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Micro-Foundations of "*Doing Well by Doing Good*": Multilevel Effects of Work-Life Policies on Employee Well-Being and Sales Growth

Margarita Mayo[1] | Laura Guillén[2] | Jie Cao[3] | Shainaz Firfiray[4] | Juan I. Sanchez[5,6]

[1]IE Business School, IE University, Madrid, Spain | [2]ESADE Business School, Barcelona, Spain | [3]College of Business, Shanghai University of Finance and Economics, Zhongshan Beiyi Campus, China | [4]Business School, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, UK | [5]Florida International University, Miami, Florida, USA | [6]EGADE/Tecnologico de Monterrey Business School, Mexico City, Mexico

Correspondence: Margarita Mayo (margarita.mayo@ie.edu)

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ABSTRACT

This study unravels how the effects of work-life policies (WLPs) on individual employees' perceived control over their work schedule have cumulative effects across employees, ultimately crossing levels to enhance organizational outcomes like sales. We tested a multilevel mediating model comprising two cross-level mechanisms: a top-down link between the organization's availability of WLPs and individual-level variables like control over work schedule and job satisfaction, and a bottom-up link between job satisfaction (aggregated within the organization) and sales growth. Analyses of multilevel, multisource data from 3262 employees in 70 organizations supported the *top–down* hypotheses predicting that gains in employee control over their work schedule mediate the positive relationship between WLPs availability and job satisfaction. Furthermore, analyses of sales growth data using a matched subsample of 39 organizations and 1872 employees supported the *bottom–up* hypothesis that organization-level job satisfaction is positively associated with sales growth over a three-year span. Our results begin to shed light on the micro-foundations of doing well (i.e., increasing sales) by doing good (i.e., increasing employees' control over their work schedules through WLP).

1 | Introduction

Organizations implement work-life policies (WLPs), defined as "deliberate organizational changes—in policies, practices, or the workplace culture—to reduce work-family conflict and/or support employees' lives outside of work" (Kelly et al. 2008, 310). WLPs are conceived as a win-win proposition: they provide greater flexibility to employees while helping firms attract, retain, and engage talents. Research suggests that WLPs—such as flextime, compressed workweeks, and telecommuting—help employees reconcile work and nonwork demands, thereby enhancing autonomy, reducing work-life conflict, and boosting engagement (Gajendran and Harrison 2007; Gajendran et al. 2024; Kelly 2025; Kossek et al. 2005, 2010; Krishna and Manoharan 2022; Netemeyer et al. 1996; Wayne et al. 2013). WLPs have been endorsed by policy initiatives such as the U.S. Workplace Flexibility Act (Bannan 2022), which emphasizes respecting boundaries between work and personal time to support well-being and productivity.

Concerns about the unintended consequences of WLPs are nonetheless growing (e.g., Gibbs et al. 2023; Schultz et al. 2003). Critics argue that WLPs may reduce collaboration, innovation and productivity (Ekdahl 2025; Gibbs et al. 2023; Gindis and Constantz 2023) or that such policies are costly perks with little return to shareholders (Edmans 2012; Gornick and Meyers 2003). Reflecting these concerns, many CEOs are scaling back flexible work arrangements despite strong employee preferences for

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them (Aksoy et al. 2023; Case 2024; Whiting 2024). This tension has fueled a debate about an enduring question: Do WLPs really improve organizational performance?

Meta-analyses and systematic reviews have yielded mixed results regarding the impact of WLPs on organizational performance (Bloom et al. 2009; De Menezes and Kelliher 2011; Masterson et al. 2021; Medina-Garrido et al. 2021; Wong et al. 2020). For example, Opatrná and Prochazka (2023) concluded that while WLPs may lead to financial gains, the effect is often weak and highly context dependent. Some studies suggest that only certain types of WLPs improve outcomes, and only under specific conditions (Ali et al. 2015; Konrad and Mangel 2000; Kossek et al. 2010; Stavrou 2005). In their meta-analysis, Wong et al. (2020) found no direct association with productivity, but did report positive effects on employee outcomes. Other meta-analyses have shown modest yet consistent associations between WLP availability and employee outcomes like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and retention (Baltes et al. 1999; Butts et al. 2013). Similarly, although meta-analytic evidence (Gajendran and Harrison 2007; Gajendran et al. 2024) has strengthened the case for telecommuting, positive effects have been limited primarily to employees' attitudes rather than objective performance measures.

The extant evidence indicates that even if WLPs do not always translate into improved performance, they may do so indirectly by shaping employee attitudes. This supposition aligns with the widely held "happy employee-productive employee" hypothesis (Butts et al. 2013; Judge et al. 2001; Riketta 2008), which posits that satisfied and engaged employees are more likely to perform well (Boehm and Lyubomirsky 2008; Lucas and Diener 2003; Lyubomirsky et al. 2005; Paauwe 2004; Walsh et al. 2018). However, our approach also differs from traditional "happy-productive worker" logic, which assumes a direct, short-term, and individual-level relationship. Indeed, research that closes the loop by demonstrating how attitudinal gains resulting from the availability of WLPs evolve to produce a bottom-up linkage to organizational returns is lacking. As Masterson et al. (2021) and De Menezes and Kelliher (2011) noted in their literature reviews, research on WLPs has struggled to establish a clear business case largely because it lacks models capable of clearly explaining *why* and *how* these policies generate organizational value. Both reviews call for multilevel frameworks that connect WLPs availability to individual attitudes and back to organizational outcomes, precisely what we aim to accomplish in the study reported herein.

Our study aims to make novel contributions to the literature by beginning to unpack the "black box" between WLPs and firm-level outcomes (Wayne et al. 2013). First, we extend the Job Demands–Resources framework (JD-R; Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Demerouti et al. 2001) beyond its traditional individual scope, highlighting its multilevel and temporal dimensions. This approach surpasses limitations of past studies that rely on small, cross-sectional, or self-reported data (McCloskey and Igbaria 2003; Medina-Garrido et al. 2021). We indeed conceptualize WLPs as *contextual job resources*—namely structural elements of the work environment that provide employees with autonomy, support, and flexibility. We argue that these contextual resources activate the development of *personal-psychological resources*, particularly perceived control over their work schedule and enhanced motivation owing to job satisfaction. Over time, these individual-level effects scale up and improve organizational results like sales growth (Kozlowski and Klein 2000; Richard et al. 2009). Our theoretical model is depicted in Figure 1.

