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Aydın Çivilidağ & Şerife Durmaz

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The Relationship of Flexible Working Arrangements on Work-Family Conflict, Work-Life Balance and Organizational Commitment: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis

Aydın Çivilidağ[1] , Şerife Durmaz[2,*]

[1]Akdeniz University, Literary Faculty, Department of Psychology, Antalya, Türkiye, aydinc@akdeniz.edu.tr

[2]Akdeniz University, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Department of Labour Economics and Industrial Relations, Antalya, Türkiye, serifedurmaz@akdeniz.edu.tr

[*]Corresponding Author: serifedurmaz@akdeniz.edu.tr

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Abstract

Background: Technological advances and the COVID–19 pandemic have fundamentally reshaped the global work landscape, establishing flexible work arrangements (FWAs)—such as schedule flexibility and remote work—as a permanent feature of contemporary employment. This shift necessitates a rigorous quantitative synthesis of how FWAs relate to critical employee and organizational outcomes. This study examines the associations between FWAs and work–life balance (WLB), work–family conflict (WFC), and organizational commitment (OC).

Methods: A systematic review and meta–analysis was conducted across five electronic databases. Initially, 3,777 records were identified. Following the application of strict inclusion and quality criteria, 38 studies from 19 countries (N = 83,951) were selected for analysis. Data were synthesized using the Comprehensive Meta–Analysis (CMA 3.0) software, employing a random–effects model to calculate pooled effect sizes.

Results: The findings revealed significant and relatively large positive correlations between FWAs and WLB ($r = .39$, $p < .001$) and between FWAs and OC ($r = .29$, $p < .001$). Conversely, while the correlation between FWAs and WFC was positive ($r = .25$), it was statistically non–significant ($p > .05$). Meta–regression identified between countries the level of economic development as a significant moderator ($p < .001$), with the positive relationship of flexibility being significantly more pronounced in developed countries compared to developing nations.

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Conclusion: This meta–analysis provides robust evidence that FWAs are an effective strategic tool for enhancing WLB and substantially strengthening OC. However, their impact on reducing WFC remains less conclusive and is highly context–sensitive. Organizations are encouraged to formally adopt and support FWAs to improve employee well–being and foster loyalty, while remaining mindful of the macro–level institutional frameworks that shape flexibility outcomes.

Keywords: Flexible work schedules, work-life balance, work-family conflict, organizational engagement, meta-analysis.

Background

Since the widespread diffusion of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in organizations from the late 1990s onwards, and more intensively during the early 21st century, employers have been compelled to reconsider traditional job designs and working-time patterns in favor of flexible working arrangements (FWAs) [1, 2]. During this period, employee demands regarding wages, working conditions, and the reconciliation of work and family responsibilities have become increasingly prominent. The COVID-19 pandemic (2019–2022), in particular, profoundly disrupted the global world of work, accelerating the adoption of FWAs far beyond previous health crises. Consequently, flexible working shifted from a discretionary practice to a structural necessity for organizational and job continuity. According to Gasic and Berber [3], various forms of flexibility—such as telework, remote work, and working from home—became the new norm for a vast portion of the global workforce. Conceptually, while teleworking refers to work performed away from the employer's premises using ICTs, working from home represents a specific subtype where the primary workplace is the domestic environment. During the pandemic, many employees were required to maintain operations via digital tools such as e-mail and online meeting software [4]. Rapid technological advances, coupled with the constraints of COVID-19, thus forced organizations to redesign work processes and more permanently integrate these FWAs [5, 6]. Through FWAs, employees were able to perform tasks remotely and/or outside standard working hours, thereby sustaining work continuity while attempting to reduce health risks [7, 8]. For many organizations, FWAs functioned as a lifeline to maintain operations under unprecedented conditions. At the same time, the widespread adoption of FWAs has generated

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paradoxical consequences for both employees and organizations. These arrangements can reshape employees' responsibilities towards their families, their roles at home, and their attitudes and bonds towards their organizations. For instance, some employees were not fully compensated for overtime or additional hours worked at home, while others—especially parents—had to provide childcare and perform household tasks concurrently with paid work. This often led to interruptions, role overload, and increased work–family conflict (WFC) [9]. These developments highlight that flexibility in where and when work is performed does not automatically translate into improved well-being or better boundaries between work and non-work domains.

In this context, work–life balance (WLB) has emerged as a central concept in understanding how individuals manage the interface between their professional and personal lives. Work–life imbalance is associated with strain, stress, and maladaptive behavior both inside and outside the workplace [10]. Blurred boundaries between work and family may give rise to tension and WFC, which in turn can lead to deteriorations in job performance, reduced satisfaction with work and life, and impaired psychological health. Importantly, WLB is not solely a function of working hours; conflicts between work and family demands can also diminish the time and energy available for leisure, self-care, and recovery activities. One of the key arguments put forward by organizations to support employees' WLB is the provision of FWAs, which can grant employees greater autonomy over their working time and workplace, thus potentially facilitating the alignment of work schedules with personal needs and family responsibilities [11]. However, FWAs may also shape work–family conflict (WFC), conceptualized as a form of inter-role conflict in which role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible. While flexible schedules and locations can reduce time-based and strain-based conflict for some employees, they may intensify role blurring and increase the permeability of boundaries for others, thereby exacerbating WFC. At the organizational level, these experiences and perceptions can further influence employees' organizational commitment (OC), representing their psychological attachment and loyalty to the organization. Employees' evaluations of FWAs, and their consequences for WLB and WFC, are therefore likely to be closely linked to the extent to which they feel supported and committed to their organizations.

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Although a growing number of empirical studies have examined the relationships between FWAs, WLB, WFC, and OC, the evidence remains fragmented. Previous research has synthesized qualitative findings on FWAs and WLB/WFC [12, 13]; however, to our knowledge, there is no comprehensive quantitative meta-analysis that jointly examines the relationship between FWAs, WLB, WFC, and OC while accounting for the post-COVID-19 context and recent technological transformations. This gap limits the ability to draw robust, cumulative conclusions about the effect size and direction of these relationships across diverse national and organizational settings. Against this background, the present study conducts a systematic review and meta-analysis to estimate the average effect sizes of the relationships between FWAs and three key outcomes: WLB, WFC, and OC. In addition, the study explores whether these relationships differ according to countries' levels of economic development. Following the World Bank [14] classification, countries are grouped into three categories: high-income (developed), upper-/lower-middle-income (developing), and low-income (least developed). By synthesizing quantitative evidence from multiple countries, this meta-analysis aims to contribute to the organizational behavior literature by clarifying the overall role of FWAs in shaping employee outcomes in the contemporary world of work.

Flexible Work Arrangements (FWAs)

With the transition to the new millennium, rapid developments in information and communication technologies (ICTs), globalization, and the recent COVID-19 pandemic have accelerated structural changes in professional life. In this context, new working models, generally referred to as flexible work arrangements (FWAs), have become increasingly prominent. Demerouti et al. [15] argue that these models are characterized by three key dimensions of flexibility. The first is temporal flexibility, referring to employees' autonomy to decide when to work. The second is spatial flexibility, which allows tasks to be performed outside the traditional office environment (e.g., at home, in co-working spaces, or while traveling). The third is technological flexibility, involving the intensive use of ICTs—such as smartphones, cloud computing, and video-conferencing—to carry out work independent of time and place [15, 16].

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However, work flexibility extends beyond time and location; it also encompasses the division of labor, leave policies, part-time work, and the duration or form of employment contracts [17]. In this sense, FWAs can be broadly conceptualized as the degree of control employees have over the scheduling and duration of their work [18]. This may involve varying start and end times, compressing weekly hours into fewer days, or adjusting daily workloads. Consequently, FWAs include a diverse set of practices such as flexitime, telework, compressed workweeks, job sharing, and annualized hours [16, 19].

From the employee perspective, such arrangements can reduce the time pressure and stress associated with rigid schedules, allowing saved travel time to be redirected toward personal or family-related needs [16, 20]. From the organizational perspective, granting autonomy over the timing and location of work may reduce occupational stress and enhance organizational commitment (OC) and job performance by increasing employees' perceived control over their work [16, 21, 22, 23]. Additionally, FWAs help organizations mitigate costs related to turnover, absenteeism, and physical office space [24, 25, 26, 27].

