

Putting the work-life interface into a temporal context: an
empirical study of work-life balance by life stage and the
consequences of homeworking

Esther Canonico
The London School of Economics and Political Science

Thesis submitted to the Department of Management for the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy to the London School of Economics and Political Science

London, England
June 2016

Declaration

I certify that the thesis I have presented for examination for the MPhil/PhD degree of the London School of Economics and Political Science is solely my own work other than where I have clearly indicated that it is the work of others (in which case the extent of any work carried out jointly by me and any other person is clearly identified in it).

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author. Quotation from it is permitted, provided that full acknowledgement is made. This thesis may not be reproduced without my prior written consent.

I warrant that this authorisation does not, to the best of my belief, infringe the rights of any third party.

I declare that my thesis consists of 73,192 words.

Statement of conjoint work

I confirm that some of the primary data analysed for this thesis was collected jointly with Dr. Alexandra Beauregard and Dr. Kelly Basile, both of the London School of Economics and Political Science at the time of the data collection, as part of a larger research project.

The writing and analysis presented in the thesis is solely my own work.

ABSTRACT

Although past research suggests that life stage is an important consideration in the work-life interface, a life stage approach in the work-life literature is uncommon and mostly focused on the negative side (work-life conflict) of the interface. Accordingly, this dissertation presents a quantitative study (N=507) that integrates conflict and enrichment into work-life balance by life stage. Drawing on work-life theories (e.g., role scarcity) and life course research, it extends extant knowledge by confirming that work-life balance differs by life stage but not as expected. Employees in the early life stage (rather than those in later stages) had the most beneficial work-life balance. Understanding work-life balance differences by life stage may also help organisations to craft more targeted policies and practices for their employees.

This dissertation examines further work-life issues by focusing on the effects of homeworking. It includes a qualitative study (N=40), supported by quantitative data (N=514), that explores the situation when homeworking is perceived differently by the employee and the employer. Based on Employee-Organisation Relationship (EOR) concepts (such as Perceived Organisational Support) and an extension of an inducements-contributions model, this dissertation contributes to the EOR literature by integrating employee and employer's perspectives and suggesting that differences in perceptions may produce adverse outcomes, such as employees not meeting their employer's expected contribution. This thesis also explores the role of homeworking in the organisational culture-climate alignment using a multi-model framework of organisational culture-climate. It provides a detailed contextual explanation of the potential adverse impact of homeworking on the organisation with a mixed methods approach. Findings reveal that homeworking may cause tension in the culture-climate relationship and negatively affect organisational performance. These results contribute to the organisational culture and climate literature and the on-going debate over the consequences of homeworking, and provide a practical illustration of homeworking's potential drawbacks.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are so many people who I would like to thank. First, I want to thank Dr. Alexandra Beauregard for giving me the chance to pursue my research interests at the LSE. Her continued enthusiasm, guidance and enormous dedication have been invaluable. I also found her quick wit and expertise very inspiring. I want to thank Professor Jackie Coyle-Shapiro for her vision, clarity and overall support. She gave me a big push when I needed it in order to complete my dissertation. I also want to thank Dr. Daniela Lup for her encouragement throughout the PhD process. In addition, I would like to thank my fellow PhD students for their friendship and support. Special thanks to Dr. Kelly Basile, for being a wonderful collaborator and friend, and sharing the PhD journey with me.

I would also like to thank all of the staff and research participants at the organisation where I conducted my fieldwork. They shared their experiences and provided access to the data that were the basis for this research. Their commitment to the research project was admirable and I am truly grateful for it.

I could not have done this without the support and patience of my friends and family. Special thanks to Daniel, my husband, who took care of our children on numerous weekends when I was working on this thesis. Thank you to my children, David, Sara and Sam, for always being a source of joy.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION.....	12
1.1. Introduction.....	12
1.2. Goals of research.....	14
1.3. Contribution.....	17
1.4. Overall research design.....	18
1.4.1. <i>A pragmatic approach</i>	18
1.4.2. <i>Quality of research</i>	21
1.4.3. <i>Case study</i>	25
1.4.4. <i>Researcher bias</i>	26
1.4.5. <i>Ethical issues</i>	28
1.5. Organisational context and fieldwork overview.....	30
1.5.1. <i>AdviceCo</i>	30
1.5.2. <i>Fieldwork overview</i>	31
1.6. Structure of this dissertation.....	35
Table 1: Verification strategies for qualitative research.....	23
Table 2: Timeline of the primary data collection.....	31
Table 3: Profile of research participants of group I qualitative interviews.....	32
Table 4: Profile of research participants of online survey.....	33
Table 5: Primary data by paper.....	34
Table 6: Secondary sources of data for Paper III.....	34
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	37
2.1 The "work-life" term.....	39
2.2. Work-life theories.....	40
2.2.1. <i>Role scarcity and work-life conflict</i>	41
2.2.2. <i>Role expansion and work-life enrichment</i>	43
2.2.3. <i>Border and boundary theories</i>	44
2.2.4. <i>Decision-making framework</i>	46
2.2.5. <i>Ecological systems theory</i>	47
2.3. A work-life practice: homeworking.....	47
2.3.1. <i>Introduction to the homeworking literature</i>	48

2.3.2. <i>Consequences at the individual level</i>	49
2.3.3. <i>Consequences for the team</i>	57
2.3.4. <i>Consequences for the organisation</i>	58
2.3.5. <i>Consequences for society</i>	60
2.3.6. <i>Debatable benefits of homeworking</i>	61
2.4. Gaps in the work-life literature.....	63
2.4.1. <i>Integration of theoretical perspectives</i>	63
2.4.2. <i>Context matters</i>	64
2.4.3. <i>Bridging theory with practice</i>	64
2.5. Additional theories.....	65
Table 7: Literature review outline.....	38
Table 8: Overview of additional theories by paper.....	66

3. PAPER I: INTEGRATING WORK-LIFE CONFLICT AND ENRICHMENT BY LIFE STAGE.....69

3.1. Introduction.....	69
3.2. The work-life interface.....	69
3.2.1. <i>Definition of work-life balance</i>	69
3.2.2. <i>Measurement of work-life balance</i>	70
3.3. A life stage approach.....	72
3.3.1. <i>Theoretical support</i>	72
3.3.2. <i>Empirical evidence</i>	74
3.4. Hypotheses.....	75
3.4.1. <i>Work-life balance by life stages</i>	76
3.4.2. <i>Outcomes of work-life balance</i>	80
3.4.3. <i>The role of gender</i>	83
3.5. Method.....	84
3.5.1. <i>Sample</i>	84
3.5.2. <i>Measures</i>	85
3.6. Analysis and findings.....	87
3.6.1. <i>Hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c</i>	90
3.6.2. <i>Hypothesis 2</i>	92

3.7. Discussion.....	95
3.7.1. <i>Differences in work-life balance by life stage</i>	95
3.7.2. <i>Outcomes of work-life balance types</i>	97
3.7.3. <i>Implications for theory and practice</i>	98
3.7.4. <i>Limitations</i>	100
3.7.5. <i>Future research</i>	100
Figure 1: Work-life balance typology (Rantanen et al., 2011).....	71
Figure 2: Model of work-life balance by life stages.....	75
Figure 3: Hypothesised work-life balance by life stage.....	80
Figure 4: Work- life balance typology	87
Table 9: Descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables.....	89
Figure 5: Types of work-life balance by life stage.....	90
Table 10: Differences in means for work-life balance types by life stage.....	91
Figure 6: Differences in means for work-life enrichment by life stages.....	92
Figure 7: Well-being by type of work-life balance.....	93
Figure 8: Job satisfaction by type of work-life balance.....	94
Figure 9: Employee engagement by type of work-life balance.....	94
 4. PAPER II: WHEN HOMEWORKING AS A BENEFIT IS NOT RECIPROCATED: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF AN EMPLOYEE-ORGANISATION RELATIONSHIP.....	103
4.1. Introduction.....	103
4.2. The employee-organisation relationship.....	105
4.2.1. <i>Rules of the exchange</i>	105
4.2.2. <i>Content of the exchange</i>	109
4.2.3. <i>Participants in the exchange</i>	111
4.2.4. <i>Content and process of the exchange</i>	114
4.3. Homeworking and the EOR.....	115
4.3.1. <i>Homeworking perceived as organisational support</i>	115
4.3.2. <i>When homeworking is not perceived as a benefit</i>	116
4.4. Method.....	118
4.4.1. <i>Qualitative study</i>	118
4.4.2. <i>Quantitative study</i>	123

4.5. Results.....	124
4.5.1. <i>Homeworking as an employer's inducement</i>	125
4.5.2. <i>Employee's contribution</i>	129
4.5.3. <i>The employee-organisation relationship</i>	139
4.6. Conclusion.....	145
4.6.1. <i>Contribution to the homeworking literature</i>	146
4.6.2. <i>Contribution to the EOR literature</i>	147
4.6.3. <i>Implications for practice</i>	149
4.7. Limitations.....	150
4.8. Future research.....	151
Table 12: Non-reciprocity based exchange rules.....	107
Figure 10: Employment relationship types by Tsui and colleagues (1997).....	111
Figure 11: ER types from the perspective of employer and employees.....	120
Table 13: Themes of qualitative analysis.....	121
Table 14: From responses to "How satisfied were you with the support that you received from your line manager when you began working from home?".....	129
Table 15: From responses to "How satisfied were you with the IT support that you received when you began working from home?".....	129
Table 16: From responses to "Please indicate how important each of the following reasons are in your decisions to come in the office".....	131
Table 17: Issues that may deter homeworkers from going to the office to work.....	132
Table 18: Number of reported extra working hours in a typical week by working pattern.....	136
Figure 12: Reported extra working hours in a typical week by managerial level.....	136
Table 19: Number of extra working hours by working pattern for Grade 3 employees.....	137
Figure 13: Number of extra working hours for Grade 3 homeworkers by years spent homeworking.....	138
Table 20: Views of the employee-organisation relationship.....	139
Figure 14: Economic exchange by working pattern.....	142
Figure 15: Social exchange by working pattern.....	143
Figure 16: Organisational commitment by working pattern.....	145

5. PAPER III: EFFECTS OF HOMEWORKING ON ORGANISATIONAL LIFE.....	154
5.1. Introduction.....	154
5.2. Organisational culture and climate	154
5.2.1. <i>Overlapping or separate constructs?</i>	154
5.2.2. <i>Organisational culture and climate alignment</i>	157
5.2.3. <i>Strength of climate</i>	161
5.2.4. <i>A dynamic and multi-level process</i>	162
5.3. Method.....	162
5.3.1. <i>Sample and data collection</i>	163
5.3.2. <i>Quantitative measures</i>	164
5.3.3. <i>Analysis</i>	167
5.4. Results.....	169
5.4.1. <i>Context</i>	172
5.4.2. <i>Culture</i>	174
5.4.3. <i>Creation of climate</i>	175
5.4.4. <i>Climate for homeworking</i>	180
5.4.5. <i>Outcomes of misalignment of culture with climate for homeworking</i> ..	182
5.5. Conclusion.....	190
5.5.1. <i>Contribution to the organisational culture and climate literature</i>	190
5.5.2. <i>Contribution to the homeworking literature</i>	191
5.5.3. <i>Contribution to practice</i>	192
5.6. Limitations	193
5.7. Future research.....	193
Table 21: Main differences between organisational culture and climate.....	156
Figure 17: Multi-level model of organisational culture and climate by Ostroff et al. (2012).....	159
Figure 18: Data overview.....	163
Table 22: Thematic content coding.....	169
Figure 19: Model of organisational culture and climate for homeworking at AdviceCo.....	171
Table 23: Factors contributing to the creation of a climate for homeworking.....	176

6. CONCLUSION.....	196
6.1. Main findings and theoretical contribution.....	196
6.2. Wider contribution.....	197
6.3. Discussion.....	201
6.4. A peek into the future?	201
6.5. Temporality.....	204
6.6. Future research directions.....	204
6.7. Concluding thoughts.....	206
7. REFERENCES.....	207
APPENDIX I: Survey instrument.....	237
APPENDIX II: Interview guide.....	269
APPENDIX III: Paper I results.....	278
APPENDIX IV: Paper II illustrative quotes.....	279
APPENDIX V: Paper III illustrative quotes.....	286
APPENDIX VI: Paper III results.....	292

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

1.2. Goals of research

1.3. Contribution

1.4. Overall research design

1.4.1. A pragmatic approach

1.4.2. Quality of research

1.4.3. Case study

1.4.4. Researcher bias

1.4.5. Ethical issues

1.5. Organisational context and fieldwork overview

1.5.1. AdviceCo

1.5.2. Fieldwork overview

1.6. Structure of this dissertation

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

One could consider that a revolution has occurred in the workplace in the last few decades. Socio-demographic changes (e.g., increasing participation of women in the workforce, aging of the work population) and technological advancements are affecting people's expectations and needs from the workplace (e.g. (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Kossek, Lewis, & Hammer, 2010; Poelmans & Caligiuri, 2008). An increase in the number of women participating in the workplace has contributed to the growth of dual income households, putting additional pressure on individuals to manage work and life issues (Eby et al., 2005). New technologies allow people to work faster and perform job tasks from any location at any time, allowing for more interference of the work domain with the life domain and potentially leading to more stress among individuals. We have also witnessed a change in cultural values. The growing participation of women in the workforce may have made obsolete the traditional model of the ideal worker, who is typically male, working full-time, entirely dedicated to work and for whom private life never interferes with work (Bailyn, 1993; Williams, 1999). Furthermore, the definition of success may have changed for many workers. New generations, such as millennials, may have seen that their parents, despite dedicating long hours to work, have suffered both at work (e.g., from corporate downsizing, frequent dismissals) and home (e.g., from high divorce rates) (Loughlin & Barling, 2001). Consequently, they may be looking for a more balanced approach when managing their work-life issues, and prioritise private life over work. In addition, higher levels of education among younger workers may make them more likely to negotiate the terms under which they work and demand more flexibility in order to fulfil their work-life balance needs (McDonald & Hite, 2008).