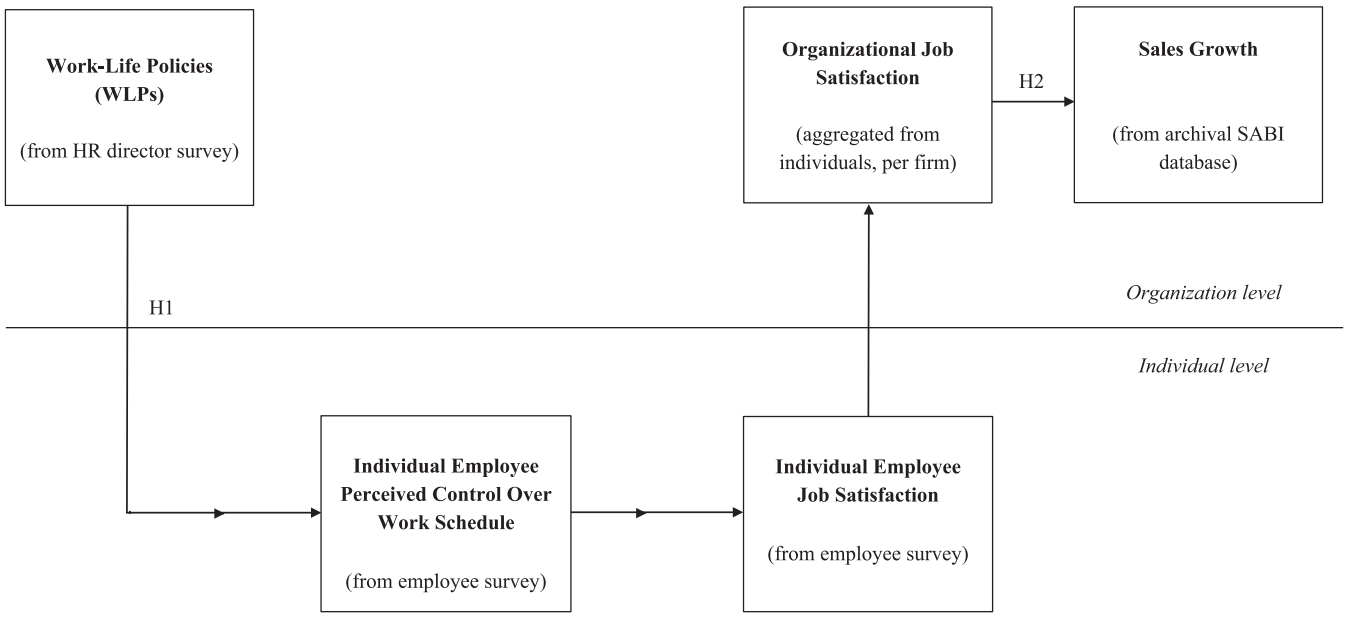

FIGURE 1 | Hypothesized multilevel mediating model of how work-life policies affect employee well-being and sales growth. Rating sources are noted in parentheses.

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2 | The Relationship Between WLPs and Sales Growth

To outline the process through which WLPs influence both individual and organizational outcomes, we draw on the JD-R framework (Bakker and Demerouti 2007). The theoretical antecedent to the JD-R is the Job Demands-Control (JDC; Karasek 1979) model, which posited that job strain arises when job demands are high whereas control is low. A key tenet of this model is that agentic control over one's work buffers the negative effects of demands.

The JD-R framework extended the JD-C model by categorizing a wide range of job characteristics—physical, psychological, social, and organizational—as either job demands or job resources. Unlike the JD-C model, the JD-R model emphasizes psychological well-being, including engagement, satisfaction, and motivation. Job resources, such as autonomy, feedback, or support, are essential not only for buffering demands but also for enhancing satisfaction. We argue that WLPs should be conceived as contextual job resources capable of enhancing employees' perceived control—a key psychological resource that helps manage job demands while increasing individual satisfaction. Perhaps more importantly, we propose a cross-level process whereby the accumulation of individual-level outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction) gives rise to shared employee attitudes and behaviors that, in the aggregate, result in organizational returns like sales growth. This multi-level framework allowed us to examine both individual and cumulative effects of WLPs in line with our cross-level research objective.

2.1 | The Relationship Between WLPs and Organizational Outcomes

Some explanations for the effects of WLPs have emphasized the role of organizational stakeholders like prospective employees and potential investors. To the former, WLPs signal support (fair treatment, understanding supervision) that facilitates recruitment and retention (Tsen et al. 2021). To the latter, WLPs signal that the organization conforms to current social expectations and therefore is likely to secure the necessary financial resources (Bathini and Kandathil 2019; Kelliher and Anderson 2010). However, these explanations leave critical gaps. First, flexible arrangements, while potentially encouraging longer work hours, might blur work-life boundaries, hence provoking unintended stress (Cook 2009; Gibbs et al. 2023; McDonald et al. 2005). Second, some firms might use WLP arrangements to justify lower salaries, assuming employees would willingly trade compensation for flexibility. We argue that theoretical gaps exist because extant explanations are not anchored in the key process through which employee perceptions and ensuing attitudes triggered by WLPs cumulate across individuals and then cross levels to impact organizational outcomes.

2.2 | Macro-to-Micro Links: Top–Down Effects on Individual Outcomes

Evidence supports the link between WLPs and attitudinal individual-level outcomes, such as lower turnover, stronger employee-organization relationships, and job satisfaction (De Sivatte and Guadamillas 2013; Ezra and Deckman 1996; Ierodiakonou and Stavrou 2017; Okulicz-Kozaryn and Golden 2018; Perry-Smith and Blum 2000). However, in spite of evidence suggesting that organizational work practices like employee participation are associated with organizational performance (Combs et al. 2006), we still know relatively little about why that is the case. We argue that, regarding WLPs, the very first step in the process lies in their ability to raise employees' perceived control over their work schedule. Hsu et al. (2021) propose that the availability of *contextual job resources* embedded in the work environment, such as WLPs, activates a resource-gain spiral, wherein access to supportive structures promotes the development of *personal or psychological resources* like perceived control.

The JD-R (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Demerouti et al. 2001) underscores the importance of perceived control in promoting positive job attitudes (Cooper et al. 2001; Totterdell 2005). Control over work schedules fosters engagement and satisfaction (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Hu et al. 2011). Perceived control also reduces stress (Macan 1994; Weiß 2017), improves health and job satisfaction (Adams and Jex 1999; Claessens et al. 2004), and is linked to higher performance and sales (Edmans 2012; Khalid et al. 2024; Ostroff 1992). The JD-R model emphasizes that WLPs provide resources, such as flexibility, to help employees better balance work and personal life (Bakker and Demerouti 2024; Bakker et al. 2023; Rich et al. 2010). Perceived control is a key and often undervalued psychological resource that mitigates job demands, as shown by evidence that autonomy reduces stress and promotes engagement and satisfaction (Bakker et al. 2004; Deci and Ryan 1985; Monje-Amor et al. 2020).

