</i>		
Supervisor's allowance of FWA use (1)	.18 ***	.11 **
Leader in-group prototypicality (2)	.19 ***	.15 ***
Desire for FWA use	.05	.02
Interaction 1 × 2 (both centered)	.08 *	.09 *
R ²	.08	.05
Adjusted R ²	.08	.04
R ² change	.01	.01
F	(4,822) = 18.7 ***	(4,725) = 9.0 ***
F change	(1,822) = 5.2 *	(1,725) = 5.7 *
<i>Leader endorsement explanatory variables</i>		
<i>Step 1</i>		
Supervisor's allowance of FWA use (1)	.39 ***	.38 ***
Leader in-group prototypicality (2)	.28 ***	.21 ***
Desire for FWA use	-.12 ***	-.06
R ²	.27	.27
Adjusted R ²	.27	.27
F	(3,829) = 104.0 ***	(3,725) = 8.7 ***
<i>Step 2</i>		
Supervisor's allowance of FWA use (1)	.36 ***	.36 ***
Leader in-group prototypicality (2)	.28 ***	.32 ***
Desire for FWA use	-.10 ***	-.06
Interaction 1 × 2 (both centered)	-.17 ***	-.14 ***
R ²	.30	.29
Adjusted R ²	.30	.28
R ² change	.03	.02
F	(4,828) = 88.0 ***	(4,724) = 72.9 ***
F change	(1,828) = 29.3 ***	(1,724) = 18.8 ***

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Note: Full entry method within blocks. Values are standardized beta coefficients.

Interaction term is the product of the mean-centered Supervisor's allowance of FWA use and mean-centered Leader in-group prototypicality.

FWA at least once a week from 15.7% (work in your own car) to .4% (work at a library).

Moderated regression analysis

As Table 2 shows, none of the demographic control measures (age, sex, tenure and education) correlated significantly with leader in-group prototypicality or leader endorsement, and only two were correlated with respect: age (T1) and education (T1 and T2). Those two were entered in the initial regression explaining respect, but neither was a significant influence. Therefore, we do not include demographics in the reported analyses.

We used a moderated multiple regression approach to test our hypotheses. Following Aiken and West (1991) and Dawson (2014), supervisor's FWA decision,

and supervisor's in-group prototypicality, were mean-centered and then multiplied to create the interaction term. At the first step in two separate regressions, *respect* or *leader endorsement* was regressed on *supervisor's allowance of subordinates' access to FWA*, *leader prototypicality* and *employees' desire for FWA use*. The interaction term was entered in the second step of each regression.

Respect

Results of the first step of the T1 regression, for *respect*, without interaction, indicated that if the *supervisor offered more FWA*, and if the supervisor was *more in-group prototypical*, the employee had a slightly greater sense of being *respected* (7% variance explained). However, the *desire for FWA* to the employee was unrelated to respect. In the second step, the interaction term was significant, and contributed an additional 1% explained variance. The T2 results were similar (7% variance, 1% additional).

Leader endorsement

Results in the first step of the T1 regression for *leader endorsement* were much stronger than for *respect* (27% variance explained). A supervisor's offering of FWA and leader prototypicality were both positively related to leader endorsement. However, desire for FWA was, intriguingly, significantly *negatively* related to leader endorsement. It may be that employees who do not strongly endorse their supervisor feel it is preferable to spend more time away from the office, or be more in control of their work context. Alternatively, as some prior research suggests, working away from the office creates social distance between the flexworker and co-workers and supervisor. Here, too, the interaction term was significant, adding 3% explained variance. Results from the T2 data were again very similar (27%, 2% additional), except for the slightly smaller and non-significant, yet still negative, influence of desire for FWA.

Slopes analysis

To determine the interaction effects, we used the Process SPSS macro (Hayes, 2013) to compute effect sizes at one standard deviation below and above the mean for leader prototypicality. At T1, the slope between supervisor's FWA allowance and feelings of *respect* was $\beta = .08$ ($p < .01$) for low prototypical supervisors, and $\beta = .16$ ($p < .001$) for high prototypicality. For *leader endorsement*, the slopes were $\beta = .47$ and $\beta = .21$, respectively (both $p < .001$). The results for T2 were quite similar. The slope for *respect* was $\beta = .02$ (ns) for low, and $\beta = .13$ ($p < .001$) for high, supervisor prototypicality. For *leader endorsement*, the slopes were $\beta = .45$ and $\beta = .23$, respectively (both $p < .001$). Figures 1(a) and (b) display the two sets of slopes.