It is not surprising that the above mentioned changes have made the work-life interface a subject of interest to both researchers and the general public (Kossek et al., 2010). The relationship between the life and work domains has become important and can have a significant effect on individuals' wellbeing, job related attitudes and job performance (Baral & Bhargava, 2010; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992a; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). The work-life interface takes central stage in this dissertation. Although past research suggests that work-life interface may change with the life stage of individuals (Demerouti, Peeters, & van der Heijden, 2012), studies of the work-life interface with a life stage perspective are uncommon and hence, relatively little is known about how life stage impacts the work-life interface. Addressing this, I attempt to establish if and how the work-life interface changes

with the life-stage of individuals with a quantitative study (N=507) conducted in an UK public sector organisation, AdviceCo². Furthermore, it considers the whole experience of the work-life interface; that is, it takes both the positive (enrichment) and negative (conflict) sides of the work-life interface. This is also of value to expand our knowledge of the work-life interface, as the literature has mainly focused on the study of the negative side of work-life interface (conflict), largely ignoring the positive side of it (enrichment). Individuals can experience both aspects of the work-life interface at the same time with specific consequences in terms of job-related attitudes and well-being (Rantanen, Kinnunen, Mauno, & Tillemann, 2011).

In parallel to the socio-demographic and cultural changes mentioned earlier, we have also seen an increasing clash between organisations and employees regarding flexibility (Poelmans & Caligiuri, 2008). While organisations demand from employees more flexibility which requires longer hours and higher mobility to meet increasing competition, employees demand flexibility from organisations in terms of schedule and location in order to better accommodate their life needs. Work-life initiatives that bring flexibility to employees have proliferated. However, whether these work-life initiatives can successfully satisfy the needs of both the employee and the organisation is a question that remains unanswered (Poelmans & Caligiuri, 2008).

Homeworking is a work-life practice that has grown significantly in the last decade thanks largely to the technology that makes it possible for workers to perform their jobs from home (out of the office) during business hours. Although the percentage of workers who work from home is considerable (Telework Research Network, 2015), one of the questions still not altogether answered is whether homeworking is beneficial or harmful to individuals and organisations. This dissertation attempts to illuminate this discussion in different ways. First, it focuses on the employee-organisation relationship to address the question of what happens when homeworking is perceived differently by the employee and the employer. Past research has suggested that a shared agreement of the terms of the contract between employee and employer may lead to positive work-related outcomes (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). Applying qualitative analysis (N=40) supported by quantitative analysis (N=514) in a study conducted in the same organisation, AdviceCo, I question whether the practice of homeworking is perceived as a benefit by employees after an adaptation period, leading to a disagreement of the terms of the contract between employee and employer, and a subsequent negative impact on employee attitudes and behaviours. Employees may

² Fictional name

perceive homeworking as a “right” rather than a benefit over time and, consequently, not contribute to the organisation as expected by their employer. Second, this thesis also explores the role that the homeworking practice may play in the organisational culture-climate alignment. Alignment of organisational culture and climate is important as it may impact organisational performance (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Muhammad, 2012). However, more research is needed to understand how HR practices (such as homeworking) link organisational culture and climate (Ostroff et al., 2012). Using a mixed method approach with data from multiple sources, this dissertation attempts to provide a detailed contextual explanation of the potential impact of homeworking on the functioning of the same organisation, AdviceCo. It explores potential elements of inconsistency between organisational culture and climate for homeworking and the consequences of these inconsistencies for collective attitudes and behaviours and organisational effectiveness. As such, this thesis seeks to contribute not only to the on-going debate over the consequences of homeworking but also to the organisational culture and climate literature.

1.2. Goals of the research

The primary goal of this dissertation is to make a contribution to theory and management practice in the work-life field via three empirical papers: Paper I, II and III. Specifically, the objective of Paper I is twofold: a) to understand whether work-life balance (which includes conflict and enrichment) differs by life stage and if so, what those differences are, and b) to determine the potential impact of different combinations of conflict and enrichment on employee's job related attitudes and well-being. One of the main objectives of Paper II and III is to expand our knowledge regarding the consequences of a work-life initiative, homeworking, at the individual (Paper II) and organisational (Paper III) level. Paper II aims to provide empirical evidence of potential benefits and drawbacks of homeworking at the individual level. In order to do so, it examines the impact of homeworking on the employee-organisation relationship and the subsequent effects on employees' attitudes and behaviours. Paper III seeks to examine the role that homeworking plays in the alignment of organisational culture with climate and its effects on organisational performance.

Paper II and III also seek to make a theoretical contribution that extends beyond the work-life literature. Paper II aims to contribute to the EOR literature. The EOR literature has mainly studied the EOR from the employee's point of view based on the reciprocity norm (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). Researchers have identified the need for research that takes into account the views of both employees and employer and examines deviations from the reciprocity rule (Conway & Briner, 2009; Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Cropanzano &

Mitchell, 2005). Accordingly, Paper II attempts to address these gaps in the EOR literature by exploring the perspectives of both the employee and the employer and the potential outcomes of disagreement in perspectives.

Whilst Paper II seeks to contribute to the EOR literature, Paper III's goal is to contribute to the organisational culture and climate literature by exploring the role that an HR practice, homeworking, plays in the alignment of organisational culture and climate. This study follows the call for further research to explain the mechanism that links organisational culture with policies and practices and associated climate (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Muhammad, 2012; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013).

This dissertation also aims to address broader research gaps in the existing work-life interface literature. Specifically, this dissertation aims to contribute to theory in the work-life literature by a) integrating theoretical perspectives, b) including context and c) bridging theory with practice. Although research on the work-life interface has proliferated since the 1970's, it is very fragmented due to researchers working in various disciplines (e.g., psychology, business) and focusing on different issues. Consequently, researchers have stressed the need for more research that build on work across disciplines and/or theoretical perspectives (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus, Ten Brummelhuis, Major, & Burke, 2013). Researchers have also called for more research to include context (e.g., life-course) in order to extend our knowledge of the work-life interface (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kossek & Lautsch, 2012; Ollier-Malaterre, Valcour, Den Dulk, & Kossek, 2013). They argue that contextual factors (such as national culture or life stage) have an impact on how individuals experience work and life issues and, therefore, inclusion of context is a research avenue worth pursuing. In addition, bridging theory with practice is a research priority acknowledged by researchers (Jones et al., 2006; Kossek & Michel, 2010; Poelmans & Caligiuri, 2008). Even though there is a significant body of work in the work-life research literature, sometimes it has been considered as being developed independently from the "real world" and lacking practical application (Jones et al., 2006). There is a need for future research that translates theoretical knowledge into practice, for practitioners to be informed by research when designing, managing and implementing policies and programmes that affect work and life issues of individuals (Poelmans & Caligiuri, 2008). These gaps in the work-life literature and their significance are further explained in section 2.4.

Regarding the integration of theoretical perspectives, Paper I aims to address this gap by using work-life conflict and enrichment to study work-life balance by life stage. Research studies that combine the positive (enrichment) and negative (conflict) sides of the work-life

interface and/or taking a life stage perspective are unusual (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Huffman, Culbertson, Henning, & Goh, 2013), even though past research suggests that individuals may experience both conflict and enrichment simultaneously (Rantanen et al., 2011) and the work-life balance of an individual may be influenced by the life stage he/she occupies (Demerouti et al., 2012). Paper II includes the perspectives of both the employee and the organisation when examining the employee-organisation relationship (EOR). While consideration of the employee's and employer's view is important to further our understanding of the EOR, it is uncommon in the EOR literature (Conway & Briner, 2009; Taylor & Tekleab, 2004). Furthermore, the multi-level framework that Paper III applies to study the impact of the homeworking practice in an organisation is also innovative as most of the research in management uses a single level of analysis (Hitt, Beamish, Jackson, & Mathieu, 2007). Taking a macro or micro approach may not prove sufficient when dealing with multi-level social phenomena as most of the management issues are multilevel (Hitt et al., 2007).

Paper I and Paper III also address the call for research in work-life issues that include context (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kossek & Lautsch, 2012; Kossek et al., 2010; Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013). As noted above, Paper I uses the context of life stage to study work-life balance. Paper III analyses multiple external and internal contextual factors to better understand the impact of homeworking in an organisation.

This dissertation also seeks to bridge theory and practice, which is another area that researchers have identified as a priority for future study in the work-life domain (Jones et al., 2006; Kelly et al., 2008). For example, Paper III aims to offer new insights into the effects of a work-life initiative, homeworking, on one organisation in a very pragmatic manner: by presenting the case of an organisation in a real life context. It offers an explanation of these effects by showing how management practices and organisational culture may have led to these effects, while significantly contributing to the theoretical debate on the benefits of homeworking. Paper I and Paper II also strive to identify issues that have relevant application for practitioners. Paper I's goal is to determine whether and, if so, how work-life balance varies by life stage. The subsequent implication for managers is that they are able to better determine and forecast the needs of different segments of their workforce in order to design effective work-life policies. Paper II attempts to examine differences in the perception of the relationship between employee and employer with regard to the homeworking practice. Understanding these differences, why they occur and their potential effect on the employees could help managers to devise strategies to improve the employee-organisation relationship and associated employees' attitudes and behaviours.

To sum up, while the overall objective of this dissertation is to make a contribution to the work-life literature that expands theory on the work-life interface, each of the paper-based chapters have their own distinctive research goals. Each paper pursues different lines of investigation with particular research questions which are underpinned by specific theoretical frameworks. The extent of each paper's intended contribution together with the review of relevant literature are explained in the paper-based chapters (Chapters 3, 4 and 5).

1.3. Contribution

Paper I expands existing theory by revealing how job attitudes and well-being are associated with different combinations of work-life conflict and enrichment. For example, results from this study suggest that having a high level of both conflict and enrichment may not be associated with positive well-being or employee engagement, as previous research suggests. This justifies further research to continue investigating the combined outcomes of enrichment and conflict. Results from Paper I also revealed differences in work-life balance by life stage, raising new questions for future research to explore further why and how these differences occur, for example, why did younger employees experience a higher level of enrichment?

The findings from Paper II suggest that differences in perceptions of the employee-organisation relationship may produce adverse outcomes in terms of employees' attitudes and behaviour. For example, employees may perceive homeworking as a "right" rather than a benefit after an adaption period and, consequently, not meet their employer's expected contributions. This study also contributes to the employee-organisation relationship (EOR) literature by extending an existing theoretical model of the employment relationship which is limited to the employer's perspective (Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997) to include the views of employees as well. While results support past research that shows homeworking provides benefits such as becoming more productive, they also challenge past research on the potential effects of homeworking on working longer hours and enhanced extra-role behaviour, for example.

The last empirical study of this dissertation, Paper III, is concerned with the effects of the homeworking practice at the organisational level. It explores the role that homeworking may play in the organisational culture-climate alignment and provides a detailed contextual explanation of the potential adverse impact of homeworking in the functioning of the organisation. In essence, this multi-level study provides an explanation of how an HR practice, homeworking, links organisational culture with climate, addressing a knowledge gap

in the organisational culture and climate literature (Ostroff et al., 2012; Schneider et al., 2013). Findings reveal that homeworking may cause some tension in the culture-climate relationship and negatively affect organisational performance, contributing to a better understanding of the consequences of homeworking.

1.4. Overall research design

As noted above, the overall goal of this dissertation is to expand our knowledge of the work-life interface and the benefits of homeworking with an emphasis on practical relevance. Furthermore, the research design of the present dissertation is based on a pragmatic approach. In this section, I discuss the philosophical perspective, pragmatism, that supports the research methods applied and explain the approach taken to ensure the quality of the research. I will also discuss researcher bias and how I managed the ethical issues that arose during the research process.