Employees with greater control over their work schedules develop more positive attitudes toward their jobs (Becker et al. 2022; Edmans 2012; Ostroff 1992), while those who lack such opportunities often report dissatisfaction (Allen 2001; Odle-Dusseau et al. 2012). Perceived control over work time reduces job-induced tensions and emotional exhaustion (Elst et al. 2014), whereas it boosts health, job satisfaction, and individual performance (Adams and Jex 1999; Claessens et al. 2004). Shifrin and Michel (2022) suggest that WLPs afford employees the time, energy, and focus to complete work responsibilities, thus giving employees a sense of accomplishment (Allen et al. 2013; Voydanoff 2004). Therefore, we propose that WLPs increase perceived control (Grawitch et al. 2010) and, subsequently, employee satisfaction. Because these top-down processes unfold relatively quickly (Kozlowski and Klein 2000), our macro-to-micro model predicts same-year effects of WLPs on employee perceived control and job satisfaction:

Hypothesis 1. *WLPs increase individual job satisfaction through employee control over their work schedule.*

2.3 | Micro-to-Macro Links: Bottom–Up Effects on Organizational Outcomes

There is evidence supporting the relationship between individual job satisfaction and at least some aspects of individual job

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performance (e.g., Judge et al. 2008). However, whether the cumulative effects of job satisfaction across employees influence organizational outcomes remains open question. The JD-R model suggests that job resources, such as WLPs, not only enhance individual well-being but also contribute to shared perceptions of collective outcomes within organizations (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Roczniewska et al. 2022). Social interactions, shared attitudes, and interdependence among employees underlie such collective outcomes (Kozlowski and Klein 2000; Morgeson and Hofmann 1999). Because WLPs are typically implemented organization-wide, employees are likely to experience these job resources in a consistent manner, creating the conditions for convergent experiences of satisfaction and, ultimately, a shared evaluative climate.

Organizations that provide consistent support across employees elevate aggregate levels of shared job satisfaction (e.g., Lock and Crawford 2004), which in turn predicts critical organizational outcomes such as greater organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al. 2000), and improved productivity and profitability (Koys 2001). A shared sense of job satisfaction across employees fosters a harmonious environment in which employees optimize their energy, use their time efficiently, engage in prosocial behavior (e.g., Konovsky and Organ 1996), and remain focused on important tasks (Bailyn 1997; Grandey et al. 2005). Such an environment creates a culture of trust and collaboration (Ten Brummelhuis et al. 2012) that contributes to organizational effectiveness (Bowen and Ostroff 2004; Lee and Allen 2002; Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998; Ostroff and Bowen 2000), and reduces voluntary turnover (Batt 2002; Dunlop and Lee 2004; Liu et al. 2012; Podsakoff et al. 1997). Moreover, negative shared experiences, such as witnessing coworkers' work–family conflict resulting from long hours, can similarly aggregate, producing a collective sense of job dissatisfaction (Bhave et al. 2010).

To gauge this bottom-up process, we adopted Chan's (1998) direct consensus model, which specifies that the meaning of higher-level constructs rests on the consensus among lower-level units. Such consensus-based emergent states reflect coordinated patterns of attitudes and behaviors that enable organizations to integrate new information and respond effectively to customer demands and market opportunities (Ostroff 1992), thus potentially increasing sales (Podsakoff et al. 2009). Sales growth, defined as the increase in revenue compared to the prior period, reflects an organization's ability to remain competitive (Collins and Clark 2003; Wiklund and Shepherd 2003). However, since bottom-up processes take time, our model proposes lagged effects of organizational-level job satisfaction. For this study, we measure sales growth over a three-year period. Thus:

Hypothesis 2. *Aggregate organizational job satisfaction is positively related to sales growth over 3 years.*

2.4 | Macro-to-Micro-to-Macro Serial Mediation Model

WLPs enhance perceived control, which boosts individual job satisfaction. Over time, individual satisfaction aggregates into organizational job satisfaction, which predicts sales growth. This serial mediation model aligns with Koys's (2001) findings that while employee attitudes at Time 1 related to organizational effectiveness at Time 2, organizational effectiveness at Time 1 showed no effect on employee attitudes at Time 2.

The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is understandably complex. The idea that job attitudes cause job performance is probably the oldest specification of this relationship in social psychology (Judge et al. 2001; see also Eagly and Chaiken 1993; Fishbein and Ajzen 1974). "In general, people who evaluate an attitude object favorably tend to engage in behaviors that foster or support it, and people who evaluate an attitude object unfavorably tend to engage in behaviors that hinder or oppose it" (Eagly and Chaiken 1993, 12).

Surprisingly, however, few studies have specifically stipulated a causal effect of job satisfaction on job performance, and the results are inconclusive (Judge et al. 2001). Meta-analytical evidence (Riketta 2008) shows a positive and significant (although small) effect of job satisfaction on job performance, while the effects of job performance on job attitudes were elusive, which suggests that job attitudes are more likely to influence job effectiveness than vice versa.

Prior studies suggest that ratings aggregated across employees are significantly related to organizational effectiveness (e.g., Podsakoff et al. 2009; Koys 2001). Although disentangling the direction of the longitudinal causal relations between job satisfaction and sales growth was beyond the scope of our study, our theoretical rationale led us to hypothesize a positive relationship between WLPs and sales growth, mediated by individual attitudes at the individual and organizational levels:

Hypothesis 3. *The positive relationship between WLPs and sales growth is serially mediated by individual employee control over work schedule and aggregate organizational job satisfaction.*

3 | Method

3.1 | Sample

We collected data from two different sources: HR managers and employees. A total of 70 firms located in a member state of the European Union (EU) participated in the study. We first collected data on work-life policies from HR managers through a telephone interview in 2007–2008 (along with the organization-level control variables). Then, in a second stage (approximately 3 months later), a random sample of employees from each company (20% of the workforce) completed the employee survey on the company premises during normal working hours. We obtained complete company- and employee-level data from 70 companies with 3262 employees. The final organization-level dependent variable measures 3-year company sales growth with archival data from the SABI database for 2007–2009, for a subsample of 39 organizations with 1872 employees.[1]

Firms represented a wide variety of industries: 17 (22.4%) in the manufacturing sector (e.g., hardware, beverages), 10

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(13.2%) in commerce (e.g., retail, restaurant chains), and 49 (64.4%) in services (e.g., financial, education). The number of employees ranged from 52 to 20,237 (average = 2100 employees). The percentage of women varied from 5.2% to 79.7% (average = 38.22%).