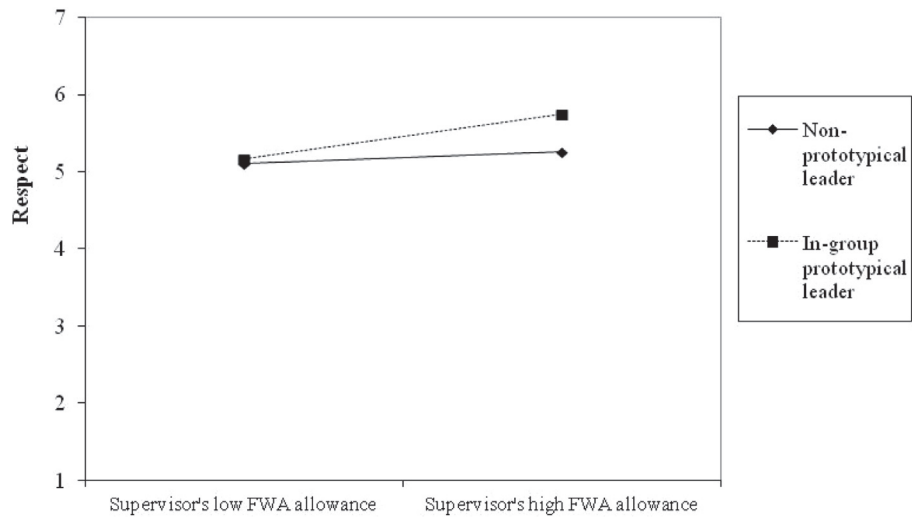


Figure 1a. T1 Respect as a function of supervisor's allowance of subordinates' FWA use, by supervisor prototypicality.

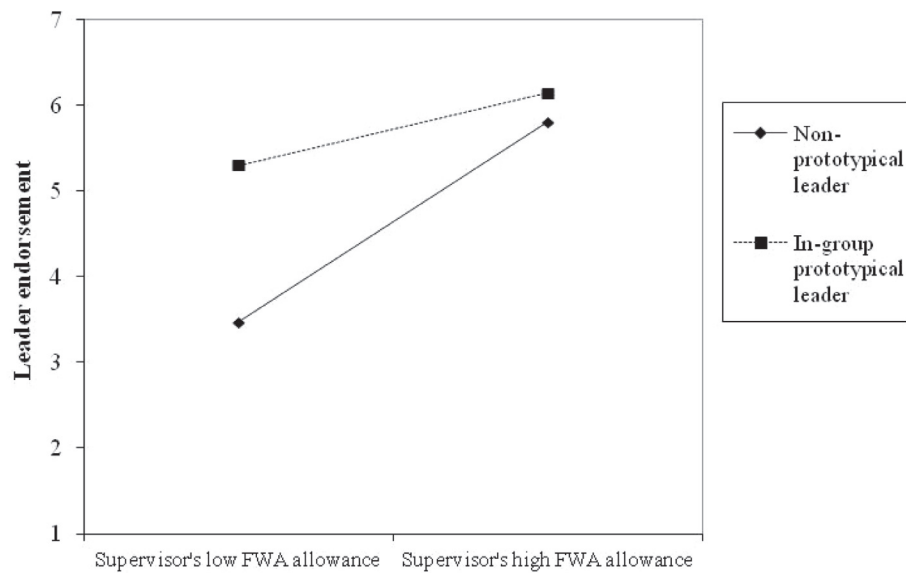


Figure 1b. T1 Leader endorsement as a function of supervisor's allowance of subordinates' FWA use, by supervisor prototypicality.

Discussion

Basic results

The results of the present study supported both our direct (H1a, H2a) and moderation hypotheses (H1b, H2b). A group leader's decision to allow group members' access to organizational FWA was related to higher feelings of respect and

higher leader endorsement. Importantly, and in line with propositions of SIMOL, these effects were asymmetrically moderated by leader in-group prototypicality: An in-group prototypical leader's FWA-decisions had a stronger influence on group members' feelings of respect but weaker influence on leader endorsement. These results were quite consistent across T1 and T2, providing evidence of the reliability of these results. Such reliability is always in question about single-time cross-correlational results.