1.4.1. A pragmatic approach

I follow the actual practice of many researchers which reflects a pragmatic approach. That is, I do not adhere to a quantitative or qualitative paradigm (and the philosophical doctrine upon which they are based) but am more concerned with the adequacy of particular methods to address specific research questions. A philosophical tradition which originated in the U.S.A. in the late 19th century, pragmatism has been advocated by numerous researchers (e.g., Charles Sanders Pierce, William James, and Jon Dewey) over the last century (Shook & Margolis, 2008). From an ontological perspective, pragmatists posit that there are multiple realities (i.e., subjective, objective), rejecting the traditional dualism (objective versus subjective) (Onwuegbuzie, Johnson, & Collins, 2009). In terms of epistemology, knowledge is considered to be both socially constructed and based on the reality of the world of which we are a part (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009). As a result, pragmatism calls for the use of mixed methods, determined by what works (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009) (Morgan, 2007).

If positivism or post-positivism is the underlying philosophy of quantitative research, and constructivism or interpretivism the knowledge philosophy of qualitative research, pragmatism is associated with mixed methods research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The pragmatic philosophical position offers a practical and outcome-oriented perspective that helps researchers select multiple methods to better answer their research questions. This clearly contradicts the incompatibility thesis, which posits that quantitative and qualitative research are mutually exclusive and their methods can not be mixed (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Sale, Lohfeld, & Brazil, 2002). This incompatibility is rooted in epistemological, ontological

and methodological principles. While some researchers (Sale et al., 2002) consider the qualitative and quantitative approaches to be incompatible because they do not study the same phenomena, others (Brannen, 2005) point out that many of the distinctions between qualitative and quantitative research are not that significant. Brannen discusses how qualitative and quantitative approaches are in practice interrelated during the different research phases: research design (the type of questions leading to the choice of methods), fieldwork phase (organic, development approach) and interpretation and contextualisation (when the data is analysed and interpreted).

Consistent with the pragmatic approach, it is my view that the research questions, rather than metaphysical assumptions, should drive social research (Morgan, 2007). I also agree with the principle that 'social research, in simplest terms, involves a dialogue between ideas and evidence' (Ragin, 1994, p. 55). Following a pragmatic approach, the way I connect theory with data in this dissertation is abductive, rather than purely inductive or deductive. In other words, I apply both induction and deduction, as I go back and forth from theory to data. (Morgan, 2007). I further explain this approach in the next section.

Mixed methods is becoming one of the three dominant 'research paradigms' (quantitative research, qualitative research, and mixed methods) according to some researchers (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007; Morgan, 2007). Mixed methods research can be defined as 'the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study' (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17). Some kinds of research call for a quantitative approach, others for a qualitative one. My research questions call for both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods. Therefore, I follow a multi-strategy design and adopt a quantitative method in Paper I and mixed methods in Paper II and Paper III. Each of the paper-based chapters (Chapters 3, 4 and 5) includes the research questions and an explanation of the selected methods.

I recognise that 'research questions are not inherently "important", and methods are not automatically "appropriate"' (Morgan, 2007, p. 69). The choices I made of what is important and appropriate (what I chose to study and how) are strongly influenced by my personal background. Since acknowledging the researcher's personal background is as important as epistemological assumptions in a pragmatic approach (Morgan, 2007), I will briefly explain how my personal background may have shaped my choice of research questions and the approach to address them.

Prior to my PhD studies, I became a mother of three children. As I expected, combining motherhood while keeping a full time position in a corporate organisation was very demanding and made me become more aware of work-life issues. What I did not expect was that I experienced not only the anticipated increase in work-life conflict but also an increase in work-life enrichment. I felt that being a mother and a senior manager was both exhausting and fulfilling. Consequently, when I started my PhD, I wanted to study the combination of conflict and enrichment and its consequences on the individual, which is the subject of the first empirical study of this thesis. I was also intrigued by changes in work-life balance by life stage. Since I am in my forties, I compared myself with younger mothers and felt that my experience of work-life issues may be different from theirs. I thought that, perhaps, my longer life experience helped me to cope with the demands from family and work roles differently from younger mothers and, as a result, experience work and life issues differently. I started reading literature about the work-life interface with a life stage perspective and was surprised that there was limited research done in this area. Subsequently, I decided to investigate differences in work-life balance by life stage, also part of the phenomena studied in the first empirical study of this dissertation. My interest in the effects of homeworking practice on individuals and organisations (also the subject of study of this thesis) was also influenced by my professional background. I was a homeworking employee for several years before I decided to do a PhD. My work before starting the PhD involved managing organisational changes in a setting similar to AdviceCo (the organisation where the research fieldwork for this dissertation takes place), where the homeworking practice was well established. My experience was that alignment of multiple organisational elements (e.g. culture, practices) was essential for the optimal functioning of the organisation. When I attended a seminar by Professor Ostroff early in my PhD studies, I was exposed to the literature on organisational culture and climate and the consequences of their (mis)alignment. My working background and this seminar helped me to generate an interest in investigating the organisational culture and climate field (the subject of study in the last empirical study of this thesis). Regarding my approach to research, the fact that I was a business manager for several years before I started my PhD, rather than coming from the academic world, probably influenced my inclination for pragmatism.

The use of mixed methods has been considered to enhance the validity of research (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). Mixed methods may lead to a broader understanding and corroboration of the phenomena under study than pure qualitative or quantitative methods (Johnson et al., 2007, p. 123) and thus enhance the quality of research. Quality of research is discussed in the next section.

1.4.2. Quality of research

'Without rigor, research is worthless, becomes fiction, and loses its utility.' (Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers, 2002, p. 14). In this section, I will discuss the approach I took to ensure and/or enhance the quality of the research with quantitative and qualitative methods. In order to do that, I will first discuss the quality criteria used. There is a wide variety of criteria for assessing quality in research. The most established criteria were designed for quantitative research and there is some debate in the research community about whether these are appropriate for qualitative research (Golafshani, 2003; Mays & Pope, 2000). The issue of quality in quantitative research versus qualitative research is part of a much larger debate of an epistemological nature. Some authors (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011) argue that since qualitative research represents a different inquiry paradigm from quantitative research, it can not be assessed by the traditional benchmarks for rigour, such as validity and reliability. Other researchers (Golafshani, 2003; Mays & Pope, 2000; Morse et al., 2002) claim that quantitative and qualitative methods can be assessed against the same criteria of quality, although the means of assessment may be adapted to take account of the distinctive aims of qualitative methods.

Regarding the quantitative research of this dissertation, my approach was to ensure it met the conventional criteria of validity and reliability. In order to ensure construct validity (M. B. Brewer, Reis, & Judd, 2000), I made use of established scales to measure the variables of the quantitative study. The origin of the scales used in the survey to collect data is included in each paper, together with the established reliability (M. B. Brewer et al., 2000) or internal consistency scores (Cronbach's alpha). Sample items from the scales were included so that the reader can see the actual items used. The full survey instrument is also exhibited in Appendix I. With regard to external validity (M. B. Brewer et al., 2000) or generalisability of the quantitative study, I discussed the particular organisational context and characteristics of the population (included in section 1.5.) with the purpose of showing the reader the likelihood of the results obtained being generalised to other settings and their limitations (which I include in the limitations for each paper-based chapter).

As noted earlier, the quality criteria that should be applied to qualitative research is the subject of lively debate among researchers. There is not a generally accepted benchmark for quality and there are numerous studies that propose different measures for assessing the goodness or rigour of qualitative research (Golafshani, 2003; Mays & Pope, 2000; Tracy, 2010). For instance, Tracy (2010) proposes a model that includes eight indicators of quality

in qualitative research: worthy topic, rich rigour, sincerity, credibility, resonance, significant contribution, ethics, and meaningful coherence.

Attempting to adapt the positivists' concepts of validity and reliability to qualitative research, Mays and Pope (2000) contend that validity and relevance should be applied to qualitative research. They posit that relevance has two dimensions: a) research is relevant when it either expands knowledge or helps to validate existing knowledge, and b) the extent to which the results can be generalised from the research setting to other settings. They propose various ways to improve the validity of a qualitative study such as triangulation, clear exposition of methods and data analysis, reflexivity, and attention to negative cases. To improve relevance, one method they propose is to ensure that the research report is sufficiently detailed for the reader to be able to assess if the findings apply in similar settings.

Golafshani (2003) argues that validity and reliability in quantitative research usually refer to research that is credible, whilst the credibility of a qualitative research depends on the ability and effort of the researcher. This is supported by the notion that 'while the credibility in quantitative research depends on instrument construction, in qualitative research, the researcher is the instrument' (p. 600). Golafshani (2003) explains that rather than treating reliability and validity separately (as it generally happens in quantitative studies), these terms are treated with terminology that encompasses both in qualitative research, such as credibility, transferability, and trustworthiness. Verification is the term that Morse and colleagues (2002) use to refer to "the mechanisms used during the process of research to incrementally contribute to ensuring reliability and validity and, thus, the rigor of a study." (p. 18). These mechanisms should be part of every of the inquiry process (Morse et al., 2002). Table 1 lists the verification strategies that Morse and colleagues propose.

Table 1: Verification strategies for qualitative research (Morse et al., 2002, p. 18)

Verification strategy	Description
Methodological coherence	Rigour in qualitative research requires ensuring "congruence between the research question and the components of the method."
Appropriate sample	Sample should consist of "participants who best represent or have knowledge of the research topic."
Concurrent collection and analysis of data	The concurrent collection and analysis of data "forms a mutual interaction between what is known and what one needs to know. This pacing and the iterative interaction between data and analysis is the essence of attaining reliability and validity."
Thinking theoretically	Thinking theoretically requires "macro-micro perspectives, inching forward without making cognitive leaps, constantly checking and rechecking, and building a solid foundation."
Theory development	Theory development in qualitative research involves moving "with deliberation between a micro perspective of the data and a macro conceptual/theoretical understanding."

I made use of the above verification strategies during the research process and make them explicit to the reader. Regarding methodological coherence, in Paper II and Paper III I explain why the mixed method is suited to address the research questions. For example, Paper III examines the influence of the organisational context on the alignment of culture and climate in light of homeworking and I argue that a mixed method, within the frame of a case study, is the most suitable research method to achieve it. A case study is useful when it is important to understand how the organisational and environmental context influences social processes (Leenders, Mauffette-Leenders, & Erskine, 2001). I discuss the case study approach in the next section. The selected samples for the qualitative studies were also carefully considered to match the research questions. In the case of Paper II, since the aim is to explore the difference in perceptions of homeworking between employees and the organisation, the sample includes homeworkers and managers in order to represent the views of employees and the organisation respectively. In Paper III, as the purpose is to understand the effects of homeworking at the organisational level, the sample for the qualitative research includes senior managers from different areas of the organisation addressing questions at the organisational level. I also sought negative cases or elements in the data that challenge, or seem to challenge, the emerging explanation of the subject under study. Negative cases are a recognised tactic to ensure the validity of the research by refining the explanation of the subject under study (Mays & Pope, 2000; Morse et al., 2002; Robson, 2011). If the emerging theme of Paper II is that employees have a different view of

the homeworking practice from the managers (representatives of the organisation), I also showed how this lack of agreement does not happen in some cases.

The non-linear nature of the qualitative inquiry is evident in the last three verification strategies (concurrent collection of analysis and data, thinking theoretically and theory development) proposed by Morse and colleagues (2002). Good qualitative research is iterative (Morse et al., 2002), where moving back and forth between design and implementation is necessary to ensure alignment among the different stages and components of the inquiry process. As discussed earlier, the research approach taken in Paper II and Paper III is not rooted in the deductive or inductive type of analysis, but abductive. I will illustrate this point by briefly describing the research process for Paper II. After reviewing the literature on the consequences of homeworking, the initial purpose of collecting qualitative data was to explore the effects of homeworking at the individual level. While collecting the data, it became apparent that some employees held a different perspective from the managers in terms of the effects of the homeworking practice. This triggered a review of the EOR literature and new research questions (related to an EOR theoretical framework) were formulated. Consequently, data analysis was further revised. This iterative process helped to enrich the theoretical grounds of Paper II and increase the value of its contribution. Similarly, the process of cleaning and analysing the data for Paper III was interdependent. The initial data analysis was based on a specific theoretical framework, the multilevel level model by Ostroff and colleagues (2012) shown on page 159. While analysing the data, I compared it back to the initial framework. However, data that were outside of the initial theoretical framework became significant to the findings and, thus, led me to expand the literature review and include it in the discussion. Therefore, while I initially used a theoretical framework to clean and select the data for Paper II and Paper III, my approach was flexible enough to capture new ideas that allowed for a more comprehensive analysis of theoretically-driven data.