The employee sample included 1575 males (48.3%) and 1687 females (51.7%). The age distribution was as follows: 104 (5.0%) were younger than 25 years old; 2276 (69.8%) were between 25 and 44; 576 (17.6%) were older than 44; and for 306 (9.4%) this information was missing. A total of 1840 were married or living with a partner; the rest were unmarried, except for 121 (3.7%) for whom this information was missing. A total of 38.8% of employees had no children, 23.7% had one child, 28.2% had two children, and 9.3% had three children or more. Among HR directors, 55.7% were female.

In the subsample of 39 organizations for which sales growth information was available, 12 (31.6%) were in the manufacturing sector, 8 in commerce (21.1%), and 19 in the services sector (48.7%); sizes varied from 57 to 3789 employees (average = 722 employees); the average percentage of female employees was 33.5; over half of employees were married or living with a partner (55.3%); 42.9% of employees had no children, and 48.3% had one or two.

3.2 | Procedure

Companies were recruited among participants in a nationwide award competition sponsored by this EU member state's government during 2007 and 2008 in a joint research partnership with the first author. The award committee prescreened the applicants and selected 70 companies to be eligible for the award. Organization-level information on the availability of WLPs, along with company data (e.g., number of employees), was collected in a telephone interview with the HR director of each organization. Next, a random sample of employees from each company completed a survey including all our employee-level measures. The average response rate in our sample was 17.92%, and the average number of participating employees was 50 per organization.

3.3 | Measures

3.3.1 | Work-Life Policies

HR directors assessed the availability of WLPs using a 7-item scale ranging from 0 (not at all available) to 4 (completely available). The items included the extent to which their organization provided reduced work time, leave of absence, the option of taking time off in case of an emergency, and flexible work arrangements such as telecommuting, online technology at home, flexible starting and ending times, and flexible business trip scheduling. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) supported a one-factor structure for WLPs ($\chi^2(12) = 278.58$, $p < 0.001$, CFI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.10, SRMR = 0.05) (Hu and Bentler 1999). Thus, we treated formal WLPs as a single construct, as have previous studies (e.g., Ten Brummelhuis and Van der Lippe 2010). Cronbach's alpha was = 0.84 (see the Appendix for descriptions of all measures).

3.3.2 | Perceived Control Over Work Schedule

We measured employees' perception of control over work schedule using a 5-item scale designed by Karasek (1979), with answers ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*totally*). A sample item is "to what extent can you define your schedule independently from your boss?" Cronbach's alpha was 0.90.

3.3.3 | Job Satisfaction

We measured job satisfaction using a 3-item scale by Cammann et al. (1979). Respondents indicated how often the items described their perceptions, using a scale ranging from 1 = *never* to 5 = *always*. A sample item is "all in all, I am quite satisfied with my job." Cronbach's alpha was 0.78.

3.3.4 | Sales Growth

We computed *sales growth* from 2007 to 2009 using the following formula: Sales Growth = [(Sales T3 − Sales T1)*1/3] − 1.

3.3.5 | Organization-Level Control Variables

We included a set of organization-level variables potentially related to the availability of WLPs. *Gender of HR director* was dummy-coded and included as a control variable because research has suggested that organizations with powerful female stakeholders are likely to show higher responsiveness to work-family issues (Ingram and Simons 1995; Milliken et al. 1998). *Organizational size* was measured as the natural log of the number of employees in the organization and was included as a control because size influences the resources allocated to WLPs (Milliken et al. 1998) and because larger organizations may hold greater stakeholder expectations for WLPs than smaller ones. *Percentage of women in the organization* was included because previous research has suggested that as organizations become increasingly dependent upon women, they become more responsive to family needs (Goodstein 1994; Ingram and Simons 1995; Milliken et al. 1998). *Industry* dummy variables represent the manufacturing, commerce, and service sectors; previous research has suggested that there are systematic differences across industries in levels of work-family responsiveness (Milliken et al. 1998).

Past performance was measured as the natural log of year-end EBITDA (earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization) for 2007, the same year in which survey data were collected. This measure was available for 34 firms with a total of 1397 employee responses. Our dependent variable, sales growth, measures the (top-line) expansion of business activities, market share, or customer base. Measures of profitability like EBIDTA focus on operational efficiency—how well the company manages its resources to turn revenue into profit (the bottom line). We account for EBITDA in all our analyses to ensure that the

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relationship between WLPs and sales growth is not confounded by operational profitability.

3.3.6 | Individual-Level Control Variables

We included a set of individual-level controls potentially related to job satisfaction. *Employee gender* and *marital status* were dummy-coded. Gender is widely examined in the context of work-family research (Eby et al. 2005), as women still bear higher responsibility for familial and domestic responsibilities than men (Leonard 2001; Shockley and Allen 2012). Employees with partners are likely to have more nonwork or family obligations, and hence more work–family conflict than their single counterparts. The number of c*hildren* ranged from 0 to 10; it was included because having more children generally increases child-related responsibilities (Griggs et al. 2013; Shockley and Allen 2012). *Age* took a value of 1 for employees younger than 25, 2 for employees between the ages of 25 and 44, and 3 for employees older than 45. Age is very relevant to work–family conflict and has been included in previous studies (Allen 2001).

4 | Results

4.1 | Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 shows the mean, standard deviation, coefficient alpha, and intercorrelations for all variables in the study. At the organizational level, WLPs correlated positively with sales growth ($r = 0.17$, $p < 0.001$). At the individual level, perceived control over work schedule was positively related to job satisfaction ($r = 0.24$, $p < 0.001$).

4.2 | Analysis Overview

To assess the appropriateness of aggregating individual job-satisfaction scores at the organizational level, we examined intraclass correlations, that is, ICC (1) and ICC (2), as well as within-group agreement, that is, rWG(j). For employees' job satisfaction, ICC (1) was 0.08 and ICC (2) was 0.81. Across organizations, employees' job satisfaction had a median rWG(j) of 0.93, with 95.69% of organizations having rWG(j) higher than 0.70. Overall, these results suggest that within each of the organizations surveyed, employees shared similar job satisfaction. The ICC (1) values suggested the presence of meaningful intercompany differences, and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) results confirmed that there were significant differences in organization-level means of employee job satisfaction ($F(69, 3192) = 5.27$, $p < 0.001$). Taken together, this evidence justified aggregating employee job satisfaction at the organizational level.