Despite these potential advantages, the literature on FWAs also reports paradoxical and sometimes contradictory findings, as workplace flexibility research has produced 'mixed results and varied consequences for employees and employers' [28]. Critics argue that flexibility may lead to decreased discipline, weakened professional identity, and limited opportunities for informal learning and skill development due to reduced face-to-face contact with colleagues and supervisors. This may result in professional and social isolation, aligning with evidence on disadvantages such as a 'sense of isolation from co-workers, 'lack of training,' and workers remaining 'unskilled' under FWAs [29].

Moreover, FWAs can blur the boundaries between work and non–work domains. Scholars note that boundaries between work–family spheres are 'increasingly blurring' as employees respond to personal and work communications across domains, and as technologies can 'turn homes into electronic work cottages, expanding work into family time, and the reverse' [30]. In this context, Kossek et al. [31], introduce the concepts of 'job creep' and 'family creep' to describe such boundary permeation. Job creep refers to the intrusion of work into the home sphere at times when the employee or family members would prefer separation, whereas family (or personal life) creep occurs when personal responsibilities intrude into the workplace at times when employees or co–workers may prefer to maintain a professional

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focus [31, 32]. Accordingly, FWAs may either support or undermine WLB, depending on how they are designed, implemented, and managed. On the one hand, FWAs can facilitate better alignment between work and family responsibilities, especially when employees have high control over their schedules and receive strong organizational support [16, 33]. For example, flexible schedules allow male employees to reallocate former commuting time to home and family needs, while female employees may use this time to manage domestic responsibilities and enhance their quality of life [33].

On the other hand, in the absence of clear boundary management strategies and supportive organizational norms, temporal and spatial flexibility may intensify role overload and increase WFC by extending work into non–standard hours and private spaces. FWAs and mobile technologies make it 'increasingly possible to work anytime and anyplace,' potentially turning homes into 'electronic work cottages' and expanding work into family time, and vice versa [30]. Similarly, smartphones enable employees to extend their working hours, increasing cross–domain interruptions and the likelihood that work–related issues will spill over to the private domain [32].

In sum, FWAs represent a multidimensional set of practices that alter the temporal, spatial, and technological boundaries of work. As such, they are a critical contextual factor that can shape employee WLB, well–being, and performance in both beneficial and detrimental ways. Understanding these ambivalent effects is essential for interpreting empirical findings on FWAs and for designing flexibility policies that truly support employees' WLB.

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Work-Life Balance (WLB)

Work–life balance (WLB) generally refers to an individual’s perception that work and non–work activities are compatible and promote growth in line with their current life priorities. From this perspective, balance is understood less as the mere absence of conflict and more as an overall sense of satisfaction with the alignment between professional and personal roles [34].

Recent literature emphasizes that WLB is a subjective and multidimensional construct. It involves not only the distribution of time and energy across roles but also the perceived quality of functioning in these roles and the extent to which they are experienced as mutually supportive rather than competing

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[1, 35]. In this sense, WLB highlights the need to achieve a configuration between work and private life that allows employees to realize their productivity at work while simultaneously meeting needs related to family, social interaction, and personal interests. Empirical findings indicate that higher levels of WLB are associated with better management of time and energy, lower work–related stress, and improved mental and emotional well–being [36, 37]. Employees who experience greater balance tend to report higher job satisfaction and performance, whereas poor balance is linked to fatigue, strain, and reduced functioning in both work and non–work domains [35, 38]. Accordingly, WLB is considered a critical issue for employees across all sectors.

In the broader literature, a lack of WLB is often conceptualized in terms of work–family conflict (WFC), where demands from professional and personal domains are mutually incompatible [39]. From this conflict perspective, WLB can be defined as satisfaction and effective functioning with minimal role conflict. However, more recent approaches argue that WLB should also encompass positive aspects, such as enrichment and facilitation between roles, rather than being reduced solely to the absence of conflict [35, 40]. In this study, WLB is treated as a key attitudinal and well–being outcome reflecting how well an employee's multiple roles fit together. Within this framework, WFC emerges as a central mechanism through which the misalignment between roles manifests, warranting closer examination as a critical determinant of overall WLB.

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Work-Family Conflict (WFC)

Work–family conflict (WFC), as defined by Greenhaus and Beutell [41] based on the work of Kahn et al. [42], is a type of inter–role conflict in which pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible. Essentially, participation in one role becomes more difficult due to the requirements of the other. WFC manifests when professional demands intrude upon family responsibilities outside of standard hours, or conversely, when domestic obligations hinder the performance of work duties. Classically, WFC includes time–based and strain–based conflicts. Time–based conflict occurs when hours dedicated to work limit the ability to fulfill family roles, while strain–based conflict arises when work–related stress leads to physical or mental strain that impairs an employee’s functioning within the family unit [43].

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According to Grönlund and Öun [44], WFC—or more specifically, work–to–family conflict—encompasses subjective experiences of stress caused by professional demands on domestic life. This pressure can lead to negative consequences such as burnout, anxiety, reduced life satisfaction, and deteriorated parent–child relationships. To explain this phenomenon, role strain theory posits that managing multiple roles is inherently difficult because individuals possess limited time, energy, and emotional resources. When demands from both domains clash, individuals experience role overload, which is a primary driver of WFC [11].

Alternatively, boundary theory views the work environment and the family as distinct social spheres, focusing on the maintenance of boundaries and the process of 'boundary crossing' between them. Key concepts here are permeability—the extent to which elements of one domain intrude into another—and flexibility—the malleability of spatial and temporal boundaries. In the context of home–based telework, frequent interruptions by family members indicate high permeability of the workspace [45]. From this perspective, FWAs may paradoxically lead to the violation of boundaries and role confusion. Such difficulties in maintaining clear work–family boundaries may eventually undermine employees' organizational commitment (OC), as role ambiguity and negative affective experiences weaken their emotional attachment to the organization.

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Organizational Commitment (OC)

Organizational commitment (OC) is a central concept for understanding how employees relate to their organizations. Mowday et al. [46], define OC as the attitudes and behaviors that reflect employees' preference to attach themselves to an organization by foregoing alternative courses of action. It is a psychological state characterizing the employee's relationship with the organization through the adoption of its goals, norms, and values [47]. Essentially, OC is a mental attitude that defines the bond between employees and their employers, ultimately shaping intentions to stay or leave [48].

According to Rosyadi and Bayudhirgantara [49], OC is generally conceptualized as an individual's loyalty, involvement in organizational life, and willingness to exert effort for the organization's success. Meyer and Herscovitch [50] argue that OC is a multidimensional construct consisting of affective,

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continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to emotional attachment and identification; continuance commitment reflects an awareness of the costs associated with leaving; and normative commitment is based on a felt obligation to remain [51]. Theories explaining work–family relations, such as role strain theory and boundary theory, offer an indirect lens for understanding the maintenance of OC. Role strain theory posits that managing multiple roles is demanding; when FWAs help reduce strain, employees may experience greater satisfaction, fostering stronger affective attachment. Conversely, if flexibility increases role overload, it may weaken OC. Boundary theory focuses on how individuals create and cross boundaries between work and personal domains. While FWAs can enhance autonomy, the violation of boundaries (e.g., constant availability or role spillover) can lead to role confusion that negatively affects work–family relationships and, in turn, diminishes OC. Thus, the design of FWAs is critical in shaping the quality of commitment. Many studies indicate that FWAs are positively relationship with WLB and affective OC, although in some contexts flexibility is only a weak determinant [47, 52, 53]. Additionally, FWAs and OC have been shown to jointly predict higher organizational performance [54].

Research Questions

In light of these theoretical frameworks, the present systematic review aims to reveal the effect size and nature of the relationships between FWAs and employees' WLB, WFC, and OC, while accounting for the explanatory roles of role strain and boundary theories. Accordingly, the research questions (RQs) are as follows:

- RQ1: What is the relationship between FWAs and WLB?
- RQ2: What is the relationship between FWAs and WFC?
- RQ3: What is the relationship between FWAs and OC?

  Additionally, for exploratory purposes, our research question based on countries' levels of development:
- RQ4: Do the relationships between FWAs and WLB, WFC, and OC differ according to the level of economic development of countries?