Another method to improve research validity is triangulation (Denzin, 1973; Golafshani, 2003; Mays & Pope, 2000). Triangulation is also one of the main reasons claimed by researchers for the use of mixed methods, based on the notion that qualitative and quantitative methods complement each other (Jick, 1979; Johnson et al., 2007). Broadly, triangulation can be defined as the use of multiple methods in studying the same phenomenon for the purpose of increasing research credibility (Denzin, 1973). The basic idea is that multiple perspectives increase accuracy. Triangulation may result from the use of a combination of data collection methods (data triangulation), multiple observers (observer triangulation), a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches (methodological triangulation) or multiple theories or

perspectives (theory triangulation) (Denzin, 1973). In this dissertation I apply different types of triangulation to increase the accuracy of the analysis. As explained in Chapters 4 and 5, Paper II and Paper III, I make use of quantitative analysis to support findings from qualitative analysis and, hence, I make use of methodological triangulation. In Paper II and, in particular in Paper III, the results of the empirical study are underpinned by multiple data collection methods (e.g., survey, interviews, internal documents). In some cases I also use multiple theories to validate the findings of this dissertation. For example, in Paper II, I use the theoretical concepts of utility margin, a sense of entitlement, and the hedonistic treadmill to support the proposition that employees may not perceive homeworking as organisational support over time (more detail is provided on pages 116 and 117).

Overall, this thesis is an in-depth study of multiple social phenomena in one organisation, AdviceCo, in a "real life" context. As such, it is a case study. Cases studies have their own challenges in terms of quality, which I discuss in the next section.

1.4.3. Case study

Case study is an "in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, policy, institution, program or system in a 'real life' context." (Simons, 2009). Case studies (as most of the research based on qualitative methods to some extent) have been frequently criticised because of their potential limitations with regard to generalisation of results (Tsang, 2014b; Yin, 2014). This is relevant because, after all, the purpose of research is to generalise beyond one's data (Mintzberg, 2005). However, recent literature has pointed out that case studies may indeed be used for theoretical generalisation (Yin, 2014) and in fact, may have some merits over quantitative methods in some generalisation aspects (Tsang, 2014a; Yin, 2014).

In his systematic review of case studies, Tsang (2014a) contends that the case study is a valid method in three aspects of generalisation: theoretical generalisation (or theory building), falsification (or theory testing), and empirical generalisation. By performing a deep and detailed examination of a social phenomenon in case studies, researchers can illuminate the underlying mechanism of such a phenomenon and explain cause and effect relationships. Case studies address "why" and "how" questions, contributing to theory building. At the same time, since case studies look at social events in their rich context, they can identify the potential contingencies under which the explanatory mechanisms may occur. Similarly, by directly investigating mechanisms of social phenomena in case studies, researchers can contradict mechanisms or falsify hypotheses proposed by existing theory. Lastly, in terms of

generalising the results from a case study to the population from which the case is drawn, Tsang posits that results from case studies may be less generalisable than those from quantitative studies within the population concerned. This is because quantitative studies are in a better position to show that what is to be generalised is not an idiosyncratic trait of a case study. However, Tsang notes that the generalisability of the quantitative results greatly depends upon the representativeness of the sample. Regarding generalisation to other populations (cross-population generalisation), Tsang argues that there is no reason why case study results should be less generalisable than those from quantitative methods, as cross-population generalisation depends on how different or similar the two populations in question are with respect to the trait that is generalised. As a result, contrary to the popular view that case studies are weak in generalisation, one can argue that case studies are well suited to theory development.

According to Yin (2014, p. 2), a case study "investigates a contemporary phenomenon 'the case' in its real world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident". In this thesis, the context is deliberately part of the design. This is more evident in Paper III, where the theoretical model applied explicitly includes multiple contextual factors to examine the culture-climate alignment process.

One of the limitations of this dissertation is that it did not have multiple investigators or observers to confirm findings. Observer triangulation is a valuable tool to reduce researcher bias, which is also considered a threat to validity in qualitative studies (Golafshani, 2003; Mays & Pope, 2000; Robson, 2011). Research bias is discussed in next section.

1.4.4. Researcher bias

Issues of bias are present when the researcher is the instrument, as it is in the case of qualitative research. A researcher is expected to analyse data in a manner that avoids misinterpretations and leads to findings based on the evidence. Although seeking objectivity is a traditional (or positivist) approach, it is possible to strive for accuracy in interpreting qualitative data without misconstruction. Researchers have suggested different strategies to deal with researcher bias, such as reflexivity (Berger, 2015; Mays & Pope, 2000) and member confirmation (Mays & Pope, 2000; Robson, 2011).

Reflexivity means 'sensitivity to the ways in which the researcher and the research process have shaped the collected data, including the role of prior assumptions and experience, which can influence even the most avowedly inductive inquiries.' (Mays & Pope, 2000, p. 51). Reflexivity draws attention to the 'complex relationship between processes of knowledge

production and the various contexts of such processes as well as the involvement of the knowledge producer' (Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2009, p. 5). A reflexive approach involves both interpretation and reflection (Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2009). According to Alvesson and Skoldberg (2009), interpretation is the process that allows the researcher to build knowledge from empirical material (observations, measurements, statements from interviews); in other words, it is the researcher's understanding of reality. The element of reflection brings the focus to the researcher or observer and how his/her personal and intellectual characteristics shape the interpretation of the empirical material. In a sense, reflection can be defined as the 'interpretation of interpretation' (Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2009, p. 6). Therefore, it is important to make explicit what I understand my personal and intellectual biases may be from the outset in order to enhance the credibility of the findings.

First, my personal background helps to explain my choice of research subjects and approach (pragmatism), as noted in Section 1.4.1. Second, in terms of employee participation in the research, there are several factors to be considered. The fact that I was part of a research team hired by the organisation to conduct the research allowed me to establish trust with the interviewees during the qualitative stages of the process. The research was part of a broader study requested by the organisation in order to evaluate the practice of homeworking, as further explained in the next section. I think the research participants had the expectation that the research would prove beneficial for the organisation and its members and consequently dedicated considerable time to it. The quantitative survey took approximately 45 minutes to complete, and the individual in-depth interviews had an approximate duration of one hour each. In addition, I believe that having a research team from a prestigious research institution, LSE, meant the interviewees had a high level of expectation from the study in terms of rigour and ultimate value and, thus, contributed to their commitment and dedication to the research. I think it was also positive that the research team was external to the organisation and were very clear about the confidentiality terms. I think this created a very good basis for the research participants to be as open and honest as possible when engaging in the research.

Third, my personal experience during the data collection process is also worth noting for the purpose of reflection. Although I had weeks of intensive planning and preparatory work prior to the qualitative interviews (literature review, orientation interviews with managers, preparation of interview guide), it was a revelation sitting across from an actual human being when I was conducting the in-depth interviews. I experienced some tension trying to avoid leading questions and keeping my personal opinions in check while appearing interested in what the interviewee was saying and ensuring the recording of the interview was working. In

general, I restricted my questions to the interview guide that we designed, although the semi-structured nature of the interviews allowed some degree of deviation from the pre-prepared questions. My personal background as a former homeworking employee and manager of homeworkers may have helped me to better understand the practicalities of working from home that some of the interviewees discussed. However, as I was conducting the interviews, I also realised how different their experiences were from my own. All the interviews were conducted on the premises of the organisation. The office location together with the use of recording equipment and an interview guide provided a formal setting for the interview and helped me to keep distance from the interviewees. Walking into the premises already gave me some initial impressions on the type of organisation I was dealing with. My reflection on the physical space of the organisation is included in Chapter 5.

Lastly, during the data analysis and interpretation of the results, there were some potential sources of bias. Regarding the participants' bias, the fact that the participants knew about the general purpose of the research may have influenced their responses. For example, those employees who were interested in keeping the homeworking practice as it was, may have been more prone to highlight the benefits of homeworking than their disadvantages. I attempted to reduce the effects of this potential bias by considering the employees' working patterns when analysing and presenting the responses. Regarding my own bias, the interpretation of the data was limited by my own *repertoire of interpretations*, as Alvesson and Sköldbberg (2009) call it. For example, the interpretive options were limited by the theoretical framework I applied. However, as I noted earlier when discussing the non-linear approach of qualitative methods, as I was analysing the data, new ideas were generated, which prompted me to expand the literature review and, in turn, enrich the findings.

An additional tactic I used to minimise researcher bias and ensure the validity of the interpretation of the data is "member checking" or respondent validation (Mays & Pope, 2000; Robson, 2011). In Paper III, the findings are driven by the interpretation of the phenomena under study by senior managers in the organisation. As I explain in Paper III, the relationship of multiple variables that is part of the findings is based on the interpretation by the senior managers who participated in a second phase of qualitative interviews.

1.4.5. Ethical issues

When dealing with human subjects, one can expect that ethical issues may arise with research. Compliance with the research ethics code of the London School of Economics and Political Science was met under the guidance of my secondary supervisor, who was also part

of the research team collecting some of the primary data for this thesis. In this section, I describe the ethical issues considered during the research process and how these were addressed.

Before discussing the specific ethical issues, I will first provide some background on the research project. This dissertation employs primary empirical data from a broader study conducted by the author and two colleagues at a public sector organisation, AdviceCo³. More information on AdviceCo is presented in next section. This broader study was commissioned by AdviceCo and its basic purpose was to evaluate the homeworking practice at the organisation in order to inform their policy and practice. As part of the agreement with the organisation, the members of the research team could expand the scope of the data to be collected in order to pursue their own lines of investigation. As a result, AdviceCo granted full support to the research team in seeking participants for the research and accessing internal organisational data. Participation in the research among employees was further facilitated by AdviceCo as all the interviews took place at AdviceCo's premises during business hours.

The ethical issues that the research team envisaged were mainly regarding the consent to use the data and confidentiality. Individuals' participation in the research was voluntary and appropriately informed. Before participating in the research, participants were informed of the general purpose of the research, likely time length that the interview or survey would take and that their identity would not be revealed. Research participants provided their informed consent to participate in the research. In the case of the qualitative interviews, permission from the interviewees was sought to record the interviews. Anonymity was also guaranteed for the individuals participating in the research. Consequently, no identifying information about the individual is revealed in written or other communication. For example, the name of the employees providing direct quotes in this dissertation are all fictional. The raw research data was not shared with AdviceCo and kept by the research team. Only the reports written by the research team were shared with AdviceCo.

Regarding the anonymity of the organisation, AdviceCo asked the members of the research team not to reveal its identity when publishing research based on the collected data and provided some guidelines to ensure anonymity. Accordingly, I have taken measures to keep the organisation's anonymity by changing some names and facts that are not essential for the purpose of the current research. A copy of this dissertation was also sent to AdviceCo to seek permission for publication as a PhD thesis.

³ Fictional name

1.5. Organisational context and fieldwork overview

As noted earlier, this dissertation makes use of primary empirical data from a broader study conducted by the author and two colleagues at a public sector organisation, AdviceCo, that provides advisory and other services to businesses and individuals across Great Britain. As the detail of the type organisation and the characteristics of its workforce are necessary to interpret the findings for all empirical studies of this dissertation, I will provide such information in this section rather than include it in each of the paper-specific chapters.

1.5.1. AdviceCo

AdviceCo employs more than 900 staff within local offices across different regions of the UK. Each member of staff belongs to a specific grade or seniority level, which is associated with a salary band. For the purpose of this dissertation, I will refer to grade 1 as the highest or most senior and grade 5 as the most junior. Employees at AdviceCo are involved in specific functions such as the provision of advisory services, finance, strategy, human resources, etc. The largest group of employees delivers advisory services. Depending on their managerial level, employees providing advisory services are Telephone Services employees (the most junior staff), advisors or senior advisors. Advisors and senior advisors interact with customers via phone, email, or face to face, while the Telephone Services employees interact with customers solely via the phone. AdviceCo monitors the volume of calls and cost per call handled by the Telephone Services employees and the volume of cases, resolution rate and cost per case managed by the advisors and senior advisors.

AdviceCo implemented homeworking more than 15 years ago in order to meet demands from their employees and organisational cost reduction targets, among other reasons. Homeworking in AdviceCo started informally and grew organically in the 1980s and 1990s. In the 1990s, AdviceCo set up a formal homeworking programme with a pilot, post-pilot evaluation, and subsequent roll out. In the past few years, the homeworking practice has experienced a significant expansion at AdviceCo. One of the reasons this practice has grown in this organisation is due to the fact that the nature of the work performed by a large number of its employees naturally fits with homeworking: it requires privacy, concentration and little supervision, and entails low task interdependence with co-workers. Flexible working practices, in particular homeworking, are well embedded in AdviceCo's culture and widely used by the staff. Approximately 11% of the staff is classified as "designated homeworkers". However, homeworking is used on an *ad hoc* basis by a much larger number of employees, most obviously those staff classified as "flexible workers" and even many staff who, despite

being technically "office-based", nevertheless make semi-regular use of opportunities to work from home. An estimated 44% of the employees work regularly from home at least 20% of their working time in a typical week. For the purpose of this dissertation, I differentiate between employees who work mostly from home (homeworkers), employees who work mostly at the office (office-based workers), and employees who work an average of two to three days away from the office (flexible workers).