We used structural equation modeling (SEM, Jöreskog and Sörbom 1993) to evaluate our model (Figure 1). SEM isolates the impact of each variable in the model by examining the relationships among multiple variables simultaneously. Following recommendations from Anderson and Gerbing (1988), we began by examining the measurement of the individual-level latent constructs to address concerns about both common method variance and discriminant validity. To do so, we first conducted a confirmatory factor analysis using maximum likelihood estimation (Bentler and Dudgeon 1996). Because our data were nested (3262 employees working for 70 different organizations), the variables were not independent, thereby violating the OLS regression assumption. That is, organizational membership might have consequences for individual team members beyond their idiosyncratic characteristics. To account for this possibility, we clustered standard errors (Rogers 1994) at the organizational level. Following Zhang et al.'s (2009) recommendations, we introduced two components of job satisfaction (at Levels 1 and 2). We computed job satisfaction at level 2 (i.e., across the organization) by averaging the individual responses for each company (grand-mean). We included this Level 2–job satisfaction component as well as employees' individual responses (i.e., job satisfaction at Level 1) to examine our predicted multilevel mediation effects (Hofmann and Gavin 1998; Waldman et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2009). To test the hypothesized model, we followed a multistep approach recommended by Shook et al. (2004). We first evaluated the fit of the hypothesized model and then conducted a series of nested model comparisons to test the sequential mediation model (MacKinnon et al. 2002).

4.3 | Hypotheses Testing

We tested Hypothesis 1, which examined the positive cross-level effect from organizational WLPs to individual job satisfaction through employees' perceived control over work schedule, using our full sample (3262 employees in 70 organizations). As shown in Model 1 (Table 2), the availability of WLPs was positively related to perceived control over work schedule ($b = 0.53$, $p < 0.001$), and perceived control over work schedule was in turn positively related to employee job satisfaction ($b = 0.16$, $p < 0.01$). Then we included a direct path from WLPs to employee job satisfaction in Model 2. This path was not significant ($b = -0.01$, ns.), suggesting that perceived control over work schedule fully mediated the relationship between WLPs and job satisfaction. We used a bootstrapping procedure to construct 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs) for the conditional indirect effects in Model 1, based on 5000 random samples with replacement from the full sample (Shrout and Bolger 2002). As expected, the results suggested a positive indirect relationship between WLPs and job satisfaction through perceived control over work schedule (indirect effect = 0.08, 95% CI = [0.08, 0.09]). These results provide support for our macro-to-micro-Hypothesis 1.

To test Hypothesis 2, which stated that organization-level job satisfaction is positively related to the firm's sales growth, we used a subsample of 39 companies for which we had sales growth information. As shown in Model 3 (Table 2), job satisfaction at level 2 (grand-mean-centered) was positively related to sales growth over 3 years ($b = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$), supporting Hypothesis 2.

To test Hypothesis 3, we examined our full serial mediation model depicted in Figure 1. We added three additional paths from WLPs, the individual's perceived control over time, and

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TABLE 1 | Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among variables studied.

	Variables studied	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Gender	0.52	0.50	—	0.07	0.00	−0.06	−0.06	−0.02	−0.03	0.36	0.74	−0.50	−0.02	0.45	0.25	0.59
2	Marital status[a]	0.56	0.50	−0.05	—	0.50	0.61	0.00	0.18	−0.02	0.36	0.02	−0.03	−0.10	−0.01	0.14	0.16
3	Number of children	1.11	1.11	−0.05	0.55	—	0.23	−0.20	0.07	0.16	0.13	−0.06	0.01	−0.04	0.00	−0.04	−0.11
4	Age[b]	3.42	1.40	−0.07	0.26	0.32	—	−0.05	0.09	0.00	0.24	−0.09	0.08	−0.10	0.06	0.08	−0.04
5	Control over work schedule	2.98	1.04	−0.06	0.03	0.00	0.05	—	0.38	−0.02	0.16	0.07	−0.09	−0.12	0.24	0.55	0.27
6	Job satisfaction	4.28	0.69	0.02	0.04	0.04	0.06	0.24	—	0.12	0.09	0.16	−0.19	0.08	−0.22	0.20	0.26
7	Gender of HR director[c]	0.53	0.50	−0.01	−0.01	0.06	0.00	−0.01	0.04	—	−0.15	−0.08	0.16	0.06	−0.49	0.14	−0.30
8	Organization size	6.50	1.50	0.11	0.10	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.03	−0.15	—	0.14	−0.18	−0.22	0.53	0.14	0.30
9	Percentage of female employees	38.53	16.87	0.23	0.00	−0.01	−0.03	0.04	0.05	−0.08	0.14	—	−0.57	0.06	0.35	0.32	0.55
10	Manufacturing	0.20	0.40	−0.16	−0.01	0.01	0.02	−0.05	−0.06	0.16	−0.18	−0.57	—	−0.17	−0.37	−0.19	−0.41
11	Commerce	0.10	0.30	−0.01	−0.03	−0.04	−0.03	−0.07	0.02	0.06	−0.22	0.06	−0.17	—	0.00	−0.29	−0.05
12	Past performance	15.88	2.15	0.16	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.12	−0.07	−0.49	0.53	0.35	−0.37	0.00	—	0.21	0.17
13	WLPs	3.20	0.73	0.08	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.30	0.06	0.14	0.14	0.32	−0.19	−0.29	0.21	—	0.17
14	Sales growth	−0.01	0.13	0.20	0.04	0.00	−0.01	0.13	0.08	−0.30	0.30	0.55	−0.41	−0.05	0.17	0.17	—

Note: $N = 3262$ for individual-level variables; $N = 70$ for organization-level variables. Individual-level correlations are below the diagonal; organization-level correlations are above the diagonal. Correlations greater than |0.04| are significant at $p < 0.05$; correlations greater than |0.05| are significant at $p < 0.01$; correlations greater than |0.06| are significant at $p < 0.001$.

[a]Marital status: 1 = married or living with a partner and 0 = unmarried, including separated, divorced, or widowed.

[b]Employee age took a value of 1 for employees 24 years old and under, 2 for employees between the ages of 25 and 44, and 3 for employees over the age of 45.

[c]Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female.

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TABLE 2 | Multilevel SEM models from WLPs to sales growth through control over work schedule and job satisfaction.