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Materials and Methods

This study was conducted following the Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis methodology. A meta-analysis was applied to synthesize effect sizes from multiple independent studies, providing a robust quantitative overview of the relationships between FWAs, WLB, WFC, and OC. The PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) 2020 flow diagram was utilized to ensure the systematic nature and transparency of the research process (See Figure 4). The research design, specific inclusion and exclusion criteria, data collection procedures, coding, publication bias assessments, and study quality evaluations are detailed in the following sections.

Criteria for Inclusion and Exclusion

The specific inclusion criteria established for this meta-analysis are as follows:

- ✓ Research conducted and published between 2014 and 2024 (up to May 18, 2024).
- ✓ Peer-reviewed articles and theses indexed in the EBSCO host, Google Scholar, Scopus, Taylor & Francis, and Web of Science (WoS) databases.
- ✓ Studies specifically examining the relationships between FWAs and at least one of the following outcomes: WLB, WFC, or OC.
- ✓ Quantitative research utilizing the survey method (either face-to-face or via digital platforms).
- ✓ Studies providing sufficient statistical data to calculate effect sizes, specifically reporting Pearson correlation coefficients (r) for the relevant variables.
- ✓ Full-text articles and theses available in electronic format.
- ✓ Manuscripts written in English.

The decision to include theses alongside peer-reviewed articles was based on the fact that theses undergo a rigorous jury evaluation process comparable to peer review and require formal ethical approval, thereby ensuring methodological reliability. Quantitative research utilizing the survey method (either face-to-face or via digital platforms) was included, as surveys represent the most commonly used and methodologically comparable approach for measuring [FWA, WLB, WFC and

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OC] across diverse populations. Other quantitative designs (e.g., experimental or secondary data analyses) were excluded to ensure conceptual and methodological consistency.

Studies were excluded if they met any of the following conditions:

- ✓ Published before 2014 or after the search cutoff date of May 18, 2024.
- ✓ Indexed in databases other than those specified.
- ✓ Focused on topics unrelated to the primary constructs of interest (e.g., studies not measuring FWAs, WLB, WFC or OC).
- ✓ Non-empirical or qualitative in nature (e.g., books, book chapters, conference presentations, case reports, or theoretical papers).
- ✓ Lack of access to full-text or online versions (physical-only copies).
- ✓ Published in languages other than English.

Data Collection Process and Coding Variables

The data collection process was conducted between February 2 and May 18, 2024, in strict adherence to the established inclusion criteria. A systematic search was performed across the EBSCO host, Google Scholar, Scopus, Taylor & Francis, and Web of Science databases. To address the editorial request for a detailed search strategy, the following Boolean operators was utilized to identify relevant studies: ("flexible work arrangements" OR "flexible working" OR "flexible work process" OR "flexible work schedules" OR "flexi work" OR "flexitime") AND ("work–family conflict" OR "work–life balance" OR "work–life harmony" OR "work–family interface") AND ("organizational commitment" OR "organizational engagement"). Following the initial search, the researchers independently screened titles and abstracts. Studies meeting the inclusion criteria were subjected to full-text review. Eligible data were systematically coded into a standardized Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The independent datasets were then cross-referenced to identify and remove duplicates, resulting in a final pool of 38 studies. Specifically, 12 studies provided data for the FWAs–WLB association, 13 studies for FWAs–WFC, and 13 studies for FWAs–OC. Any discrepancies during the coding or selection phases were resolved through iterative discussion and consensus between the researchers.

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Publications Bias

To ensure the robustness of the meta-analytic findings, potential publication bias was assessed through visual inspection of funnel plots and the calculation of the Classic fail-safe N for each variable set. For the FWAs–WLB association, the funnel plot exhibited some degree of asymmetry (See Figure 1), suggesting potential publication bias. However, the Classic fail-safe N analysis yielded a Z-value of 28.597 ($p < .01$) and a fail-safe N of 2,543. This indicates that 2,543 unpublished studies with null results would be required to reduce the cumulative effect size to a non-significant level at $\alpha = .01$, suggesting that the observed bias is unlikely to invalidate the findings. For the FWAs–WFC relationship, the funnel plot appeared largely symmetric (See Figure 2), indicating minimal evidence of publication bias. This was corroborated by a fail-safe N of 2,954 ($Z = 29.607$, $p < .01$), confirming the stability of the results. For the FWAs–OC association, effect sizes were predominantly clustered around the mean effect, representing an absence of marked publication bias (See Figure 3). The analysis yielded a fail-safe N of 2,326 ($Z = 26.285$, $p < .01$).

In summary, the combination of visual and statistical indicators suggests that while publication bias may be slightly more pronounced in the FWAs–WLB analysis, its overall effect size across all variables is small to moderate and does not fundamentally alter the substantive interpretation of the results.

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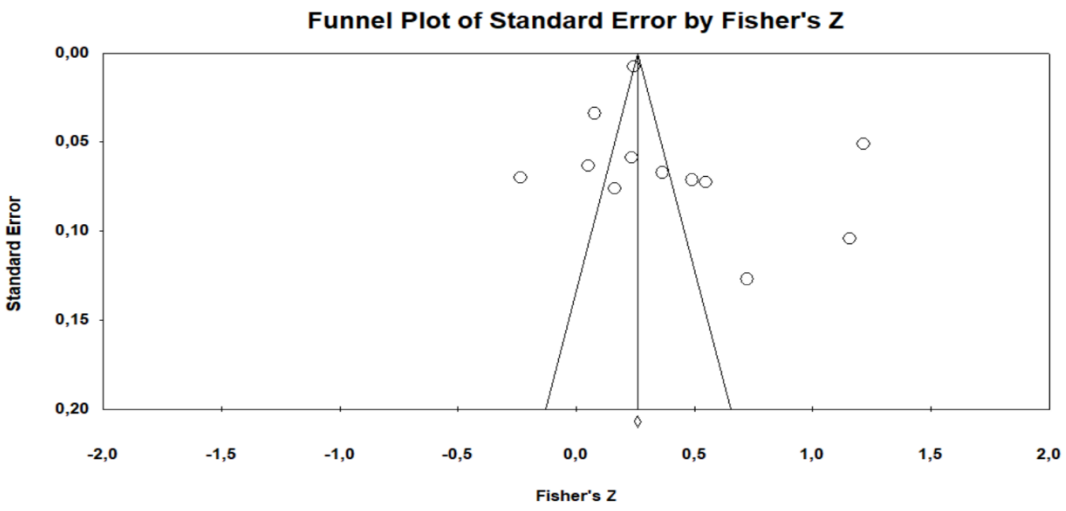


Figure 1. FWAs and WLB funnel plot.