Typically, the opportunity to work from home is not granted to new recruits. The career path for most employees generally starts at the call centre, where staff do not have access to flexible working. Once employees are promoted to the position of advisor, they need to wait for a year before applying for homeworking. Homeworking, with a few exceptions (e.g., due to office closure), is on a voluntary basis. Primary survey data showed that the average organisational tenure of homeworkers within this organisation is 13.9 years, with an average of 6.6 years (from a range of a few months to 24 years) spent homeworking. The average tenure for non-homeworkers is 8.9 years.

1.5.2. Fieldwork overview

The primary empirical data were collected over a period of 16 months and are both qualitative and quantitative. Anonymity was guaranteed to research participants during the whole process of data collection. A timeline of the data collection is included in Table 2.

Table 2: Timeline of the primary data collection

Data	Time of collection
Informational interviews with three senior managers	February 2012
Individual interviews with forty participants (group I)	March 2012 to April 2012
Pilot test (12 participants)	May 2012
Online survey (502 participants)	June 2012
Individual interviews with eight senior managers (group II)	July 2013

The first interviews conducted at AdviceCo were with the managers who commissioned the research work. The interviews were face to face, at AdviceCo's offices and were semi-structured. The main objective of the interviews was to discuss the scope, requirements and plan for the implementation of the research. During these interviews, the research team also

expanded their understanding of AdviceCo's organisational structure, history and main business objectives.

The research team then conducted individual in-depth interviews with 40 AdviceCo employees (group I) across the regions they served. The 40 participants were recruited by the organisation for a representative mix of homeworking status (43% office based and 67% working regularly from home) and gender (46% female) in three different geographical locations. These interviews were face-to-face, semi-structured, of approximately one hour duration, at different office locations. Interviews were recorded with the consent of the participants. More information on the qualitative research participants is provided in Table 3.

Table 3: Profile of research participants of group I qualitative interviews

Sample	40 Participants
Employee / Manager	70.0% Employees 30.0% Managers
Gender	47.5% Women 52.5% Men
Working pattern	40.0% Homeworkers 22.5% Flexible workers 37.5% Office-based workers

These interviews served to inform the development of a quantitative survey for the entire employee population of the organisation. The survey was developed iteratively with AdviceCo staff to ensure that all key issues were addressed and that academic rigor in the measures was obtained. The employee survey was tested online with a pilot group of 12 participants, also recruited by the organisation. The pilot test was successful insofar as minimal changes were made in the final survey. Email notifications were sent to all employees in the organisation prior to the employee survey in order to inform them of the questionnaire, its purpose, dates, etc. The employee survey was launched shortly after the pilot test. A total of 514 employees participated in the survey, representing a response rate of approximately 55%. This was representative of the workforce at AdviceCo at the time the research was conducted. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 70 years old, and the average age was 46 years. Fifty seven per cent of participants reported being female and 23% reported managing others at work. In terms of main role occupation, 21% stated that they were Telephone Services advisors and 37% indicated that they were advisors.

Regarding working patterns, 27% of employees reported working mostly from home, 54% were mostly based in the office and 19% worked more flexibly (working an average of two to three days away from the office). A profile of the participants can be found in Table 4.

Table 4: Profile of research participants of online survey

Sample	514 Participants
Employee / Manager	77% Employees 23% Managers
Gender	43% Male 57% Female
Age range	18 to 70 years old
Average age	46 years
Average organisational tenure	11 years
Working pattern	26% Homeworkers 20% Flexible workers 54% Office-based workers
Managerial grade	5% in Grade 1 16% in Grade 2 43% in Grade 3 30% in Grade 4 6% in Grade 5

Upon completion of the data collection, the project team worked extensively with AdviceCo to develop a series of reports that addressed the internal needs of the organisation. The research team also had a formal meeting with a group of senior managers to discuss the findings.

In the final phase of the fieldwork, I conducted eight individual interviews with senior managers (group II) from different divisions to further discuss the findings from the research. Two of these senior managers participated in the group I interviews. The purpose of these interviews was to capture the managers' interpretation of specific issues that arose from the research. The interviews were face to face, of an approximately one hour in duration and took place at office locations. All interviews were transcribed for the analysis. Names have been changed to protect participants' anonymity. I produced an internal report of initial findings for the organisation. Whether and how the findings from all the fieldwork were used to implement any changes in the organisation is not known to the research team.

Analysis and results from Paper I rely on the quantitative survey data. Paper II's analysis and results are based on the qualitative data from group I supported by some of the data from the quantitative survey. Paper III is underpinned by all the primary data collected plus other secondary data (detailed in Chapter 5). Table 5 outlines the data that is used in each paper.

Table 5: Primary data by paper

Data	Paper that the data supports
Individual interviews with forty participants (group I)	Paper II & Paper III
Pilot test (12 participants)	Paper I, Paper II & Paper III
Online survey (502 participants)	Paper I, Paper II & Paper III
Individual interviews with eight senior managers (group II)	Paper III

Primary data were complemented by secondary data to support the analysis for Paper III. The secondary data used was internal (such as AdviceCo's annual reports) and external (press media and relevant research literature). A list of the main secondary data sources is included in Table 6.

Table 6: Secondary sources of data for Paper III

Data	Source	Year
AdviceCo's annual reports	AdviceCo	2005/06- 2012/13
Employee engagement survey (77% response rate)	Civil Service People Survey	2011
Employee performance	AdviceCo	2011
All staff breakdown by hierarchy	AdviceCo	2011
Diversity and equality reports	AdviceCo	2010-2012
Disabled Employees as a proportion of all employees	AdviceCo	2011
Age distribution of employees	AdviceCo	2011

An important note regarding the secondary data used for this study is that they include actual supervisor-rated employee performance data which were matched with employee's data from the online survey. Data on employee behaviours is relatively infrequent in the work-life research compared to attitudinal behaviour, as it is harder to collect (Eby et al., 2005). In fact, previous research has argued that work-related attitudes are often important because they

are associated with behaviours (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Scandura & Lankau, 1997). Consequently, using employee behaviour data (such as supervisor-rated employee performance) should strengthen the analysis and enhance its validity.

1.6. Structure of this dissertation

This dissertation is structured in three separate papers, which are included in Chapter 3, 4, and 5. Drawing upon different theoretical frameworks, the papers are independent from each other as each addresses different research questions. Does life stage impact work-life balance? Paper I introduces the organisation under study in this dissertation, AdviceCo, by examining the work-life balance of their employees by life stage. Integrating the positive and negative aspects of the work-life interface, it contends that individuals' work-life balance may differ by life stage, resulting in different work-related and well-being outcomes.

What are the consequences of homeworking for both the individual employee and employer? Papers II and III aim to bring a further understanding of the work-life interface of the employees at AdviceCo by focusing on the impact of the use of homeworking, a well established work-life practice in this organisation, on both employee and employer. Attempting to shed light on the impact that homeworking may have on the employee-organisation relationship, Paper II addresses the question of what happens when homeworking is perceived differently by employee and employer and challenges the view that homeworking may result in increased productivity and engagement from employees. Paper III explores the role that homeworking may play in the organisational culture-climate alignment and provides a detailed contextual explanation of the potential adverse impact of homeworking in the functioning of the organisation.

Although a literature review is included in each of the paper-based chapters, I review the overarching literature for the three papers in next chapter (Chapter 2). In the final chapter of the dissertation (Chapter 6), I discuss the broader theoretical contributions of this work and highlight directions for future research.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 The "work-life" term

2.2. Work-life theories

2.2.1. Role scarcity and work-life conflict

2.2.2. Role expansion and work-life enrichment

2.2.3. Border and boundary theories

2.2.4. Decision-making framework

2.2.5. Ecological systems theory

2.3. A work-life practice: homeworking

2.3.1. Introduction to the homeworking literature

2.3.2. Consequences at the individual level

2.3.3. Consequences for the team

2.3.4. Consequences for the organisation

2.3.5. Consequences for society

2.3.6. Debatable benefits of homeworking

2.4. Gaps in the work-life literature

2.4.1. Integration of theoretical perspectives

2.4.2. Context matters

2.4.3. Bridging theory with practice

2.5. Additional theories

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents an overarching literature review that provides the basis for the literature reviewed in each of the papers. I identify gaps in current knowledge and outline the contributions of this dissertation. Since this dissertation attempts to contribute to the work-life interface literature, first, I start with an explanation of the "work-life" term, followed by a discussion of the main work-life theories that frame the present research study. The work-life theoretical frameworks included in this chapter are role scarcity, role expansion, boundary and border theories, decision-making framework and ecological systems theory. Second, I focus on providing an overview of one practice that may enhance the work-life interface, homeworking, and its consequences, which are the subjects of study of Paper II and Paper III. Third, I offer a view of broader gaps in the work-life literature that this dissertation aims to contribute to. Finally, I present an overview of the specific theories and concepts that underpin each of the three papers of this dissertation, together with theoretical gaps and expected contribution. Table 7 depicts an outline of this chapter. It summarises the main themes of the literature review, gaps in knowledge and the expected contribution, both overarching and paper specific, of this dissertation. The content of this table will be explained in the next sections.

Table 7: Literature review outline

	Main themes	Gaps in knowledge	Expected contribution
Overarching literature review	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work-life term. • Work-life theories (role scarcity, role expansion, boundary and border, decision-making, ecological systems). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integration of theoretical perspectives. • Inclusion of context. • Bridging theory with practice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrate conflict with enrichment (Paper I). Integrate employee and employer perspective (Paper II). • Include the life course context (Paper I) and the organisational culture context (Paper III). • Provide a practical illustration of potential benefits and drawbacks of the practice of homeworking (Paper II and III).
Paper I literature review	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work-life balance: definition and measurement. • A life stage approach to work-life conflict and enrichment: theoretical and empirical evidence. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Life stage is important but is rarely the focus of work-life interface research. More research is needed to show differences in work-life interface variables by life stage. • Majority of work-life interface studies by life-stage disregard enrichment. Research required to show consequences of combination of conflict and enrichment. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Show differences in work-life balance by life-stage. • Provide evidence of the effects of work-life balance (which includes conflict and enrichment) on individuals' work-related attitudes and well-being.
Paper II literature review	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consequences of homeworking at the individual level. • EOR constructs: POS, social and economic exchange, psychological contract and employment relationship. • Theories: Social exchange and Inducements-Contributions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Debatable benefits of homeworking at the individual level. • Research needed to evaluate assumption in EOR research that the inducements offered by organisations are valued by employees, leading to reciprocation of beneficial treatment. • With some exceptions (e.g. employment relationships), most of past EOR research is from the employee's point of view. Inclusion of the employer's perspective is a priority. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide evidence of potential benefits and drawbacks of homeworking at the individual level. • Explain how an organisational inducement (homeworking) might become less valued by employees and what the consequences might be. • Extend employment relationships model by including perceptions of employee. • Explore consequences of disagreement in perceptions between employee and employer.
Paper III literature review	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consequences of homeworking at the organisational level. • Organisational culture and organisational climate. • Alignment of culture and climate. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Debatable benefits of homeworking at the organisational level. • The role of HR practices as a linking mechanism between organisational culture and climate is still to be explored by future research. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide empirical evidence of potential benefits and drawbacks of homeworking at the organisational level. • Explore the role that an HR practice, homeworking, plays in the alignment of organisational culture and climate.

2.1. The "work-life" term

The field of academic study of the work-life interface started in the late 1970s in the U.S., when demographic changes in the workforce (growing number of employed women, dual earner parents and single parents) and a subsequent rising concern about the well-being and quality of life of employees emerged (Kossek et al., 2010) and seminal works by, for example, Kanter (1977) and Pleck (1977) were published.

Other contributing factors to the rising interest in work-life issues that are usually mentioned in the work-life research literature are changes in technology and globalisation, which potentially cause greater work-life conflict and stress among employees (Eby et al., 2005; Greenhaus et al., 2013). Work-life conflict may be greater as advances in technology help to blur the lines between work and private life. The pervasive presence of computers, mobile phones and other advances in information and communication technology have contributed to the ability for some work to be performed 24/7, from virtually any location, and supported by an 'always on' organisational culture (Major, Germano, Jones, Burke, & Westman, 2006). This can lead to longer work hours and work intensification, which cuts into personal/family time (Valcour & Hunter, 2005). However, advances in technology can also enable employees to balance their work and life spheres successfully (Valcour & Hunter, 2005). In addition, global competition might put pressure on organisations to increase their demands on employees to become more flexible and work longer hours, and, therefore, increase employee's work-life conflict (Major et al., 2006).