Final DV in the SEM model: job satisfaction	Model 1		Model 2			Final DV in the SEM model: sales growth	Model 3		Model 4			Best model (Mod. 3), controlling for past performance	
Variable	***b***	**SE**	***b***	**SE**	**Wald tests**	**Variable**	***b***	**SE**	***b***	**SE**	**Wald tests**	***b***	**SE**
WFSP ←													
Controls organizational level	Included		Included			*Controls organizational level*	Included		Included			Included	
						Past organizational performance	—		—			0.18*	0.08
Perceived control over time (CONTROL) ←						Perceived control over time (CONTROL) ←							
WFSP	0.53***	0.10	0.53***	0.07		WFSP	0.42***	0.09	0.45***	0.09		0.52***	0.10
Controls organizational level	Included		Included			*Controls organizational level*	Included		Included			Included	
Controls individual level	Included		Included			*Controls individual level*	Included		Included			Included	
Job satisfaction (JSATIS) ←						Job satisfaction (JSATIS) ←							
Perceived control over time	0.16**	0.05	0.17**	0.06		Perceived control over time	0.18***	0.02	0.27**	0.07		0.25**	0.07
WFSP			−0.01	0.04	0.10								
Controls organizational level	Included		Included			*Controls organizational level*	Included		Included			Included	
Controls individual level	Included		Included			*Controls individual level*	Included		Included			Included	
						Job satisfaction (JSATIS GRAND CENTERED) ←							
						Job satisfaction	0.11*	0.03	0.11*	0.03		0.11*	0.02
						Sales growth ←							
						Job satisfaction grand centered	0.16*	0.08	0.17*	0.08		0.17*	0.08
						WFSP			−0.01	0.02	0.28		

(Continues)

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TABLE 2 | (Continued)

Final DV in the SEM model: job satisfaction	Model 1		Model 2			Final DV in the SEM model: sales growth	Model 3		Model 4			Best model (Mod. 3), controlling for past performance	
Variable	***b***	**SE**	***b***	**SE**	**Wald tests**	**Variable**	***b***	**SE**	***b***	**SE**	**Wald tests**	***b***	**SE**
						Perceived control over time			0.00	0.01	0.30		
						Job satisfaction			−0.00	0.00	0.85		
						Controls organizational level	Included		Included			Included	
						Controls individual level	Included		Included			Included	
						Past organizational perfomance	—		—			−0.02	0.02
	β	95% CI					*β*	95% CI				*β*	95% CI
Indirect effect						*Indirect effect*							
JSATIS ← CONTROL ← WFSP	0.08	[0.08, 0.09]				JSATIS ← CONTROL ← WFSP	0.08	[0.05, 0.10]				0.09	[0.06, 0.11]
						Indirect effect							
						GROWTH ← JSATIS ← CONTROL ← WFSP	0.001	[0.001, 0.002]				0.002	[0.001, 0.002]
Sample						*Sample*							
Organizations		70		70		Organizations		39		39			34
Employees		2791		2791		Employees		1640		1640			1397
Fit indices						*Fit indices*							
CD		0.36		0.36		CD		0.60		0.61			0.66
SRMR		0.003		0.002		SRMR		0.033		0.034			0.024

Note: Results of SEM analyses using STATA. Errors are clustered at organizational level. With regard to global fit indices of the SEM models, we report the squared root mean of residuals (SRMR) and the coefficient of determination (CD) as these are the only fit indices available for models with clustered errors in STATA. Controls both at the organizational level (i.e., proportion of women, company sector, size, and gender of the HR director) and the individual level (i.e., age, gender, marital status, children) were taken into account.

***$p < 0.001$.

**$p < 0.01$.

*$p < 0.05$.

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individual job satisfaction directly to sales growth. As Model 4 shows, none of these effects were significant (−0.01, 0.00, and −0.00, ns., respectively for WLPs, individual perceived control over schedule, and individual job satisfaction), which suggested that the paths should not be retained and that job satisfaction at level 2 fully mediated the relationship between schedule-related WLPs and sales growth.

We used bootstrapping analyses to test the indirect effect of WLPs on sales growth through control over work schedule and job satisfaction at Level 2. The results from 5000 bootstrapping replications supported the indirect effect of the cross-level serial mediation: organization-level WLPs ➔ employee control over work schedule ➔ organization-level job satisfaction ➔ firm's sales growth ($p < 0.001$, 95% CIs of [0.001, 0.002]). These results supported Hypothesis 3, which states that the positive effect of WLPs on firm's sales growth is fully mediated by individual employees' perceived control over their work schedule, which in turn creates a shared job satisfaction among employees.

4.4 | Robustness Checks

We assessed whether our results would hold if we controlled for past financial performance in a smaller sample set of 34 companies for which we were able to match past EBITDA with individual and organizational variables and sales growth. The results (Model 5, in Table 2) were consistent with our previous findings, indicating that even if past financial performance significantly affected WLPs (0.18, $p < 0.05$), the indirect effect of WLPs on sales growth through perceived control over work schedule and job satisfaction remained statistically significant (0.002, 95% CIs of [0.001, 0.002]).

As Antonakis et al. (2010) recommend, we conducted a Hausman test to verify that a potential endogeneity issue did not bias the estimated coefficients. In an alternate model, we allowed correlation between the error terms of potentially endogenous variables measured through a common method (i.e., perceived control over work schedule and job satisfaction). The correlation coefficient between the error terms was not significant (−0.39, ns.), hence suggesting that endogeneity was not an issue.

5 | Discussion

Do WLPs designed to "do good" for employees by helping them juggle family and work roles also "do well" for the sponsoring organization? Our findings suggest that they do. Specifically, we show evidence of serial mediation where (1) WLPs enhance individual satisfaction by increasing employees' perceived control over work schedules (a macro-to-micro process); (2) individual job satisfaction has a cumulative, contagious effect (a micro-to-macro process); and (3) this collective satisfaction translates into increased sales growth over a three-year period. These findings should caution against restricting employees' sense of control in times of uncertainty—doing so may erode both employee morale and organizational competitiveness, especially as work-life boundaries grow complex in today's dual-earner and single-parent households (Allen et al. 2000; Aryee et al. 1999; Carr et al. 2008; Eby et al. 2005).

5.1 | Theoretical Contributions

Our findings contribute to the literature in several ways. First, by empirically linking the availability of WLPs to objective organizational performance through psychological mechanisms, we provide novel evidence addressing the long-standing question of whether WLPs "pay off" for firms. Our study is among the first to test the full indirect path from WLPs to organizational outcomes (for an exception, see Medina-Garrido et al. 2021, who relied on cross-sectional, self-rated job performance). Unlike most JD-R studies that focus on individual engagement or attitudinal outcomes, we propose and test a multilevel serial mediation model: organizational policy ➔ perceived control ➔ employee well-being ➔ collective job satisfaction ➔ firm-level sales growth. Establishing this link is especially meaningful given that psychological mechanisms are hard to trace through measurable business outcomes (Allen 2001; Baird and Reynolds 2004; Eaton 2003; Still and Strang 2003; Thompson et al. 2004). Our model thus connects the individual and business outcomes of organizational practices, rarely examined together in JD-R research, demonstrating that well-designed company policies are good not only for people, but also for business performance.