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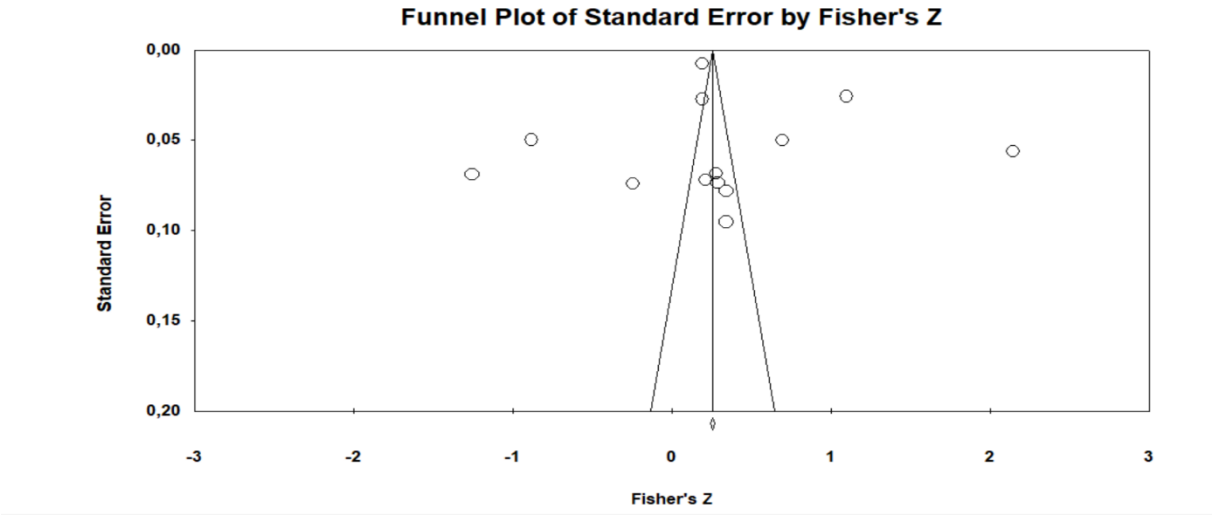
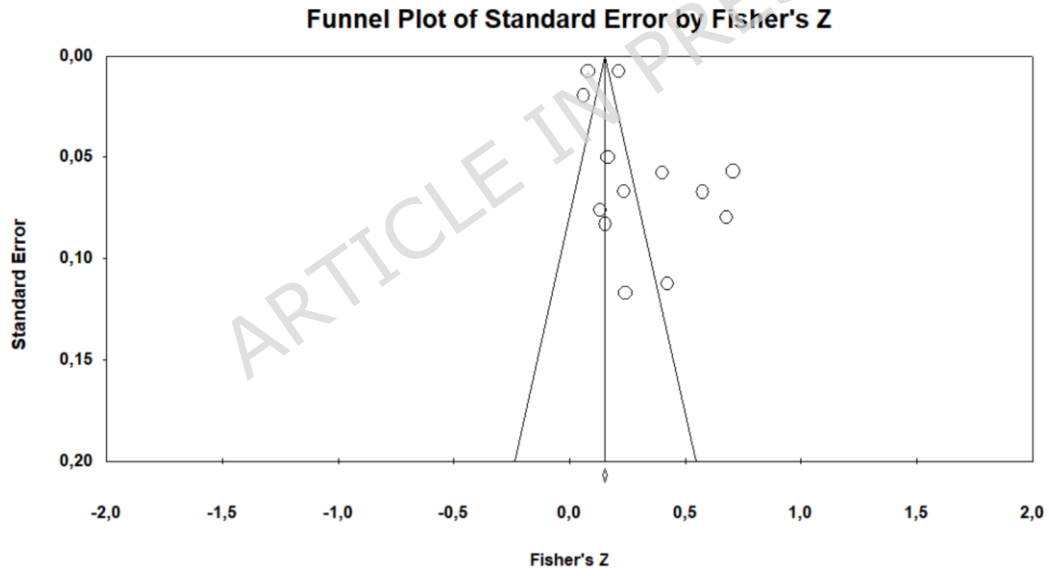


Figure 2. FWAs and WFC funnel plot.



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Figure 3. FWAs and OC funnel plot.

Quality Assessment

The methodological quality of the included studies was assessed using the Appraisal Tool for Cross–Sectional Studies (AXIS) [55]. This tool was specifically selected to address design quality, reporting

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transparency, and the risk of bias in cross–sectional research, as requested by the editorial guidelines. The evaluation was conducted independently by two researchers, and any discrepancies were resolved through iterative discussion and consensus to ensure inter–rater reliability.

The AXIS tool consists of a 20-item checklist covering five critical domains:

- Introduction: Clarity of research aims.
- Methods: Study design, sample size justification, target population, measurement validity and reliability, and statistical analysis.
- Results: Descriptive data integrity and response rates.
- Discussion: Justification of conclusions and acknowledgment of limitations.
- Ethics: Funding disclosures and ethical approval.

Each item was evaluated as 'Yes', 'No', or 'Don’t Know'. To categorize the methodological rigor, studies were assigned a quality score based on the total number of 'Yes' responses: high quality (15–20), medium quality (10–14), and low quality (≤ 9) (See Table 2). This systematic assessment ensured that the meta–analytic synthesis of the relationships between FWAs, WLB, WFC, and OC is grounded in robust and reliable primary evidence.

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The study selection and screening process are illustrated in the PRISMA flow diagram in below (See Figure 4).

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Results

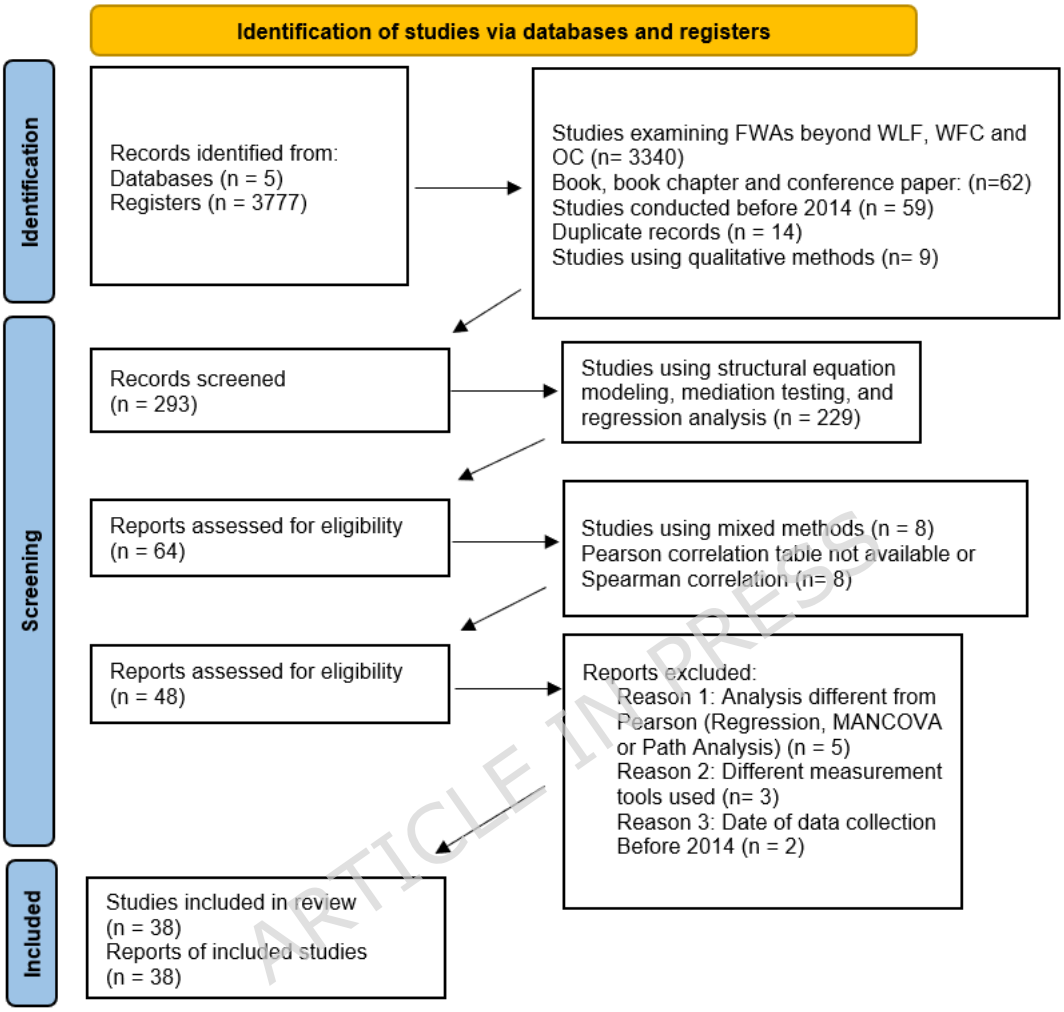


Figure 4. PRISMA flow diagram [56].

Out of the initial records identified, 38 studies met the stringent inclusion criteria for the meta-analysis. To maintain transparency, as requested by the editorial guidelines, the specific justifications for excluding potentially relevant studies were documented. For instance, Subramaniam et al. [33], and Rosyadi and Bayudhirgantara [57], were excluded from the correlation-based synthesis as they utilized MANOVA and path analysis, respectively, rather than providing zero-order Pearson correlation coefficients (r). Additionally, studies by Ter Hoeven and van Zoonen [58], and Molino et al. [59] were

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omitted due to the lack of sufficient psychometric details regarding the WLB and WFC scales used. In the final synthesis, studies were categorized according to their specific outcomes; for example, Ananda [60] contributed to the WLB pool, while Ghali–Zinoubi et al. [61], was analyzed within the WFC domain.

Consistent with the methodological process, the methodological quality and risk of bias were assessed using the AXIS tool for all included studies. The results of this assessment indicated that the majority of the studies (84%) were of high methodological quality (scores between 15–20), with the remainder falling into the medium quality category (scores between 10–14). No studies were categorized as low quality (≤ 9), ensuring that the subsequent meta-analytic findings are grounded in statistically and methodologically robust primary evidence (See Table 2 for the detailed AXIS scores).