Traditionally, the term commonly used for the work-life literature was 'work-family' because it was mostly dedicated to the study of the management of work and family demands. As childcare demands are the most visible non-work demands, work-family research and policies mainly concerned employees who were responsible for childcare, traditionally women. Increasingly, researchers and organisations have been recognising that all workers (whether they have family responsibilities or not) have lives outside of work that need to be supported and, accordingly, have been using the term 'work-life' (for example, McMillan, Morris, & Atchley, 2011). Strictly speaking, the terms work-life and work-family are not neutral, as work-life includes employees with and without families, whereas work-family does not. However, some authors have used the term "work-family" generically to represent work/non-work aspects (for example, Hammer & Zimmerman, 2011).

There is an on-going debate over the definition of the work and non-work environments in research (Eby et al., 2005). Regarding "work", most of the research on the work-life interface

has focused on formal paid activities (Eby et al., 2005; Piotrkowski, Rapoport, & Rapoport, 1987). However, a broad definition of work encompasses participation in the formal economy (wage-labour), in the informal or "black" economy (and thus not included in the public account of wages) and in non-paid activities (e.g., housework, volunteer work) (Pahl, 1984; Piotrkowski et al., 1987). Following past work-life literature (Eby et al., 2005), this dissertation focuses on paid activities which include full-time and part-time employment.

In their review of work-family research in the industrial-organisational psychology and organisational behaviour literature, Eby and colleagues (2005) note that research scholars have put more emphasis on the measurement of different aspects of the "work" domain than on the "life" domain and that there is little progress in defining and measuring the non-work environment. Addressing this blind spot in the work-family literature, scholars have contended that "life" is multidimensional as individuals engage in multiple roles outside of work (e.g., family role, volunteer role) (Hall, Kossek, Briscoe, Pichler, & Lee, 2013). The empirical studies by Hall and colleagues suggest support for three non-work orientations (personal life, family and community service) that represent three different life roles. They also argue that life orientations may change over the life span of individuals and also vary by generations.

For the purpose of this dissertation, I will use the term "work-life" to refer to paid work activities and personal life activities, which may include different non-work pursuits (e.g., sports, unpaid care giving, religious activities, community involvement).

2.2. Work-life theories

There are several work-life theories that guide and/or help to better understand the theoretical frameworks that are specific for each empirical study of this dissertation. First, the two contrasting perspectives of the work-life interface, role scarcity and role expansion, are relevant to this dissertation since I am integrating both views in the first empirical study of this thesis. Second, border and boundary theory are important to understand the consequences of working from home at the individual level, which is the subject of second empirical study of this thesis. As homeworking may help to blur the boundaries between work and home spheres, it may lead to an increase in conflict. Third, decision-making theory provides theoretical basis for individuals making work-life decisions depending on the life-stage they are at, and this may impact their resulting work-life interface. In other words, life stage may play a role in work-life decision making which, in turn, will influence the work-life interface. Lastly, the ecological systems view provides support to broaden the scope of the study of the

work-life interface by, for example, incorporating a life-stage perspective or an organisational context, as they are included in this dissertation.

2.2.1. Role scarcity and work-life conflict

The work-life literature is based on the key principle that work and non-work domains are distinctive and separate. Research in this field has been focused on the relationship between work and non-work domains, how individuals behave in each domain and the associated outcomes of the work-life interface, such as stress and well-being. This literature has traditionally been dominated by role theory, which concerns 'the fact that human beings behave in ways that are different and predictable depending on their respective social identity and the situation' (Biddle, 1986, p. 68). Two contrasting perspectives, scarcity and expansion, have been used to study involvement in multiple roles.

Role scarcity theory advocates that individuals have multiple roles, and each role brings demands and expectations that may conflict with each other. As individuals have limited resources, such as time and energy (Goode, 1960), involvement in multiple roles means competition for these scarce resources to meet the role demands, which results in conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

In their influential work, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) integrate the literature on conflict between the work role and family role (excluding the 'leisure' role) and propose a model with three sources of conflict: time (time dedicated to one role makes it difficult to meet the requirements of another role), strain (strain from involvement in one role makes it difficult to engage in another role) and behaviour (behaviours required in one role make it difficult to meet the requirements of another role).

Extending the theoretical model by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), Frone et al. (1992a) develop a model to explain antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict by explicitly differentiating work to family conflict (i.e., work interfering with family) from family to work conflict (i.e., family interfering with work). In other words, work-life conflict is bi-directional. Work can interfere with or spill over into life (for example, taking work-related calls while having dinner with friends) and life can interfere or spill over into work (for example, leaving work early to take an elderly parent to the doctor). Past research has found a higher prevalence of work-to-life conflict than life-to-work, implying that life "boundaries" are more permeable than work "boundaries" (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992b). In other words, employees may perceive they have more flexibility in meeting the requirements of the family role than the work role and, therefore, are more likely to feel work interfering with life than

vice versa. This may suggest such that these two types could be considered distinct constructs (Frone et al., 1992a; O'Driscoll, Ilgen, & Hildreth, 1992). The asymmetrical permeability of work and life boundaries does not mean that the effects of work-to-life conflict on employees' attitudes and behaviour are greater than the impact of life-to-work conflict. Consequences of work-life conflict are discussed later in this section.

In a more recent work, Carlson and Frone (2003) propose a new conceptual model of work-life conflict and identify two types of interference between the work domain and the family domain: internal and external interference. External interference is generated by a source external to the individual (for example, a doctor's appointment that causes an employee to leave work earlier). Internal interference is generated by self-inflicted demands (for example, preoccupation with a sick child that hinders performance at work).

Antecedents of work-life role conflict are multiple and can be generated in the work domain (e.g., working hours or work responsibilities) and life domain (e.g., caregiving responsibilities) (Byron, 2005; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Spector et al., 2004). Antecedents of work-life conflict could also be related to an individual's personal or dispositional factors such as gender (Fu & Shaffer, 2001) or personality (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

There are numerous studies that associate work-to-life and life-to-work conflict with negative outcomes for individuals and organisations (Allen et al., 2000). Past empirical research has found that work-life conflict is related to mental and physical health problems (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997; O'Driscoll et al., 1992) and decreased life satisfaction (Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). In terms of work-related attitudes, prior research suggests that work-life conflict may diminish job satisfaction (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Judge et al., 1994; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998) and organisational commitment (Allen et al., 2000), and increase turnover intentions (Boyar, Maertz Jr, Pearson, & Keough, 2003; Chang, 2008).

Work-life conflict has also been associated with a decrease in performance in both the work role and life role. Results from prior studies have linked work-life conflict with reduced job performance (Allen et al., 2000; Netemeyer, Maxham III, & Pullig, 2005) and increased absenteeism (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Similarly, work-life conflict may lead to an individual performing less well in the life domain, for example, as a parent or a partner (Bowes & Poelmans, 2005). The concept of work-life conflict is an essential component work-life balance, which is the subject of Paper I. It also helps to understand potential benefits of homeworking, which are examined in Paper II and Paper III. While work-life conflict can be

considered the negative side of the work-life interface, work-life enrichment is the positive side.

2.2.2. Role expansion and work-life enrichment

From the positive psychology perspective, role expansion theory (Nordenmark, 2004) posits that participation in multiple roles can actually be beneficial for individuals and organisations. Experiences in one role can produce positive outcomes in the other role (Ilies, Wilson, & Wagner, 2009; van Steenbergen, Ellemers, & Mooijaart, 2007). Work can have a positive impact on private life: for example, having flexibility in terms of working hours can help an employee to better accommodate his/her private life demands or needs, such as going to the dentist. Life resources could also benefit work: for example, having a wide social network can help an individual's hiring prospects. This is known as positive spillover, or enrichment from one domain to another.

In their pivotal work, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) identify different types of resources that may lead to work-life enrichment. These resources include skill and perspectives (e.g., interpersonal skills), psychological and physical resources (e.g., self-efficacy), social-capital resources (e.g., social network), flexibility (e.g., flexible working practices), and material resources (e.g., money). Greenhaus and Powell posit that resources generated in one's work or family role benefit the quality of life in another work or family role and considered quality of life as having two components: high performance and positive affect. They propose that the resources generated in one role can promote high performance and positive affect in another and distinguished between direct (instrumental path) and indirect (affective path) effects. An example of a direct or instrumental path could be that money generated in the work role helps to meet the demands of the family role (e.g., pays for childcare) and directly increases performance in that role. An example of resources producing enrichment via an indirect or affective path could be a good relationship with a spouse generating a positive emotion (e.g., enthusiasm), which, in turn, can produce positive affect in the work role and indirectly increase performance in that role. Greenhaus and Powell's model provides an understanding of how the enrichment process may work.

Empirical evidence has demonstrated that work-life enrichment is positively linked to job related attitudes such as increased job satisfaction and affective commitment (McNall et al., 2010), job behaviours such as decreased turnover intentions (Russo & Buonocore, 2012), and health outcomes such as a higher level of physical and mental health (Baral & Bhargava, 2010). In their meta-analysis of the consequences of work-life enrichment, McNall and

colleagues (2010) argued that social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989) could be used to explain why enrichment is related to positive work-related and non work-related outcomes. Social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) may help to explain why employees perceive that their organisation supports them (by providing resources which help employees to experience enrichment) and feel they need to reciprocate the organisation with positive work-related attitudes and behaviours.

The COR model is based on the idea that people feel they need to keep, protect and build resources and that the potential or actual loss of these resources will cause them stress, with subsequent negative effects on well-being. Consequently, the feeling of having resources (and thus experiencing enrichment) will cushion individuals from stress (caused by loss of resources) and its associated negative outcomes on mental and physical well-being.

Conflict and enrichment between work and life roles are bi-directional: the work domain can influence the life domain, and vice versa. Although conflict and enrichment are the main frameworks used to examine the work-life interface, there are other theoretical models that are also important to help to explain the relationship between work and personal life. In the following section, I will focus on border and boundary theories (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Clark, 2000; Kossek & Lautsch, 2012), decision-making framework (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Powell & Greenhaus, 2012) and ecological systems theory (Hill, 2005; Voydanoff, 2002).

2.2.3. Border and boundary theories

As indicated earlier, one of the key premises of work-life research is the idea that work and life are separate. Work-life border theory (Clark, 2000) and boundary theory (Ashforth et al, 2000) address the integration and blurring of boundaries in work and family life and contend that the management of work and family boundaries must be understood to study the work–family interface (Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). These theories are based on the idea that work and private life are not separate, but interdependent domains or roles with 'flexible' and "permeable" boundaries. Flexibility is the degree to which the boundaries, in terms of space and time, are pliable, and permeability is the degree to which psychological concerns from another role can intrude into the role in which one is currently engaged (Ashforth et al., 2000). Both flexibility and permeability of work and life boundaries can help reduce an individual's work-life conflict by, for example, allowing him/her to arrive late to the office in order to accommodate a doctor's appointment. Flexible and permeable boundaries may also

increase work-life conflict as they may generate confusion in an individual as to which role he/she should be engaged in.

Boundary management theories address the ways in which people and organisations actively manage the boundaries between work and non-work roles (Ashforth et al., 2000; Kossek & Lautsch, 2012; Perlow, 1998) and the consequences of particular strategies for boundary management (Perlow, 1998). Boundary theory posits that there is a continuum from integration to segmentation of work and life roles (Ashforth et al., 2000), where integration refers to the blurring, and segmentation refers to the separation of those boundaries. For example, the boundaries between the work role and the home (or non-work) role may be more blurred for a homemaker than for an employee working in a traditional office setting. A homemaker may then choose to segment or separate the work role from the home role by having a physical space at home solely dedicated to work.

As employees seek to manage multiple work and life roles, boundary management literature has examined employees' preferences for integration and segmentation in relation to the management of work and life roles (Matthews, Barnes-Farrell, & Bulger, 2010). Integrators are those individuals who prefer to integrate the work and life domains, while segmentors prefer to keep them separate with strong boundaries. Boundary management literature has examined the tactics individuals use to resolve conflicts between work and life and boundary violations (e.g., Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2009). Kreiner and colleagues (2009) define boundary violations as 'behaviours, events, or episodes that either breach or neglect the desired work-home boundary' (p. 704). Their qualitative study explored the boundary work tactics (behavioural, temporal, physical, and communicative) that individuals can use to achieve the desired integration or segmentation of work and life boundaries and, thus, emphasised the active role individuals can play in reducing work-life conflict.