Theoretical implications

These findings make theoretical contributions to the traditions of SIMOL and FWA. First, they broaden the research done within the SIMOL by examining identity- and leader-related effects of a supervisor's FWA allocation decisions. Previous work has mainly considered identity-related effects as a consequence of procedural and interactional justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Blader, 2000). It has only recently been proposed that allocation decisions (or some economic outcomes) could also provide symbolic value for assessing one's self-worth and standing within a group (Blader & Tyler, 2009). Importantly, the present research contributes to this new aspect of research by showing that leader in-group prototypicality moderates the impact of supervisor's allocation decisions (and not procedural or interactional justice effects like previous studies; Koivisto & Lipponen, 2015) on employees' attitudes about oneself and towards the leader. As far as we know, this is the first empirical study finding this moderation effect, which is central to SIMOL.

Second, the study supports the straightforward LMX proposition that a supervisor's decisions to favor a subordinate result in increased support for the leader (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). However, it shows support for this in the specific FWA context. Even more importantly, it extends this proposition by indicating that characteristics of a leader, specifically the extent the leader represents the shared group identity, moderate the relationship between leader decisions and support for the leader. It thus validates SIMOL's assumption that in-group prototypical leaders may be endorsed in spite of their unfavorable decisions or behavior (up to some point) (e.g. Giessner et al., 2009).

Third, the finding that the relationships between a supervisor's FWA-related decision and employees' feelings of respect and leader endorsement are *asymmetrically* moderated by leader in-group prototypicality provides interesting input into the current theoretical discussions in SIMOL. That is, even though research and literature supports the significance of prototypicality in group processes, during recent years there has been an active debate on the moderating role of leader in-group prototypicality in the relationship between leader behavior and leader-related outcomes on the one hand, and employee-related outcomes on the other hand (see De Cremer, van Dijke, Brebels, & Hoogervorst, 2008).

The debate has noted that leader in-group prototypicality may have different moderating effects on different kinds of outcomes. It may substitute for the undesired behavior when the dependent variable is associated with the source of the behavior (i.e. the leader) (Giessner et al., 2009; Ullrich, Christ, & van Dick, 2009). Alternatively, it may reinforce the influence of a leader's behavior when the dependent variable is associated with the self or the group (Koivisto & Lipponen, 2015).

Before the present study, empirical research had not examined both employee- and leader-related effects (from the perspective of the employee), as moderated by leader in-group prototypicality, in a single study. The results of our study support the idea presented by De Cremer et al. (2008) that the moderation effects of leader in-group prototypicality depend to some extent on whether the outcome is follower- or leader-related. Based on these results, prototypicality matters for the individuals' sense of being respected (self-identity), while non-prototypicality matters more for their leader endorsement.

This finding strengthens the theoretical foundations of the social identity approach and SIMOL. In-group prototypical leaders are viewed as more liable for employees' identity-related inferences but are accorded more leeway when it comes to employees' leader-related evaluations. As in-group representatives, prototypical leaders are able to convey identity-related information to group members, and in this way affect members' self-evaluations and feelings of self-worth. Yet, because of their prototypicality and the assumption that they seek to maintain the group's norms and interests, they have a greater ability to make an unpopular decision, and even to fail in their endeavors, while still retaining positive assessments (Giessner et al., 2009; Ullrich et al., 2009).

Practical implications

The findings of the present study are also interesting in terms of developing FWA policies and leadership in organizations. Our study underscores that, in line with the above review of supervisory influence on FWA, in addition to developing organization-wide policies for FWA, organizations should remember that employees view their immediate supervisors as active and consequential actors in the process. Thus, effective partnership between HRM practitioners and immediate supervisors may help in eliciting positive and avoiding negative outcomes of leader's FWA decisions. It is particularly important to find ways to avoid supervisors' unnecessary negative FWA-allowance decisions (that are based on factors such as supervisor's fear of losing control, insufficient knowledge or suspicion towards FWA). Thus, HRM practitioners should ensure that supervisors at all organizational levels have sufficient information on the organizational FWA, the positive and negative effects of their utilization and boundary conditions for reaching successful outcomes. They should also ensure that all supervisors get the needed guidance in applying FWA and leading from the distance.

This is important because an immediate supervisor's decisions on FWA can have profound effects (see also Knies & Leisink, 2014) for both the employees and the supervisors themselves, as well as personnel and performance outcomes. The present research shows that these decisions influence employees' feelings of being respected and support for the leader. However, via these outcomes, the organizational and group-level effects are much wider: That is, employees' perceptions on their standing can affect leadership as well as functioning of work groups and organizations (Haslam et al., 2013; Tyler & Blader, 2000).