The synthesized effect sizes and heterogeneity test results for the relationship between FWAs and the three primary outcomes—WLB, WFC, and OC—are presented in Table 1.

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Table 1. The Effect size and Heterogeneity test results

Variables	Model	n	Total Sample	95%						Heterogeneity Test			
				Effect Size (Fisher's Z)	r	Sd	LL	UL	p	Q	df	p	I^2
FWAs-WLB	Random	12	20.882	0.413	0.391	0.082	0.225	0.536	0.000	558.283	11	0.000	98.030
FWAs-WFC	Random	13	22.846	0.262	0.257	0.300	-0.072	0.535	0.124	3397.678	12	0.000	99.647
FWAs-OC	Random	13	40.223	0.301	0.292	0.016	0.221	0.360	0.000	385.960	12	0.000	96.891

FWAs: Flexible work arrangements, WLB: Work-Life Balance, WFC: Work-Family Conflict, OC: Organizational Commitment

As shown in Table 1, the Q statistics for all three associations—FWAs–WLB (Q = 558.28, df = 11), FWAs–WFC (Q = 3397.67, df = 12), and FWAs–OC (Q = 385.96, df = 12) —exceeded the critical Chi–square values ($p < .001$), indicating significant heterogeneity across studies. This was further confirmed by I^2 values exceeding 75% (ranging from 96.89% to 99.64%), which represents high heterogeneity according to Borenstein et al. [62]. Potential sources of this heterogeneity include variations in measurement instruments and cross–national differences. Consequently, a random–effects model was

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utilized to calculate effect sizes, as it accounts for the potential that study samples originate from different populations and provides a more conservative estimate.

To interpret the effect size of the correlations (r), this research adopted the normative guidelines for individual differences proposed by Gignac and Szodorai [63]. These guidelines provide empirical benchmarks where r = .10 is small, r = .20 is typical (medium), and r = .30 is relatively large. Additionally, we referenced social psychology–specific thresholds suggested by Lovakov and Agadullina [64], which define r = .12 as small, r = .24 as medium, and r = .41 as large.

For the relationship between FWAs and WLB, the meta–analysis revealed a significant and relatively large positive correlation ($r = .39$, $p < .001$), which aligns with the higher percentiles of both Gignac and Lovakov's benchmarks (See Figure 5). Similarly, the relationship between FWAs and OC yielded a significant and relatively large effect ($r = .29$, $p < .001$), approaching the 75th-percentile of typical effect sizes in organizational research (See Figure 7).

Conversely, while the relationship between FWAs and WFC resulted in a medium or typical effect size ($r = .25$) according to both Gignac and Lovakov's criteria, this relationship was statistically non–significant ($p = .124$, $p > .05$) (See Figure 6). This finding suggests that while a raw correlation exists, it does not reach statistical significance across the synthesized literature in this sample, potentially due to the high level of heterogeneity ($I^2 = 99.64$ %) and the conflicting nature of flexibility outcomes reported in primary studies.

Figures 5–7 present the forest plots for the analyzed associations. In these plots, the black squares represent the estimated effect size for each individual study, while the horizontal lines extending from the squares indicate the corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CIs). Shorter horizontal lines reflect higher precision and narrower CIs, whereas longer lines indicate wider CIs and lower precision. The diamond at the bottom of each forest plot represents the pooled effect size and its overall CI. The width of the diamond denotes the CI for the aggregate effect, and its center points to the mean effect size estimate [65].

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To further investigate the sources of heterogeneity and determine the conditions under which effect sizes vary, a meta–regression analysis was conducted using a random–effects model. The level of economic development of countries (categorized as Developed vs. Developing countries) was introduced as the moderator variable. The analysis revealed that the country variable is a significant moderator (B = 0.41, SE = 0.09, Z = 4.38, p < .001), suggesting that the strength and nature of the relationships between FWAs, WLB, WFC, and OC differ significantly based on the national context. In particular, the positive and significant relationship between FWAs and WLB, WFC, and OC is much more pronounced in advanced economies.

Figure 5 below presents the forest plot summarizing the meta-analytic results for the relationship between FWAs and WLB. In this visualization, the black squares signify the estimated effect sizes for each primary study, while the horizontal lines represent the corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CIs), with shorter lines indicating greater statistical precision. The majority of these individual effect sizes are positioned to the right of the null-effect line, demonstrating a consistent positive correlation across most datasets. Notably, while studies such as Shahzadi et al. (2022) and Rawashdeh et al. (2016) reported exceptionally strong positive relationship, only a single study (Mattarelli et al., 2024) yielded a significant and negative correlation. The diamond at the bottom of the plot denotes the synthesized pooled effect size, which reveals a significant and relatively large positive correlation (r = 0.391, 95% CI [0.225, 0.536], p < 0.001). This effect size aligns with the upper percentiles of established benchmarks for organizational and social psychology research, signifying that FWAs are a robust predictor of enhanced WLB. Furthermore, despite the high degree of heterogeneity (I^2 = 98.03%), meta-regression analysis identified the level of economic development as a significant moderator (p < 0.001), indicating that the positive relationship of flexibility on WLB is significantly more pronounced in developed nations compared to developing economies.

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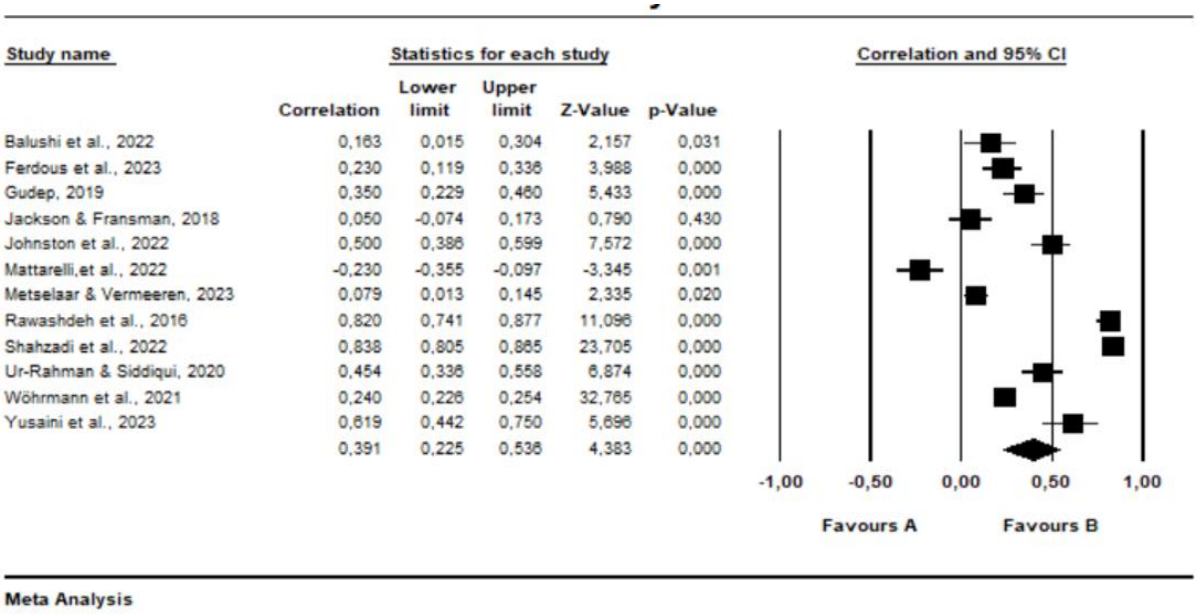


Figure 5. FWAs-WLB effect size and 95% CI values.

Figure 6 below illustrates the forest plot for the relationship between FWAs and WFC. The analysis of 13 independent studies reveals a highly heterogeneous distribution of effect sizes, characterized by a mix of significant positive and negative correlations across the primary literature. While several datasets indicated that flexibility increases conflict through role blurring, others reported a reduction in conflict levels. The pooled effect size, represented by the diamond at the base of the plot, yields a correlation coefficient of r = 0.257 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -0.072 to 0.535. Crucially, as the confidence interval crosses the null-effect line (0.00), the relationship is found to be statistically non-significant (p = 0.124). This lack of statistical significance, combined with extreme heterogeneity (I^2 = 99.65%), underscores the "flexibility paradox," suggesting that the impact of FWAs on WFC is not uniform and is highly dependent on individual boundary management strategies and macro-level institutional frameworks.