Second, our study addresses a long-standing gap in the WLPs literature and extends JD-R theory by integrating top-down and bottom-up pathways (Chen et al. 2004; Kelly et al. 2008; Kozlowski and Klein 2000). Specifically, how WLPs influence employee perceptions of autonomy (personal resources), which in turn shape individual well-being and eventually aggregate into collective outcomes such as job satisfaction and sales performance. Rather than treating job resources as static or isolated, we model a dynamic resource alignment across levels. Whereas macro studies have examined the links between WLPs' availability and perceptions of firm performance (Arthur 2003; Butts et al. 2013; Perry-Smith and Blum 2000; Shin and Enoh 2020), micro-level research has focused on individual WLPs usage and individual outcomes (Batt and Valcour 2003; Eaton 2003; Ferreira and Gomes 2023; Rothbard et al. 2005). Virtually no studies have integrated both levels of analysis (Kelly et al. 2008). As mentioned in the introduction, much of the existing research on WLPs has struggled to explain *why* and *how* these policies generate organizational value, calling for multilevel models that connect organizational practices to employee experiences and back to organizational outcomes (e.g., De Menezes and Kelliher 2011; Kelly et al. 2008; Masterson et al. 2021). By explicitly modeling these cross-level processes, our study responds to these calls while showing how individual satisfaction aggregates across individuals into shared attitudes positively associated with organizational performance. This finding is also consistent with theories of emotional contagion and group dynamics (Barsade 2002; Dineen et al. 2007), illustrating how *contextual* and *psychological* resources combine to produce cumulative outcomes.

By linking perceptual and attitudinal measures (e.g., Biron and van Veldhoven 2016; Helliwell and Huang 2011) to objective

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performance data (sales growth), our study offers a rare empirical insight into how positive psychological states can scale up. Although Judge et al. (2001) emphasized the importance of understanding the predictive value of satisfaction across levels, few studies have examined the influence of organizational WLPs on individual-level variables (Major et al. 2008; O'Neill et al. 2009), and virtually none have crossed levels and made the link onward to organizational outcomes.

Third, we contribute to theory by beginning to clarify the mechanism through which WLPs shape positive employee attitudes (Allen and French 2023; Casper et al. 2024). Social exchange theory (Blau 1964) has often been used to explain these effects, framing WLPs as signals of organizational support that employees want to reciprocate. We instead draw on the JD-R framework to highlight perceived control as a key mediating resource. This is important because, while JD-R acknowledges personal resources, it rarely specifies how contextual resources become personal ones (Xanthopoulou et al. 2007).

In our study, perceived control fully mediated the relationship between WLPs and individual job satisfaction. Moreover, this pathway continued through organizational job satisfaction to firm-level sales growth, thus contributing new insight to research into the micro-foundations of organizational competitiveness (Abell et al. 2008; Felin et al. 2015). We also extend JD-R theory by integrating compositional emergence (Kozlowski and Klein 2000) and resource-gain spirals (Hsu et al. 2021) in a multilevel serial mediation chain, whereby *contextual* resources (like WLPs) generate *personal* resources (like perceived control), which in turn promote outcomes such as engagement, coordination, and ultimately tangible business outcomes rarely employed in WLP research (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Mazzetti et al. 2023; Tims et al. 2013).

Fourth, our findings also speak to broader HR frameworks such as the high-performance work systems and human capital theory (e.g., Combs et al. 2006). Indeed, WLPs might enhance opportunities to perform, reinforcing the idea that flexible work practices are not peripheral benefits but core components of strategic HR systems. Our findings also align with perceived organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al. 1986), suggesting that employees seemingly interpret WLPs as signals that their organization values their well-being, activating motivational and performance-enhancing responses.

Finally, our methodological approach strengthens confidence in the business case for WLPs. The use of time-lagged, multi-source data from HR professionals, employees, and organizational records enhances internal validity and overcomes limitations of prior studies that relied on small, cross-sectional, or self-reported data (e.g., Ali et al. 2015; McCloskey and Igbaria 2003; Medina-Garrido et al. 2021), particularly in regard to tangible criteria of organizational success (Kelliher and Anderson 2010; Perry-Smith and Blum 2000). We also theorize that the translation from contextual to personal to collective resource unfolds over distinct time horizons: perceptions of control and well-being emerge relatively quickly, whereas their positive effects on firm performance materialize over longer periods. This temporal perspective adds a novel and theoretically meaningful nuance to the JD-R framework, enriching understanding of how resources endure and diffuse over time.

By controlling for past performance, we addressed concerns raised by Wright et al. (2005) that studies examining the link between HR and performance might be confounded by prior success. In our data, even after accounting for past sales, collective satisfaction remained a significant predictor of growth. This finding reinforces the idea that WLPs, particularly those enhancing employee control, can generate not only positive attitudes but also tangible benefits. As economic and social uncertainty continues to reign over the future of work, our findings underscore the strategic value of WLPs as a resource-enhancing investment for sustainability.

5.2 | Limitations and Future Research

Despite its strengths, this study has limitations. The EU-based dataset (2007–2009) was collected over a decade ago, which may raise external validity questions. However, this time frame offers unique value as a natural "stress test" for evaluating the robustness of HR practices that enable organizations to "do well while doing good." This period, marked by the global financial crisis, tested the resilience of both employee well-being and organizational capacity to maintain performance and growth. Evidence from the United States during the Great Recession of 2007–2009 shows that financial stress negatively affected mental health (Forbes and Krueger 2019) as many organizations faced resource constraints and employee job security became a key concern. Similarly, the COVID-19 pandemic produced even greater disruptions in economic activity, with research confirming that increases in financial stress predict declines in individual well-being (Simonse et al. 2022). By analyzing data from a comparable adverse period, our study assesses whether the benefits of WLPs persist under turbulent economic conditions. This supports the generalizability of our findings by demonstrating that the positive effects of WLPs on employee well-being and sales growth are not confined to stable contexts but extend to volatile environments.

Besides, this period between 2007 and 2009 offers a rare pre-pandemic baseline that allows a long-term perspective on the enduring value of autonomy. The economic and social turbulence of that period mirrors many of the post-2020 debates on hybrid work, digital flexibility and AI-mediated autonomy. Our findings speak directly to these contemporary challenges leading people and change, showing that the consequences of flexible work arrangements depend not only on their structural availability but also on employees' psychological experience of autonomy and support (e.g., Kniffin et al. 2021; Spurk and Straub 2020). For instance, AI-mediated autonomy and asynchronous collaboration may amplify the benefits of flexibility by reducing task interdependence and increasing perceived control. While our research provides empirical evidence that remains highly relevant in today's rapidly evolving workplace, future research should examine whether the relationships observed here hold in increasingly digital and hybrid organizational settings.

Although the inclusion of objective sales growth data adds value to our analyses, only a subset of participating organizations

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provided this information. This partial availability may limit the representativeness of our findings concerning organizational-level outcomes and suggests the need for additional studies with more complete and diverse performance metrics.