First, it is important for organizational and team-level viability and success (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000) to preserve positive self-definitions of employees. Positive self-evaluation and experience of being a respected group member facilitates adopting group goals, proactively striving towards these goals, and even going beyond role requirements in carrying out tasks (as well as other extra-role behaviors) or avoiding negative and abusive behaviors (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Knies & Leisink, 2014; Koivisto & Lipponen, 2015). Conversely, negative identity evaluations may severely jeopardize organizational and team-level success since they may even lead to antisocial behavior such as producing physical, economic, psychological or emotional harm towards other employees or the organization (Aquino & Douglas, 2003).

Second, employees' attitudes towards the leader govern the extent that group members internalize a group's goals, as well as the vigor and motivation that they devote to pursuing these goals (Haslam et al., 2013). Positive attitude towards the leader promotes the leader's ability to exercise power in the group (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Endorsed supervisors are likely to get more compliance and support for their requests, suggestions and orders (e.g. Hogg, 2001). Indeed, low endorsement may harm the leader's ability to be effective (Giessner et al., 2009).

Future research

Of course, not all leaders' decisions can be favorable to employees; leaders often need to make decisions that are unfavorable to at least someone. In that situation, there probably are ways for leaders to diminish the negative effects of their undesired decisions. One interesting avenue for future research, then, would be examining these factors and their possible moderating role in relation to leaders' FWA allocation decisions, leader in-group prototypicality, and leader- and follower-related outcomes. For instance, it could be argued that an employee's perception of their leader's interactional or procedural fairness in decision-making situations might compensate for the negativity aroused by unfavorable decisions (e.g. Brockner et al., 1994; Ullrich et al., 2009) – or vice versa.

Another interesting avenue for future research would be empirically examining other effects of organizational FWA policies and supervisor's FWA-related decisions. For example, how do identity-level and leader-related consequences differ

when the levels of organizational provision of FWA, supervisor's support for FWA and members' use of FWA are more or less congruent? Over time, does repeated incongruence increase or decrease supervisor prototypicality? To the extent that, as in this organization, supervisor allowance of FWA strongly converges with organizational provision of FWA, supervisory allowance is less likely to represent a 'favored' exchange of resources from leader to subordinate. In this case, LMX theory would argue that there would be less of an influence on leader endorsement. Further, SIMOL argues that in very salient groups or when members experience strong group identification, the salience of the group relations and norms would cause members to devalue substantial favoritism in the form of favored dyadic FWA allowance (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Thus, future studies should assess the contextual effects of divergence in FWA provision, and of group salience and identification.

Research in this area could also extend the causal chain, by assessing behavioral outcomes (especially other extra-role behaviors; Blader & Tyler, 2009) of increased subordinate respect or leader endorsement associated with offering FWA. Those also may be moderated by leader in-group prototypicality (Koivisto & Lipponen, 2015). Furthermore, it would be interesting to examine to what extent and how employees may appeal unfavorable FWA decisions, and whether they are more likely to do so with prototypical or non-prototypical supervisors.

Limitations

The study of course has certain limitations. First, the results are based on cross-sectional survey data collected from a single organization, although at two time periods (which show highly similar results, increasing reliability). Common method variance is possible when using survey data (e.g. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, the direction of this kind of bias in a moderation analysis is an underestimation of interaction effects (Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010). In addition, the correlational data makes it difficult to ascertain the causal relationships in question. For example, one could argue that feelings of respect or leader endorsement influence the perceived favorability of a leader's decisions. However, from a theoretical standpoint, there is no rationale behind this kind of causal relationship, whereas the relationships that we suggest are strongly based on the social identity approach and SIMOL. Additionally, were the results across T1 and T2 noticeably different, were this a true panel study or were there theoretical reasons to assess changes in the relationships across time, it would be appropriate to test for such differences and changes using latent variable modeling (McArdle, 2009).