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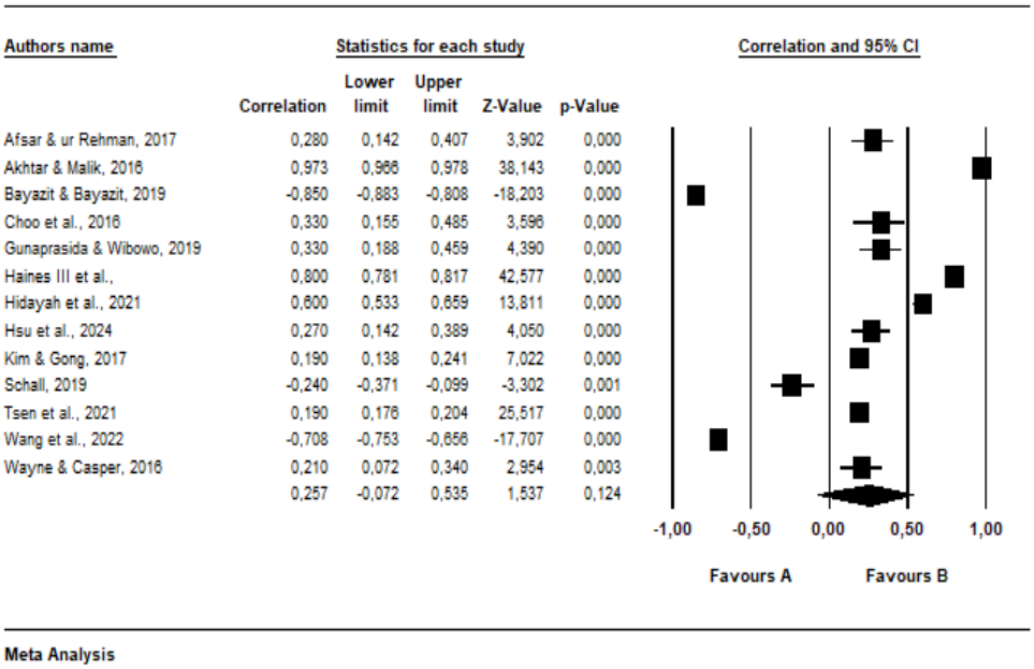


Figure 6. FWAs-WFC effect size and 95% CI values.

Figure 7 below presents the forest plot for the relationship between FWAs and OC, synthesizing data from 13 independent studies. In this plot, the black squares represent the estimated effect size for each individual study, while the horizontal lines denote the corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CIs). The majority of the studies are positioned to the right of the null-effect line (0.00), indicating a consistent positive correlation between FWAs and employees' psychological attachment to their organizations. The pooled effect size, represented by the diamond at the bottom, reveals a significant and relatively large positive correlation ($r = 0.292$, 95% CI [0.221, 0.360], $p < 0.001$). According to established benchmarks for organizational research, this magnitude represents a medium-to-large effect size, approaching the 75th percentile of typical effects. Despite the high statistical heterogeneity ($I^2 = 96.89\%$), which reflects variations in professional and national contexts, the results consistently demonstrate that granting employees autonomy over their work schedules and locations serves as a critical strategic tool for strengthening organizational loyalty. Furthermore, meta-regression analysis confirmed that this positive relationship is significantly more pronounced in developed economies compared to developing nations, suggesting that the commitment-enhancing benefits of flexibility are highly context-sensitive.

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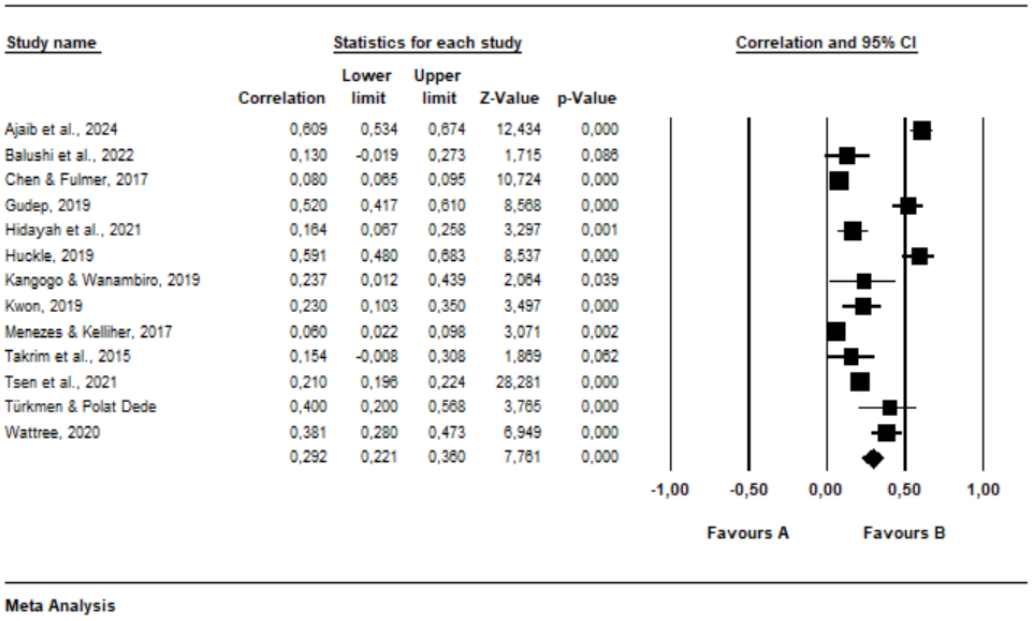


Figure 7. FWAs-OC effect size and 95% CI values.

The detailed characteristics of the 38 studies included in this meta–analysis are presented in Table 2.

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Table 2. Study Characteristics

Id	Authors	Study Type	Quality Assessment	Country	n	Language	Pearson Correlation	Scales 1	Scales 2
FWAs-WLB									
1	*Balushi et al., 2022 [66]	Article	14 (Medium)	Oman	175	English	0.163*	RWQ	WLBS
2	*Ferdous et al., 2023 [67]	Article	18 (High)	Australia	293	English	0.23**	FWPQ	WLBS
3	*Gudep, 2019 [68]	Article	15 (High)	United Arab Emirates	224	English	0.35**	FWSS	WLBS
4	*Jackson & Fransman, 2018[69]	Article	16 (High)	South Africa	252	English	0.05	FWQ	WLBS
5	*Johnston et al., 2022 [70]	Article	17 (High)	England	193	English	0.50**	FS	WLBS
6	*Mattarelli,et al., 2024 [71]	Article	17 (High)	Italy	207	English	-0.23**	FWAs	WLBS
7	*Metselaar et al., 2023 [72]	Article	18 (High)	The Nederlands	873	English	0.079*	UTS	WLBS
8	*Rawashdeh et al., 2016 [73]	Article	13 (Medium)	Jordan	95	English	0.82**	FWAQ	WLBS
9	*Shahzadi et al., 2022 [74]	Article	15 (High)	Pakistan	384	English	0.838**	FWAQ	WLBS
10	*Aziz-Ur-Rahman & Siddiqui, 2020 [75]	Article	14 (Medium)	Pakistan	200	English	0.454	FWAQ	WLBS
11	*Wöhrmann et al., 2021 [76]	Article	19 (High)	Germany	17921	English	0.24*	IOWTF	WLBS
12	*Yusaini et al., 2023 [77]	Article	15 (High)	Malaysia	65	English	0.619*	FWAQ	WLBS
FWAs-WFC									
1	*Afsar & Rehman, 2017 [78]	Article	16 (High)	Pakistan	187	English	0.28**	WFQ	WFCQ
2	*Akhtar & Malik, 2016 [79]	Article	15 (High)	Pakistan	319	English	0.973**	FWPS	WFCQ
3	*Erden Bayazit & Bayazit, 2019[80]	Article	18 (High)	Türkiye	213	English	-0.85	PAFWAs	WFCS
4	*Choo et al., 2016 [81]	Article	14 (Medium)	Malaysia	113	English	0.33**	FWA	WFCQ
5	*Gunaprasida & Wibowo, 2019 [82]	Article	14 (Medium)	Indonesia	167	English	0.33**	FWAQ	WFCQ
6	*Haines III et al., 2024 [83]	Article	15 (High)	Canada	1505	English	0.8	FWAs	WFCS
7	*Hidayah et al., 2021 [84]	Article	17 (High)	Indonesia	400	English	0.60	FWAQ	WFCQ
8	*Hsu et al., 2024 [85]	Article	16 (High)	USA	217	English	0.27**	FS	WFCS
9	*Kim & Gong, 2017[86]	Article	16 (High)	South Korea	1336	English	0.19	FWAQ	WFCQ
10	*Schall, 2019 [87]	Master Thesis	15 (High)	USA	185	English	-0.24**	RWS	WFCQ