Another stream of boundary management research has highlighted the importance of fit between employees' preferences for segmentation/integration and the organisational policies (Rothbard et al., 2005). Rothbard and colleagues (2005) study the fit between individuals' preferences for segmentation and their access to policies that enable boundary management. They found that the desire of an individual for segmentation moderates the relationship between access to segmenting (e.g., flextime) or integrating (e.g., onsite childcare) policies and job attitudes (organisational commitment and job satisfaction). For example, people wanting segmentation reported being less committed to their organisation and less satisfied with their jobs when they had more access to integrating policies.

Boundary management theory is pertinent to a range of flexible working options that are commonly implemented in organisations to help employees manage competing demands from work and personal life, such as flexible hours, job sharing, and homeworking. These options may increase the employees' perception of control in creating their ideal degree of segmentation or integration (Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006); homeworking, in particular offers high levels of autonomy over task scheduling. At the same time, homeworking may lead to a blurring of the boundaries between work and private life and increase work-life conflict (Hill, Hawkins, & Miller, 1996). This will be discussed in more detail in Section 2.3, which is dedicated to the homeworking literature.

Boundary management theory expands role theory and puts emphasis on an individual's agency in managing the boundaries between work and life. Similarly, the decision-making framework in the work-life literature (to be discussed in the next section) takes into account an individual's active role in managing his/her work-life interface.

2.2.4. Decision-making framework

Poelmans (2005) developed the decision-process theory, which postulates that individuals make work-life decisions throughout their lives that affect their work and private life domains. An illustration of a work-life decision could be an employee taking into account a factor from her private life (e.g., having young children) when deciding on a work related matter (e.g., reduce working hours) to achieve a positive outcome (e.g., meeting childcare demands). Following the decision-process theory and focusing on the interdependence of roles in decision-making, research studies have examined the process in which private life factors influence work related decisions and developed a framework to explain these relationships (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Powell & Greenhaus, 2012). Powell and Greenhaus (2012) highlight that past research has not examined how the impact of family situations on work-related decisions may vary by life stage, denoting a gap in the work-life literature. They theorise that this impact would be stronger among employees when they are starting their families, although since they are likely to be at the beginning of their careers or in the establishment phase (Super, 1980) they may not risk sacrificing work to benefit their family domain. These scholars propose that life stage may play a role in work-life decision making which, in turn, will affect the work-life interface.

The decision-making process complements the perspectives that put emphasis on the environment influencing the work-life interface by identifying the way employees can

influence or react to their environment. In the next section I discuss a theory where the role of the environment on the work-life interface is considered.

2.2.5. Ecological systems theory

Developed by Bronfenbrenner (1994), the ecological model of human development posits that individuals interact with surrounding environments, emphasising the role of context in shaping psychological development. The ecological environment is a set of nested structures or systems that range from microsystems (the immediate environment where social roles are enacted and interpersonal relations develop) to macrosystems (culture). Bronfenbrenner also identifies an additional dimension, the chronosystem, which encompasses the passage of time (change of the characteristics of a person in his/her life course and the environment in which he/she lives over time). Applying the ecological model to work-life research, scholars (Hill, 2005; Voydanoff, 2002, 2005) with a systems perspective view the work-life interface as a mesosystem (a system of microsystems), where the work microsystem and life microsystem interact and influence each other, both positively and negatively.

Compared to previous theory, the ecological systems perspective broadens the scope of work and life domains by including other factors (such as social context, passage of time, personal characteristics) that influence an individual's work-life interface. Also, in contrast with previous research that focused on how the work domain influences the life domain and vice versa, the systems approach examines how the additive combination of work and life domains impacts various outcomes and is not restricted to the negative or positive side of the work-life interface (Greenhaus et al., 2013). The ecological systems approach underpins studies that investigate the work-life interface with a life course perspective (for example, Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), and therefore grounds the first paper of this dissertation.

Role scarcity, role expansion, border and boundary, decision-making, and ecological systems theories are theoretical frameworks that have guided numerous studies in the work-life literature. In practice, a growing number of organisations make use of specific strategies to help manage the work and private life responsibilities of their workforce. These strategies are commonly designated by the name of work-life practices (a.k.a. work-life balance, family-supportive or family-friendly policies) and there is a significant number of research studies that examine their effects (for example, Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Hyman & Summers, 2004; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). The next section is dedicated to one work-life practice, homeworking.

2.3. A work-life practice: homeworking

Socio-demographic and technological changes (e.g., an ageing population, increase in number of women joining the workforce, technology that allows 24/7 communications) are inflicting greater work-life conflict on workers (Kossek et al., 2010) with the resulting increase in incidences of stress and burnout (Frone et al., 1992a). More and more, organisations are pressured to respond to these changes by offering work-life practices, which refer to strategies employed by organisations to support employees in their effort to manage demands from their work and life domains (Kossek et al., 2010; Poelmans & Caligiuri, 2008). Work-life practices encompass a wide variety of arrangements that cover flexibility policies (e.g., part-time work, job sharing and homeworking), leave arrangements (e.g., parental leave), care provisions (e.g., on-site childcare), supportive arrangements (e.g., work-family management training) and conventional provisions and compensation/benefits (e.g., life insurance for employees and family members) (Poelmans & Beham, 2008). Work-life practices have been the subject of a number of research studies that focus on their effects at the individual level, such as work-life conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995) and organisational level, such as organisational performance (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Meyer, Mukerjee, & Sestero, 2001). This section focuses on one particular work-life practice, homeworking, and its effects.

2.3.1. Overview

Among the various work-life practices, homeworking was selected for the following two reasons. First, there is a growing number of organisations that are offering their employees the opportunity to work from home and a substantial number of employees are adopting this practice on a regular basis. Consequently, this practice has gained significant attention in research and managerial practice in the last few years (Kossek et al., 2010). According to the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD), 54% of UK organisations offered homeworking in 2012 and an estimated 20% of the UK workforce uses this practice. Also according to the CIPD, after part-time working, homeworking was the most popular flexible working practice in the UK in 2012. There is also evidence that homeworking is a practice that is rapidly growing in the US and a significant number of people benefit from its use on a regular basis. An estimated 3.3 million employees (2.6% of the U.S. employee workforce) considered home their primary place of work in 2012, according to a study by the Telework Research Network (2013). This means a growth in homeworking of 79% between 2005 and 2012. Furthermore, homeworking affects not only the employees who use this practice but

also their families, co-workers, employer and society at large (Verbeke, Schulz, Greidanus, & Hambley, 2008).

The second reason homeworking was selected for study in this dissertation is that, although the consequences of homeworking have been the subject of increasing investigation in the work-life literature, as with other flexible working practices, empirical evidence is not conclusive about its outcomes. Perhaps one of the reasons for not being able to draw general conclusions stems from the difficulty in reconciling results from studies with different conceptualisations of homeworking, methodology or (organisational, job, national) context. If we focus on the concept of homeworking, it encompasses a wide range of situations. Homeworking can be defined as 'a distributed work mode that enables employees to perform tasks while working from remote locations (such as home or satellite offices) using information and communication technologies to interact with others within and outside the workplace' (Gajendran, Harrison, & Delaney-Klinger, 2015, p. 4). The term covers a variety of arrangements: full time working at home for one company, part time working at home for one or several companies, full time working at home but attending meetings at the office or visiting customers, and part or full time working in several satellite offices, to name a few. As a result, the debate over the impact of homeworking (and the conditions under which homeworking benefits employers and employees) is on-going (Ang, 2013).

One of the main concerns of scholars and practitioners, and a central interest of this dissertation, is to understand the conditions that make homeworking an effective or successful arrangement in terms of the net benefits it brings to both employees and organisations. In the following section, I provide an overview of the positive and negative effects of homeworking based on past empirical evidence. Since this dissertation is concerned with a multi-level examination of the consequences of homeworking, I organised the outcomes from homeworking at the individual, team, organisational and societal level.

2.3.2. Consequences at the individual level

2.3.2.1. Work-life conflict, stress and isolation

Being a work-life initiative, homeworking is expected to benefit work-life balance by helping individuals to manage their work-life interface (Golden, Veiga, & Simsek, 2006). This benefit has been echoed by empirical evidence, which suggests that homeworkers report significantly less work-life conflict than office-based employees (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Golden, 2006; Raghuram & Wiesenfeld, 2004). Homeworking intensity (the frequency of the use of homeworking) plays a role in this relationship. High-intensity homeworking (more than

2.5 days a week) accentuates its beneficial effects on work-life conflict (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Homeworking saves employees time from commuting and this saving may mean more time to reduce time-based work-life conflict (Hill, Ferris, & Martinson, 2003). In addition, the flexibility of working from home allows individuals to better accommodate the demands of their private life domain, for example by helping parents in adapting a work schedule around their children's school timetable (Haddock, Zimmerman, Lyness, & Ziemba, 2006). Lower levels of work-life conflict are associated with a reduction of job-related stress and turnover intentions, and greater job satisfaction (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

Conversely, working from home can also increase work-life conflict as it has been found that employees working from home report longer hours and working harder, which suggests that working from home is more a form of work intensification (Kelliher & Anderson, 2009). The study by Kelliher and Anderson suggests that working harder and for longer may be the result from employees exchanging effort for flexibility with their organisation. In addition, homeworking can make the boundaries of work and life more permeable (they share the same physical space) and, thus, increase levels of work-life conflict (Standen, Daniels, & Lamond, 1999).

With regard to work-related stress, it is generally accepted that homeworking is negatively associated with it. Homeworkers are more likely to report less work-related stress than office-based workers and as the amount of homeworking time increases this negative association with work-related stress becomes stronger (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Golden, 2006; Raghuram & Wiesenfeld, 2004). Homework may help employees avoid stressors such as distractions, interruptions (Konradt, Hertel, & Schmook, 2003; Nardi & Whittaker, 2002) and organisational politics (Fonner & Roloff, 2010) commonly found in a traditional office setting. Although past research has reported that homeworkers may work harder and longer, this does not seem to translate into work-related stress given the degree of employees' autonomy or discretion involved in homeworking (Anderson & Kelliher, 2009; Kelliher & Anderson, 2009).

The impact of homeworking on well-being is complex, and empirical evidence is not conclusive on whether homeworking is beneficial or not for an individual's well-being (Standen et al., 1999). The work by Standen and colleagues suggests that there are several conditions that moderate the relationship between homeworking and well-being, such as an individual's experience of control, skill use, physical security or interpersonal contact. For example, working from home can enhance well-being if employees perceive they have the ability to control when, where and how they work and create boundaries to separate work

from non-work activities (Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2009; Standen et al., 1999). Conversely, homework can negatively affect well-being if employees experience little interpersonal contact (Standen et al., 1999).

Isolation is one of the most cited drawbacks of homeworking (Cascio, 2000; Golden, Veiga, & Dino, 2008). Professional isolation refers to the feeling of being out of touch with others in an organisation. A perception of isolation among homeworkers is related to the lack of personal interaction with others, and limited information learning and mentoring (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). Professional isolation has been associated with a reduction in job performance (Golden et al., 2008). Perhaps understandably, the impact of professional isolation on these outcomes is stronger with higher homeworking intensity and weaker with more face-to-face interactions and access to communication-enhancing technology (Golden et al., 2008). Organisational commitment has also been associated with isolation: homeworkers who report experiencing a lack of human contact are more likely to feel disconnected from the organisation employing them (Davis & Cates, 2013).

2.3.2.2. *Work-related attitudes: job satisfaction*

The positive relationship between working from home and job satisfaction is one of the most commonly reported consequences of homeworking (Fonner & Roloff, 2010; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Manochehri & Pinkerton, 2003; Pinsonneault & Boisvert, 2001). Past studies have found that this positive association was influenced by perceived job control and autonomy, frequency of use of homeworking, emotions and work-life conflict. The main explanatory factor for the link between homeworking and job satisfaction is that having the flexibility to work away from the office (and being able to exercise discretion over where, when and how to work) may lead to an increased sense of job control and autonomy (Tietze & Musson, 2005), which, in turn, is positively associated with job satisfaction (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). However, empirical evidence regarding the impact of homeworking on job satisfaction remains mixed.

Past research has suggested that there is a curvilinear inverted U-shaped relationship between the extent of homeworking and job satisfaction, with increases in job satisfaction dropping off as homeworking becomes more extensive (Golden, 2006). When the extent of homeworking is small, homeworkers can minimise negative effects from homeworking (such as isolation and frustration) and benefit from the perception of increased autonomy and report higher job satisfaction (Feldman & Gainey, 1998). However, extensive use of homeworking increases reliance on technology to communicate with others at the workplace,

and also increases the likelihood of isolation and frustration, which may counteract the benefits of homeworking and reduce job satisfaction (Golden, 2006). Golden (2006) also found that homeworkers' relationships with managers, coworkers, and family may mediate the relationship between the extent of homeworking and job satisfaction. In contrast, Fonnor and Roloff (2010) found that employees extensively using homeworking remained more satisfied than office-based employees, questioning assumptions regarding the value of and need for frequent face-to-face interactions in the workplace. This study helps to explain that satisfaction can be associated with working away from the stress of a traditional office setting; stress caused by meetings, interruptions and awareness of organisational politics.