The fact that the data were collected in a telecommunication company that has a long history of offering FWA options to its employees may be seen as reducing the broader relevance of our key findings. That is, it could be argued that in organizations where work flexibility is not a viable or desired option, FWA may not have

the same significance to employees. In that context, a supervisor's FWA-related decisions then may be related neither to employees' feelings of respect nor their leader endorsement; or alternatively, such decisions may be much more highly influential. Organizations emphasizing collective and cooperative work may be less satisfactory contexts for FWA; employees in those contexts may even avoid FWA due to its possible fragmentation of team cohesion and interaction. However, as work flexibility becomes more common (Galinsky et al., 2008; Madden & Jones, 2008), and increasingly important for younger generations entering the workforce (Smith, 2010), the findings of our research become more relevant.

De Menezes and Kelliher (2011) emphasize the many possible contingent results about FWA due to different kinds or combinations of FWA, convergence between availability and employee preferences and use, extent of employee choice, change in working arrangements over time, frequency of use, length of availability of policy, etc. They note that 'relatively few contingent factors have been actually examined, though reviews or meta-analyses indicated a need for such investigations (e.g. Baltes et al., 1999)' (p. 463). Further, studies vary by methodologies, data and research designs (most typically single-level and cross-sectional), with wide variation in types of occupation, sample size of individuals or organizations.

Conclusion

This study provides new insights to the research on FWA, supervisory mediation of FWA and SIMOL by demonstrating that (1) immediate group supervisors' decisions on their subordinates' access to FWA are associated with subordinates' identity and leader endorsement, and (2) that a leader's in-group prototypicality moderates these relationships: In-group prototypical (rather than less prototypical) leaders' FWA-decisions have a stronger influence on group members' self-evaluation, but a smaller influence on group members' leader endorsement. These findings emphasize one of many immediate supervisors' active roles in implementing organizational policies. When implementing policies for FWA, organizations need to consider ways to help immediate supervisors communicate these to their subordinates, and to underscore implications for employee and leader identity.

Acknowledgments

This paper is part of the project 'CityWorkLife: Smart and Flexible Work and Living in Metropolitan Areas', funded by TEKES, Finland, [grant number 40277/12]. Professor Matti Vartiainen; Project Manager: Anu Sivunen, Ph.D.; Satu Koivisto, Ph.D.; Emma Nordbäck; Aalto University Work Research Unit, P.O. Box 15500, FI-00067 Aalto, Finland. Research partners include Professor Terri Griffith, Santa Clara University, Leavey School of Business; and Professor Ronald E. Rice and Associate Professor Karen K. Myers, University of California, Santa Barbara, CA. We are extremely grateful to the participating organization and its members.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

Funding

This work was supported by TEKES, Finland [grant number 40277/12].

References

- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Aquino, K., & Douglas, S. (2003). Identity threat and antisocial behavior in organizations: The moderating effects of individual differences, aggressive modeling, and hierarchical status. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 90, 195–208. doi:10.1016/S0749-5978(02)00517-4
- Baltes, B. B., Briggs, T. E., Huff, J. W., Wright, J. A., & Neuman, G. A. (1999). Flexible and compressed workweek schedules: A meta-analysis of their effects on work-related criteria. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84, 496–513.
- Batt, R., & Valcour, P. M. (2003). Human resources practices as predictors of work-family outcomes and employee turnover. *Industrial Relations*, 42, 189–220. doi:10.1111/1468-232X.00287
- Blader, S. L., & Tyler, T. R. (2009). Testing and extending the group engagement model: Linkages between social identity, procedural justice, economic outcomes, and extrarole behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 445–464. doi:10.1037/a0013935
- Bowen, G. L. (1998). Effects of leader support in the work unit on the relationship between work spillover and family adaptation. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 19, 25–52.
- Brockner, J., Konovsky, M., Cooper-Schneider, R., Folger, R., Martin, C., & Bies, R. J. (1994). Interactive effects of procedural justice and outcome negativity on victims and survivors of job loss. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 397–409. doi:10.2307/256835
- Clear, F., & Dickson, K. (2005). Teleworking practice in small and medium-sized firms: Management style and worker autonomy. *New Technology, Work and Employment*, 20, 218–233. doi:10.1111/j.1468-005X.2005.00155.x
- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 386–400. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.386
- Dawson, J. (2014). Moderation in management research: What, why, when, and how. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 29(1), 1–19. doi:10.1007/s10869-013-9308-7
- De Cremer, D., van Dijke, M., Brebels, L., & Hoogervorst, N. (2008). Motivation to cooperate in organisations: The case of prototypical leadership and procedural fairness. *Psychologica Belgica*, 48, 157–175. doi:10.5334/pb-48-2-3-157
- De Menezes, L. M., & Kelliher, C. (2011). Flexible working and performance: A systematic review of the evidence for a business case. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 13, 452–474.
- Eaton, S. C. (2003). If you can use them: Flexibility policies, organisational commitment and perceived performance. *Industrial Relations*, 42, 145–167.
- Flexible work arrangements: The fact sheet. (2010). *Workplace flexibility 2010*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Law Center. Retrieved from: http://workplaceflexibility2010.org/images/uploads/FWA_FactSheet.pdf