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11	*Tsen et al., 2022 [88]	Article	15 (High)	Multinational participant	17604	English	0.19**	FWAQ	WFC
12	*Wang et al., 2022 [89]	Article	16 (High)	China	405	English	-0.708**	WFQ	WFCQ
13	*Wayne & Casper, 2016 [90]	Article	17 (High)	USA	195	English	0.21*	FWAs	WFC
FWAs-OC									
1	*Ajaib et al., 2024 [91]	Article	16 (High)	Pakistan	312	English	0.609**	FSS	OCQ
2	*Balushi et al., 2022 [66]	Article	14 (Medium)	Oman	175	English	0.130	RWQ	OCQ
3	*Chen & Fulmer, 2017 [92]	Article	19 (High)	England	17895	English	0.08*	FFWAP	OCQ
4	*Gudep, 2019 [68]	Article	15 (High)	United Arab Emirates	224	English	0.52**	FWSS	OCQ
5	*Hidayah et al., 2021 [84]	Article	17 (High)	Indonesia	400	English	0.164**	FWAQ	OCQ
6	*Huckle, 2019 [83]	Master Thesis	18 (High)	South Africa	161	English	0.591**	FWHs	OCQ
7	*Kangogo & Wanambiro, 2019 [94]	Article	15 (High)	Kenya	76	English	0.237*	FWSS	OCQ
8	*Kwon, 2019 [95]	Article	17 (High)	South Korea	226	English	0.23	AFWSQ	OCQ
9	*De Menezes & Kelliher, 2017 [96]	Article	18 (High)	England	2617	English	0.06**	FWQ	OCQ
10	*Takrim et al., 2015 [97]	Article	14 (Medium)	Pakistan	148	English	0.154**	FPQ	OCQ
11	*Tsen et al., 2022 [88]	Article	17 (High)	Multinational participant	17604	English	0.21**	FWAQ	OCQ
12	*Türkmen & Polat Dede, 2019 [98]	Article	14 (Medium)	Türkiye	82	English	0.400**	FWS	OCS
13	*Wattree, 2020 [99]	Master Thesis	17(High)	USA	202	English	0.381**	FWAS	OCS

*p<.05, **p<.01, FWAs: Flexible Work Arrangements, WLB: Work-Life Balance, FWDs: Flexible Work Designs Scale, FS: Flexibility Scale, UTS: Use of Teleworking Scale , PAFWAs: Perceived availability of flexible work arrangements WFC: Work-Family Conflict, RWQ: Remote Working Questionnaire, WLBS: Work-Life Balance Scale, FWPQ: Flexible Work Practices Questionnaire, FWSS: Flexible Work Systems Scale, FWAQ: Flexible Work Arrangements Questionnaire, FWS: Flexible Working Scale, FWAS: Flexible Work Arrangement Scale, FWPS: Flexible Work Practices Scale, FSS: Flexible Scheduling Scale, FS: Flexplace Scale, WFCQ: Work-Family Conflict Questionnaire, WFCS: Work-Family Conflict Scale, RWS: Remote Work Scale, RWQ: Remote Working Questionnaire, FWHsS: Flexible Working Hour's Scale, FFWAP: Formal FWA Policies, OCQ: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, OCS: Organizational Commitment Scale, IOWTF: Individual-Oriented Working Time Flexibility, AFWSQ: Awareness of Flexible Work Systems Questionnaire, AFWSQ: Awareness of Flexible Work Systems Questionnaire, FPQ: Flexibility Policies Questionnaire.

The descriptive characteristics of the 38 studies included in this meta–analysis are detailed in Table 2. The final sample comprises 83,951 participants across 19 countries, providing a robust and geographically diverse dataset for synthesis. In terms of publication type, the majority of the evidence is derived from peer–reviewed research articles (n = 35), supplemented by three master's theses that met all stringent inclusion and quality criteria.

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The methodological quality of the primary studies, assessed via the AXIS tool, demonstrates a high level of rigor. As indicated in Table 2, quality scores ranged from 13 to 19, with the vast majority of studies categorized as 'High Quality' (scores 15-20). This methodological consistency ensures that the subsequent effect size calculations for the relationships between FWAs, WLB, WFC, and OC are grounded in reliable empirical evidence. The studies are distributed across the three primary outcomes as follows: 12 studies provided data for the FWAs–WLB association, 13 for FWAs–WFC, and 13 for FWAs–OC. The sample encompasses a wide range of professional contexts and national settings, including developed economies (e.g., Australia, Germany, Italy, and the Netherlands) and developing economies (e.g., Indonesia, Jordan, Pakistan, and Türkiye). This cross–national diversity facilitates a comprehensive evaluation of the meta–regression results regarding the moderating role of a country's level of economic development.

Discussion

This research was conducted to examine the relationship of flexible working arrangements (FWAs) on employees' work–life balance (WLB), work–family conflict (WFC), and organizational commitment (OC). The findings indicate that FWAs have a significant and positive relationship with WLB ($r = .39$, $p < .001$). This result aligns with a substantial body of literature suggesting that increased temporal and spatial flexibility enhances employees' ability to balance professional and personal responsibilities [10, 11, 52, 57]. Employees with FWAs possess the autonomy to dictate their working hours and locations, which is conceptually intended to enhance WLB by allowing more time for personal and family obligations. However, this study identified a positive but non–significant relationship between FWAs and WFC ($r = .26$, $p > .05$). According to the empirically derived guidelines of Lovakov and Agadullina [64], this correlation indicates a medium (typical) effect size for social psychology research. The positive direction of the coefficient suggests that as boundaries between work and family become more permeable, the potential for conflict may increase due to work–related demands such as high workloads and time pressure. This observation is consistent with the 'flexibility paradox' discussed in recent literature, where the absence of clear spatial or temporal boundaries can, over time, lead to increased interference between professional and domestic roles [45, 101, 102].

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According to Aura and Desiana [103], FWAs can cause role conflict, multitasking between work and family, increased responsibilities, and other stressors. The effects of FWAs for male and female employees may differ due to their respective roles in the family. Elhinnawy et al. [104], emphasize the pressures faced by female employees resulting from increased workloads alongside the domestic needs of home, childcare, and education, especially during the COVID–19 period. However, women also reported that FWAs provided greater opportunities for their families, allowing them to manage their lives and time more efficiently.

Finally, the study revealed that FWAs have a significant and positive relationship with employees' OC ($r = .29$, $p < .001$). According to the normative guidelines for individual differences research by Gignac and Szodorai [63], this correlation represents a relatively large effect size, as it is nearly equal to the 75th percentile threshold of $r = .30$. Similarly, applying the social psychology–specific benchmarks of Lovakov and Agadullina [64], this value is interpreted as a medium–to–large effect. This result aligns with numerous studies demonstrating how temporal and spatial flexibility foster stronger emotional and functional ties between employees and their organizations. When organizations provide FWAs, they offer employees greater autonomy and control over their work, which often leads to feelings of being cared for and valued. This psychological state reinforces the bond between the individual and the organization, thereby increasing overall OC.

The implementation of FWAs provides a wide range of benefits for employees and organizations alike. From the employee perspective, these arrangements positive relationship the maintenance of WLB [60, 105] and enhance overall life satisfaction [106, 107, 108]. For organizations, FWAs are linked to higher job satisfaction [17, 106], improved employee performance [23, 54], and increased OC [54, 108]. Furthermore, flexible practices are instrumental in reducing absenteeism and turnover intentions [3, 107, 108], contributing to long–term organizational stability and effectiveness. Despite these potential benefits, FWAs are also associated with important disadvantages. Research highlights a pervasive blurring of boundaries between professional and domestic spheres, often accompanied by a sense of psychological and social isolation due to reduced interpersonal contact [4, 109, 110]. Furthermore, these arrangements can lead to poorer communication with colleagues and supervisors [4, 110] and limited

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opportunities for talent development and career progression [110, 111]. In some contexts, employees may experience reduced work motivation and OC [4, 110] alongside economic risks such as unstable remuneration and income irregularity [110, 111].