While we focus on job satisfaction and sales growth, our model overlooks other important behavioral and long-term outcomes that may result from increased perceived control and access to job resources. Future research could explore effects on retention, absenteeism, innovation, or team effectiveness to build a more comprehensive picture of the impact of WLPs.

Similarly, the effectiveness of WLPs is likely influenced by contextual moderators not included in our model. For instance, leadership behaviors, organizational culture, or the quality of policy implementation may shape how employees perceive and respond to these policies. Further studies should examine how such contextual factors strengthen or attenuate the relationship between job resources and employee or organizational outcomes.

Despite the time lag between our measurement of the availability of WLPs and our measurement of sales growth, our nonexperimental design does not permit unequivocal cause-and-effect inferences. Although we conceive WLPs as an organizational intervention, our research design did not involve a control group or a comparison of randomized groups. Future research using quasi-experimental designs or natural experiments would be valuable for strengthening confidence in the causal links between the provision of WLPs, psychological resources such as perceived control, and in turn, effects on performance and well-being. Future longitudinal designs (Glass and Estes 1997) may also more precisely pinpoint the lag between WLPs and both individual and firm outcomes.

Continued research is also warranted to identify the specific organization-level constructs that are most likely associated with various firm performance indicators. For instance, we proposed that organization-level job satisfaction generates prosocial behaviors that lead to sales growth (Bahadir et al. 2009). Researchers should also examine these prosocial behaviors and their effects on other performance indicators, such as innovation or operational performance (e.g., return on assets [ROA] or return on sales [ROS]).

Future research should also continue to refine our knowledge of the process through which WLPs cascade their effects, including other potential mediators such as employees' vitality and the ensuing creative work behaviors (Kark and Carmeli 2009). Furthermore, research should examine how WLP implementation conditions—such as how WLPs are communicated, their clarity, stability, and participation requirements—determine their effectiveness.

The job satisfaction–job performance relationship has long been a subject of debate. Although interest in this topic can be traced back to the Hawthorne studies, meta-analytic reviews like those of Judge et al. (2001) and Riketta (2008) highlight that results are still mixed. Our study suggests that this relationship is complex and crosses levels of analysis. We acknowledge that other perspectives suggest that job performance influences job attitudes (e.g., Lawler and Porter 1967) or that job performance and job attitudes influence each other. Future studies using longitudinal designs should further explore satisfaction-performance dynamics over time.

Our findings emphasize the importance of designing WLPs that effectively balance job demands and resources. WLPs should play a critical role in providing resources that foster resilience while increasing organizational performance. We did not hypothesize boundary conditions to the effects of WLPs on sales growth. Future research should explore how individual and even macroeconomic factors influence the effectiveness of WLPs. Preliminary exploratory analysis suggested that the effects of WLPs on perceived control did not depend on individual age or gender, or on organization size. However, we found that perceived control had a stronger effect among younger employees (chi^2 difference = 5.04, $p = 0.025$) and, surprisingly, among employees with no children (chi^2 difference = 6.57, $p = 0.010$). Future research should theorize more explicitly about the boundary conditions of WLP effects.

5.3 | Practical Implications and Conclusion

Our findings offer practical implications for HR professionals and organizational leaders navigating the ongoing tension between flexibility and performance. As we noted in the introduction, while some firms embrace flexibility as a catalyst for productivity, others fear it undermines business outcomes. Our study helps reconcile these opposing views by showing that accessibility to WLPs can enhance employees' psychological resources—specifically, perceived control—which in turn improves job satisfaction and ultimately supports sales growth. In doing so, we highlight that flexibility need not come at the expense of performance; rather, it may serve as a strategic lever for improving both the employee experience and organizational competitiveness.

Our findings may also help explain why not all flexible work initiatives may produce positive outcomes. As research on flexibility stigma and coordination challenges suggests (e.g., Bourdeau et al. 2019; Osso and Halinski 2025), WLPs can backfire when they are inconsistently implemented, poorly communicated, or culturally unsupported, such that they do not bring an enhanced sense of control to employees. Indeed, as predicted by the JD-R model, employees' psychological experience, and not merely policy design, appears to be the key driver of motivation and behavior.

Our findings offer practical implications for HR professionals and leaders who seek to design WLPs that promote both well-being and sustainable performance. First, organizations might consider involving employees in the design and customization of WLPs to enhance perceived control, for example, through surveys and focus groups. Flexibility could also be more effective when paired with autonomy, allowing employees to decide when and where to work within agreed parameters, rather than rigid hybrid mandates. Second, managerial support seems critical for WLPs to translate into individual and business benefits. Training managers to normalize and encourage the use of WLPs without stigma may reinforce trust and autonomy. A hands-off,

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supportive leadership style can help reduce micromanagement and strengthen the resource-building impact of WLPs. Third, fostering a psychologically safe culture through team-level co-design (e.g., right-to-disconnect norms) may help embed flexibility as a shared practice rather than an individual exception. Finally, leveraging digital platforms for asynchronous collaboration could enable employees to manage their time more independently, supporting well-being, trust and sustainable performance.

Taken together, our findings suggest that investing in flexible work practices is not only a humanistic effort intended to support employees. These policies symbolize a strategic decision with measurable organizational returns. In an era plagued by heightened economic uncertainty and job insecurity arising from technological advances such as artificial intelligence, our results strengthen the business case for WLPs that increase employees' control over their time, hence allowing them the discretion to find a balance between their work and life spheres.

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Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

Endnotes

[1] SABI is similar to COMPUSTAT in the United States, except that it also includes firms that are not publicly traded. Since nearly all participating public companies are local branches of large multinational companies listed in various stock exchange markets all over the world, they follow different financial reporting rules. Therefore, we selected only nonpublic companies to achieve a more consistent comparison of sales growth measures.

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Appendix A

Description of Survey Measures

Organization's Work-Life Policies

- To what extent does your organization provide reduced work time?
- To what extent does your organization provide leave of absence for personal and family reasons?
- To what extent does your organization provide short holidays or permission to take time off?
- To what extent does your organization avoid meetings outside working hours?
- To what extent does your organization allow employees to work from home?
- To what extent does your organization provide online technology at home when telecommuting?
- To what extent does your organization provide flexible starting and ending times?

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Employee's Perceived Control Over Work Schedule

- To what extent can you define your schedule independently from your boss?
- To what extent can you define your schedule independently from your coworkers?
- To what extent can you decide when you are going to do your job?
- How much autonomy do you have to decide when to start or end your workday?
- How much freedom do you have to define your own schedule?

Appendix B

Employee's Attitude About Job Satisfaction

- Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my work.
- All in all, I am quite satisfied with my job.
- I am happy with the type of tasks performed at work.

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