- Gajendran, R. S., & Harrison, D. A. (2007). The good, the bad, and the unknown about telecommuting: Meta-analysis of psychological mediators and individual consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 1524–1541. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.92.6.1524
- Galinsky, E., Bond, J. T., & Sakai, K. (2008). *National study of employers*. New York, NY: Families and Work Institute.
- Giessner, S. R., van Knippenberg, D., & Sleebos, E. (2009). License to fail? How leader group prototypicality moderates the effects of leader performance on perceptions of leadership effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly, 20*, 434–451. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.03.012
- Golden, L. (2001). Flexible work schedules: Which workers get them? *American Behavioral Scientist, 44*, 1157–1178.
- Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly, 6*, 219–247. Retrieved from: <http://www.journals.elsevier.com/the-leadership-quarterly/>
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Haslam, S. A., Reicher, S. D., & Platow, M. J. (2013). *The new psychology of leadership: Identity, influence and power*. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.
- Henly, J. R., Shaefer, H. L., & Waxman, E. (2006). Nonstandard work schedules: Employer- and employee-driven flexibility in retail jobs. *Social Service Review, 80*, 609–634.
- Hogg, M. A. (2001). A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 5*, 184–200. doi:10.1207/S15327957PSPR0503_1
- Hollander, E. P. (1964). *Leaders, groups, and influence*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Hornung, S., Rousseau, D. M., & Glaser, J. (2008). Creating flexible work arrangements through idiosyncratic deals. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*, 655–664.
- Kelliher, C., & Anderson, D. (2010). Doing more with less? Flexible working practices and the intensification of work. *Human Relations, 63*, 83–106. doi:10.1177/0018726709349199
- Khilji, S., & Wang, X. (2006). 'Intended' and 'implemented' HRM: The missing linchpin in strategic human resource management research. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 17*, 1171–1189.
- Knies, E., & Leisink, P. (2014). Linking people management and extra-role behaviour: Results of a longitudinal study. *Human Resource Management Journal, 24*, 57–76. doi:10.1111/1748-8583.12023
- Koivisto, S., & Lipponen, J. (2015). A leader's procedural justice, respect and extra-role behaviour: The roles of leader in-group prototypicality and identification. *Social Justice Research, 28*, 187–206. doi:10.1007/s11211-015-0243-9
- Kossek, E. E., & Michel, J. S. (2010). Flexible work schedules. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, (Vol. 1, pp. 535–572). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Kossek, E. E., Lewis, S., & Hammer, L. B. (2010). Work-life initiatives and organizational change: Overcoming mixed messages to move from the margin to the mainstream. *Human Relations, 63*, 3–19.
- Lambert, A. D., Marler, J. H., & Gueutal, H. G. (2008). Individual differences: Factors affecting employee utilization of flexible work arrangements. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 73*, 107–117. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2008.02.004
- Lambort, S. J., & Haley-Lock, A. (2004). The organizational stratification of opportunities for work-life balance: Addressing issues of equality and social justice in the workplace. *Community, Work & Family, 7*, 179–195.
- Leslie, M. L., Park, T.-Y., & Mehng, S. A. (2012). Flexible work practices: A source of career premiums or penalties? *Academy of Management Journal, 55*, 1407–1428.

- Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. R. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice*. New York, NY: Plenum.
- Madden, M., & Jones, S. (2008). *Networked workers*. Pew Research Center. Retrieved from: <http://www.pewresearch.org/pub/966/networkedworkers>
- McArdle, J. J. (2009). Latent variable modeling of differences and changes with longitudinal data. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60, 577–605.
- McNamara, T. K., Pitt-Catsouphes, M., Brown, M., & Matz-Costa, C. (2012). Access to and utilization of flexible work options. *Industrial Relations*, 51, 936–965. doi:10.1111/j.1468-232X.2012.00703.x
- Meindl, J. R., & Ehrlich, S. B. (1987). The romance of leadership and the evaluation of organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 30, 91–109.
- Platow, M. J., & van Knippenberg, D. (2001). A social identity analysis of leadership endorsement: The effects of leader ingroup prototypicality and distributive intergroup fairness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27, 1508–1519. doi:10.1177/01461672012711011
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 879–903. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 26, 513–563. doi:10.1177/014920630002600307
- Powell, G. N., & Mainiero, L. A. (1999). Managerial decision making regarding alternative work arrangements. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72, 41–56.
- Purcell, J., & Hutchinson, S. (2007). Front-line managers as agents in the HRM-performance causal chain: Theory, analysis and evidence. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 17, 3–20.
- Rodgers, C. S. (1992). The flexible workplace: What have we learned? *Human Resource Management*, 31, 183–199.
- Ryan, A. M., & Kossek, E. E. (2008). Work-life policy implementation: Breaking down or creating barriers to inclusiveness? *Human Resources Management*, 47, 95–310.
- Schriesheim, C. A., Castro, S. L., & Cogliser, C. C. (1999). Leader-member exchange (LMX) research: A comprehensive review of theory, measurement, and data-analytic practices. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10, 63–113.
- Sherif, M., & Sherif, C. W. (1964). *Reference groups: An exploration into conformity and deviation of adolescents*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Siemsen, E., Roth, A., & Oliveira, P. (2010). Common method bias in regression models with linear, quadratic, and interaction effects. *Organizational Research Methods*, 13, 456–476. doi:10.1177/1094428109351241
- Smith, C. (2010). Work-life balance perspectives of marketing professionals in generation Y. *Services Marketing Quarterly*, 31, 434–447.
- Solnet, D., Kralj, A., & Kandampully, J. (2012). Generation Y employees: An examination of work attitude differences. *The Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship*, 17, 36–54. Retrieved from <http://www.huizenga.nova.edu/Jame/>
- Stavrou, E. T. (2005). Flexible work bundles and organizational competitiveness: A cross-national study of the European work context. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 923–947.
- Swanberg, J. E., Pitt-Catsouphes, M., & Drescher-Burke, K. (2005). A question of justice: Disparities in employees' access to flexible schedule arrangements. *Journal of Family Issues*, 26, 866–895.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Worschel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33–47). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

- Thatcher, S. M. B., & Bagger, J. (2011). Working in Pajamas: Telecommuting, unfairness sources, and unfairness perceptions. *Negotiation and Conflict Management Research*, 4, 248–276. doi:10.1111/j.1750-4716.2011.00082.x
- Turner, J. C., Hogg, M. A., Oakes, P. J., Reicher, S. D., & Wetherell, M. S. (1987). *Rediscovering the social group: A self-categorization theory*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Tyler, T. R., & Lind, E. A. (1992). A relational model of authority in groups. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (25th ed.). (pp. 115–191). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. L. (2000). *Cooperation in groups: Procedural justice, social identity, and behavioral engagement*. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.
- Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. L. (2002). Autonomous vs. comparative status: Must we be better than others to feel good about ourselves? *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 89, 813–838. doi:10.1016/S0749-5978(02)00031-6
- Ullrich, J., Christ, O., & van Dick, R. (2009). Substitutes for procedural fairness: Prototypical leaders are endorsed whether they are fair or not. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 235–244. doi:10.1037/a0012936
- United States Office of Personnel Management. (2014). *Federal employee viewpoint survey results: Employees influencing change*. Washington, DC: United States Office of Personnel Management. Retrieved from: www.fedview.opm.gov/2014files/2014_Governmentwide_Management_Report.PDF
- van Knippenberg, D. (2011). Embodying who we are: Leader group prototypicality and leadership effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22, 1078–1091. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.09.004
- van Knippenberg, D., & Hogg, M. A. (2003). A social identity model of leadership effectiveness in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 25, 243–295. doi:10.1016/S0191-3085(03)25006-1
- van Quaquebeke, N., & Eckloff, T. (2013). Why follow? The interplay of leader categorization, identification, and feeling respected. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 16, 68–86. doi:10.1177/1368430212461834
- Wit, A., & Wilke, H. (1988). Subordinates' endorsement of an allocating leader in a commons dilemma: An equity theoretical approach. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 9, 151–168. doi:10.1016/0167-4870(88)90049-9