When analyzing the impact of gender, it is crucial to recognize that women often bear a disproportionate share of domestic responsibilities, including housework and childcare. This "dual burden" can lead to important role confusion and heightened levels of occupational stress compared to men, which may eventually culminate in burnout [11]. Consequently, research indicates that the experiences and resolutions of WFC are profoundly shaped by gendered expectations and behaviors [11, 112]. Furthermore, employees with critical caregiving responsibilities—whether women with children or men involved in active childcare—face higher domestic demands. Workplace stress and systemic difficulties can severely disrupt their WLB, potentially escalating into WFC and pervasive role incompatibility [113]. These conditions expose employees to chronic stress and reduced productivity, while increasing the risk of psychological or physical health issues and workplace accidents. Organizations that prioritize WLB, and OC can mitigate these detrimental effects by implementing FWAs that are specifically tailored to their employees' unique needs and preferences. By acknowledging and integrating employee input into the design of these policies, organizations can prevent the workforce from being overwhelmed by the competing demands of professional and domestic spheres.

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In this study, meta–regression was conducted to explore the conditions under which effect sizes vary and to account for the observed heterogeneity. The results identified the country variable as a significant moderator, indicating that the strength of the relationship between FWAs and employee outcomes—specifically WLB, WFC, and OC—differs between developed and developing nations. The findings suggest that these relationships are more pronounced in developed countries, highlighting that FWAs outcomes are highly context–sensitive and shaped by cross–national disparities in labor market structures and working conditions.

In developed nations, FWAs are more institutionally embedded and supported by robust legal frameworks and strategic human resource policies, which amplify their positive impact on employee well–being and commitment [9, 16, 114]. For instance, Allen et al. [16], demonstrate that specific

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flexibility dimensions reduce WFC by enhancing perceived control, which subsequently improves organizational outcomes. Furthermore, these stronger relationships in developed economies are often associated with comprehensive social protection, job security, and high levels of perceived organizational support [28, 115]. Conversely, in developing countries, flexible work is frequently intertwined with cost–reduction strategies, precarious employment, or informal labor practices. In such contexts, flexibility may represent uncertainty and instability rather than autonomy for the employee [116, 117]. Consequently, FWAs in these regions may not always serve as tools for balance but can instead lead to a further blurring of work–life boundaries [118]. Therefore, the role of the country variable as a moderator aligns with contextual explanations in the literature, emphasizing that evaluating flexible work policies requires attention to macro–level institutional structures and meso–level organizational cultures [30, 119]. This research is subject to several limitations inherent in the systematic review methodology and the specific inclusion criteria employed. The scope was restricted to quantitative research articles and postgraduate theses published electronically between 2014 and 2024, specifically focusing on the phenomena of FWAs, WLB, WFC, and OC. Consequently, the findings are limited to the 38 studies identified within the selected databases. Given that FWAs represent a relatively contemporary evolution in organizational behavior and professional life, there is a clear imperative for more expansive research in this field. Future studies should examine FWAs in conjunction with a broader array of organizational behavior phenomena and employee attitudes. Specifically, individual arrangements within the broader FWAs umbrella—such as telecommuting, remote work, home–based work, and part–time arrangements—could be analyzed in relation to variables such as organizational cynicism, perceived organizational support, job performance, life satisfaction, and psychological well–being. Furthermore, future research should more specifically investigate how the impact of flexible work is moderated by individual differences, such as personality traits and gender. Such granular analysis would provide a deeper understanding of the heterogeneous effects of flexibility and assist organizations in designing more inclusive and effective workplace policies.

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Conclusion

This meta–analysis synthesized 38 research data points across 19 different countries, encompassing a total of 83,951 participants. The findings provide a comprehensive overview of the impact of FWAs on critical employee and organizational outcomes. The analysis reveals that the implementation of FWAs is significantly and positively relationship with both WLB and OC. These results suggest that by providing employees with greater autonomy over the timing and location of their work, organizations can significantly enhance individual well–being and strengthen the psychological bond between the employee and the firm.

Furthermore, while a positive relationship was observed between FWAs and WFC, this relationship was found to be statistically non–significant, highlighting the complex and "dual–edged" nature of workplace flexibility. The most important finding of this study is the moderating role of countries' development context. Significant differences were found between developed and developing countries in terms of the effectiveness of FWA. The positive relationship on WLB, WFC, and OC were significantly more pronounced in developed countries, suggesting that the benefits of flexibility are highly dependent on macro–level institutional support, legal frameworks, and organizational cultures. In conclusion, while FWAs offer substantial potential for improving professional and personal life harmony, their design and implementation must be carefully calibrated to the specific socio–economic and institutional environment.

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Applied Implications

The meta–analytic findings of this research offer several critical implications for organizations and HR practitioners seeking to optimize FWAs. Rather than a "one-size-fits-all" approach, the evidence suggests that the effectiveness of these policies is deeply contingent upon their design and the national context.

Prioritizing Autonomy for WLB: Given the relatively large effect size found for the FWAs–WLB relationship (r = .39), organizations should move beyond merely offering flexibility and focus on increasing employees' perceived control over their schedules. Managers are encouraged to transition

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from "face-time" cultures to output–based performance tracking, which empowers employees to utilize temporal and spatial flexibility effectively.

Strengthening Loyalty through Support: The significant relationship between FWAs, and OC (r = .29) indicates that flexibility is perceived as an organizational "gift" that triggers reciprocity. To maximize this effect, organizations should integrate FWAs with supportive supervisor behaviors to ensure that utilizing flexibility does not lead to professional isolation or career stagnation.

Proactive Boundary Management to Mitigate Conflict: The non–significant yet positive correlation between FWAs and WFC (r = .25) serves as a strategic warning. Organizations must implement "Right to Disconnect" policies and clear communication protocols to prevent the 'flexibility paradox', where permeable boundaries lead to 'job creep' and burnout.

Context–Specific Implementation: The significant moderating effect of country development (B = 0.41) highlights that while FWAs are highly effective in developed nations with robust infrastructures, their implementation in developing economies requires greater caution. In these contexts, organizations must ensure that flexibility is not a proxy for precarious work but is instead supported by clear legal and organizational protections.

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Limitations and Future Recommendations

This meta–analysis has several methodological and analytical limitations that must be considered when interpreting the findings. First, while the study synthesized data from 38 primary sources, the relatively small number of studies available for specific associations (e.g., 12 for FWAs–WLB) may limit the generalizability of the findings across all global industrial sectors. Second, this research aggregated various distinct types of FWAs—such as flexitime, telecommuting, and compressed workweeks—into a single category. Since different arrangements can have divergent effects on WFC and WLB, this aggregation may mask arrangement–specific nuances and contribute to the high statistical heterogeneity observed in our models (I^2 > 95%). Third, due to inconsistent reporting in the primary literature, we were unable to conduct post–hoc analyses for critical contextual variables such as gender, job type, or specific organizational cultures beyond the level of country development. Consequently, the "dual

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burden" faced by female employees or the role of digital literacy in remote work outcomes remains outside the quantitative scope of this synthesis. Furthermore, the reliance on cross–sectional survey data in the majority of included studies precludes the ability to draw causal inferences between FWAs and their outcomes.

Despite these constraints, the current findings provide a robust foundation for future research. Subsequent studies should utilize longitudinal designs to establish causality and perform subgroup analyses to distinguish between the effects of temporal versus spatial flexibility. Future research should also examine how personality traits (e.g., introversion/extroversion) or specific caregiving responsibilities moderate the FWAs–OC relationship. Finally, as flexibility policies continue to evolve post–COVID–19, researchers are encouraged to explore emerging phenomena such as organizational cynicism or 'digital exhaustion' in the context of remote work.

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Abbreviations

FWAs: flexible working arrangements
WLB: work-life balance
WFC: work-family conflict
OC: organizational commitment

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials

The link below is publicly available and includes data from the included studies.

https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/15lbbFOU0crqAgdnJI0n2f31rZTAEIj2x?usp=drive_link

Competing Interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Authors' contributions

AÇ was involved in determining the research topic, data collection, data analysis and writing the research report. ŞD was involved in data collection, preparation of the data for analysis, and writing the research report in English and was a major contributor in writing the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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