Homeworking can have a significant impact on emotions (Mann, Varey, & Button, 2000). When examining the impact of homeworking on emotions, Mann and colleagues (2000) could not conclude whether this impact was positive or negative. A positive net effect on emotions was associated with higher job satisfaction and a negative net effect on emotions was associated with lower job satisfaction. The study by Mann and colleagues (2000) revealed that while working from home may have a positive effect on emotions due to a reduction of stress (from less commuting) or irritation (from potential reduction of distractions found at the office), it may also have a negative impact due to increased loneliness (from social isolation) or frustration caused by lack of technical support, for example.

Work-life conflict has also been studied as a mediator in the relationship between homeworking and job satisfaction. Results from this research have not been entirely consistent. Some researchers (Fonner & Roloff, 2010; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007) found that homeworking was associated with a reduction of work-life conflict, leading to an increase in job satisfaction. They also found the highest reduction in work-life conflict among employees who used homeworking more extensively. In contrast, other scholars argued that homeworking may increase work-life conflict as it may blur the lines between the work and non work domains, making boundary violations more likely and, as a result, create conflict (Anderson & Kelliher, 2011).

2.3.2.3. *Work-related attitudes: organisational commitment*

The perception of greater autonomy among homeworkers is also positively related to greater commitment to the employer (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Golden, 2006). This positive relationship may be explained by the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) with the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and the concept of perceived organisational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, & Sowa, 1986). The perception of homeworking as organisational

support can generate the need among employees to reciprocate with increased commitment to their employer. Alternatively, increased organisational commitment may reflect homeworkers' desire not to lose their working arrangement and its associated benefits; employees working flexibly and experiencing higher levels of autonomy have reported beliefs that it would be difficult to find comparable working arrangements in another organisation (Anderson & Kelliher, 2009; Kelliher & Anderson, 2009).

2.3.2.4. *Work-related attitudes: employee engagement*

Empirical research has suggested that homeworking may have a positive relationship with employee engagement (Anderson & Kelliher, 2009). In their mixed method study, Anderson and Kelliher (2009) found that flexible workers (who include homeworkers) were likely to be more engaged than non-flexible workers, as they reported higher levels of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour than non-flexible workers. Having a choice over their working pattern and feeling the support and trust of their employer, who allowed their individual needs to be accommodated, are some of the factors that explained the referred positive outcomes of flexible working.

However, there is contrasting evidence that shows a negative relationship between homeworking and employee engagement, mediated by increased isolation (Arora, 2012; Davis & Cates, 2013; Sardeshmukh, Sharma, & Golden, 2012). As Davis and Cates (2013) contend, social relationships drive human motivation and if the social need is thwarted, perceptions of isolation will emerge, which can have a negative influence on engagement among homeworkers. This relationship can be contingent upon the frequency of homeworking. Frequent use of homeworking has been associated with high isolation, which in turn, negatively impacts work engagement (Arora, 2012).

2.3.2.5. *Work-related behaviours: individual performance*

Does working from home lead to higher productivity? Numerous studies support the positive association between homeworking and productivity (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Gajendran et al., 2015). Some researchers have questioned this finding as performance is often based on self-report measures rather than on more objective evidence (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). However, there is considerable empirical evidence that working from home leads to not only greater self reported productivity but also greater supervisor-rated performance (Butler, Aasheim, & Williams, 2007). For example, a recent study using field data from 323 employees and 143 matched supervisors across a variety of

organisations found that homeworking was positively associated with task performance (Gajendran et al., 2015).

The positive relationship between homeworking and productivity can be explained by the following six reasons, which are attributed to multiple factors. First, the practice of homeworking may provide employees the flexibility to better manage the demands of their jobs and private lives and become more productive (Baruch, 2000; Bloom, Liang, Roberts, & Ying, 2013). Second, as homeworkers lack the distractions of the office and have less involvement in organisational politics (Fonner & Roloff, 2010), they may be able to focus on their job tasks more effectively than at the office (Kelliher & Anderson, 2009). Third, having a relatively high level of discretion over the conditions under which the work is conducted (for example, choosing to work in the hours when one is more efficient) could lead to a gain in productivity when working from home rather than in a traditional office setting (Harpaz, 2002). Fourth, the perceived increase in autonomy when working from home (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Kossek et al., 2006) could help employees to meet job-related goals and respond to job demands (Gajendran et al., 2015). Fifth, employees working from home may simply put more hours into work: they may have more time than office-based workers (as they do not travel to the office) and choose to use this extra time to work, or they may feel the need to reciprocate the flexibility provided by the organisation (Baruch, 2000; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Kelliher & Anderson, 2009).

However, as mentioned earlier, there is extensive empirical evidence that homeworking may lead to social and professional isolation (Baruch & Nicholson, 1997). Unsurprisingly, extensive use of homeworking may imply less face-to-face interactions with colleagues, increasing the sense of feeling out of touch with others in the workplace. Professional isolation among homeworkers may negatively affect job performance (Golden et al., 2008). Golden and colleagues argue that professionally isolated homeworkers are less confident in their abilities and knowledge to perform their work; they have less opportunity to interact with co-workers and acquire and accurately interpret and use information that may be essential to performing the job well. Supporting this argument, Golden and colleagues (2008) found in their empirical study that the intensity of homeworking accentuates the negative impact of professional isolation on job performance. Their results also revealed that more face-to-face interactions and access to communication-enhancing technologies (such as audio/video conferencing, e-mail/web meeting software) are likely to decrease professional isolation's negative impact on job performance.

2.3.2.6. *Work-related behaviours: organisational citizenship behaviour*

Although there are fewer studies of the impact of homeworking on extra-role behaviours (as opposed to in-role behaviour), empirical evidence suggests that those working from home are likely to exhibit enhanced citizenship behaviour (Anderson & Kelliher, 2009; Gajendran et al., 2015). For example, Gajendran and colleagues (2015) found a positive link between homeworking and contextual performance, which is defined as 'a set of interpersonal and volitional behaviours that contribute to the organization by creating a positive social and psychological climate' (p. 3). Employees having access to the flexibility of working from home are likely to feel obligated toward those who granted them that access (their employer). To relieve that obligation, employees may not only work longer or harder but also reciprocate through discretionary citizenship behaviours. Another reason for proactively stepping up efforts to contribute to the organisation among homeworkers is to counteract the effect on co-workers who may not have access to such flexible arrangements. As the homeworking practice becomes more common in a workplace, there is a risk that it negatively impacts the office-based co-workers by increasing the 'scope and amount of workload experienced by those remaining in the office, since non-teleworking individuals must often assume additional responsibilities which might otherwise be handled by a teleworker but which are not due to their absence' (Gajendran et al., 2015, p. 1644)

Interestingly, Gajendran and colleagues (2015) also found in their study that homeworking normativeness moderated the relationship between homeworking and contextual behaviour. In other words, when homeworking was a relatively customary or normative aspect of a workplace, it weakened the intensity of the need to reciprocate the provision of homeworking. The moderating effect of normativeness can be explained by social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) with the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). When homeworking is perceived as a 'special' arrangement (i.e., individuals who homework are a small fraction of the work group), employees are more likely to feel indebted to their managers and organisation which gave them access to such a "special" arrangement and, thus, reciprocate by engaging in discretionary citizenship behaviours (Gajendran et al., 2015). Conversely, if the homeworking practice is widely extended in a workplace, homeworking employees are likely to perceive such an arrangement as customary or normative. This normativeness may diminish the homeworkers' level of indebtedness towards their managers and organisation, as the practice of homeworking is not perceived as a "special" arrangement any longer (Gajendran et al., 2015). The normativeness of homeworking may also increase the legitimacy of such a practice from the co-workers' perspective and, therefore, diminish the motivation of

employees to proactively contribute to the organisation in order to anticipate negative reactions from co-workers (Gajendran et al., 2015).

2.3.2.7. *Work-related behaviours: absenteeism and turnover*

Working from home has been negatively associated with absenteeism and turnover (Gibson, Blackwell, Dominicus, & Demerath, 2002). Given the greater flexibility that employees working from home usually have compared to office-based employees, homeworkers may be able to accommodate demands from private life (for example, taking an elderly parent to a hospital appointment) without needing to request a day off. At the same time, as discussed earlier, homeworkers may believe that it would be difficult finding similarly flexible conditions in other organisations (Kelliher & Anderson, 2009) and choose to stay working for their employer.

2.3.2.8. *Career prospects*

Homeworking can also have an impact on career progress. Employees may feel that choosing to work from home gives a signal to the organisation that they are not as committed to their work as office-based employees and fear the impact of homeworking on their career prospects, as being "out of sight" could mean "out of mind" when career opportunities or job promotions arise (J. W. Gibson et al., 2002; McCloskey & Igbaria, 2003). This fear may be related to professional isolation. Employees experiencing isolation reported reduced access to informal development opportunities, informal learning and mentoring in a qualitative study with employees working in the private and public sectors (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). According to this study, compared to the public sector employees, private sector employees were more likely to report that homeworking meant a reduction in career development opportunities. This can be explained by the private sector giving more importance to informal routes to gain information, and to informal networking and visibility to achieve promotions (Cooper & Kurland, 2002).

Is the fear of missing out on promotions justified? Whilst there is research that suggests that this may be the case, that companies promote into leadership roles those employees that have been consistently seen and evaluated (Heatherman & O'Rourke, 2014), other research results indicate that this fear may be unfounded (McCloskey & Igbaria, 2003). Using a sample which included 53 homeworker-supervisor pairs and 44 office-based homeworker-supervisor pairs from one large U.S. organisation, McCloskey and Igbaria (2003) did not find that homeworking had a negative effect on career advancement prospects compared to non-homeworkers. Moreover, employees who worked from home more often (more than 1 day a

week) did not have fewer career advancement opportunities than those who worked from home less often.

The negative link between homeworking and career advancement varies organisation by organisation, depending on the culture and the importance of face time versus a results-oriented approach to evaluating performance. Research has revealed that management trust is essential for the homeworking practice to succeed (Cascio, 2000) and that traditional managerial attitudes about employees needing to be present at the office (presenteeism) to be positively evaluated is a major barrier to the effective implementation and management of homeworking in an organisation (Manochehri & Pinkerton, 2003). Researchers have also noted that despite the advancements in technology that allow working more flexibly, away from the traditional office setting, many organisations are hesitant to change practices and still positively value employees' physical presence at the office (Lupton & Haynes, 2000). Management trust is required for a results-based management system, in which the employee's output (such as deliverables of the work) is evaluated, rather than the input (such as the behaviours or processes involved in producing the work deliverables) (Konradt et al., 2003).

To sum up, homeworking can be both beneficial and harmful for individuals, and its consequences are often dependant on contingency factors such as the intensity of homeworking (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Compared to working at the office, homeworking can bring benefits to employees (lower work-life conflict and stress, greater well-being, health and job satisfaction) which may help to positively contribute to the organisation (lower intention to turnover, higher job engagement, organisational commitment, productivity, job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour). There is also the risk, however, that homeworking may lead to work intensification, isolation, lower engagement and reduced organisational citizenship.

2.3.3. Consequences for the team

In terms of the impact of homeworking on office based co-workers and team performance, results suggest that the number of homeworkers in an organisation is negatively associated with co-worker satisfaction (Golden, 2007). This relationship is moderated by the amount of time employees work remotely, the extent of face-to-face interactions, and job autonomy. The study by Golden (2007) reveals that the more employees work from home, the more negative the impact of homeworker prevalence on co-worker satisfaction. Similarly, the more face-to-face interactions and the more autonomy, the less that homeworker prevalence

reduces co-worker satisfaction. High-intensity homeworking (working from home more than 2.5 days a week) may also harm relationships with co-workers (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Gajendran and Harrison identify potential factors that may contribute to the negative impact of homeworking on the relationship between homeworker and co-worker. For example, diminished frequency of face-to-face interactions may reduce the richness of employees' connection with his/her peers. Co-workers may perceive spatial distance as psychological distance (out of sight, out of mind). As the contributions of homeworkers may not be as visible as those of employees working at the office, co-workers may perceive that homeworkers contribute less to the shared team objectives.

Whether homeworking is seen as the norm or as an exception in an organisation may help to explain its effects on team performance. Gajendran and Harrison (2007) speculate that in organisations that view homeworking as an exception, homeworkers may feel responsible for minimising any negative impact of not being physically present at the office (for instance, by working longer hours to indicate their commitment to their office-based co-workers). In contrast, in organisations where homeworking is the norm, office-based workers may have adapted their processes to accommodate homeworkers (for example, by not starting team meetings earlier than 10:00 in order to allow employees working from home to travel to the office) in order to maximise the benefits for homeworking, which, ultimately, would lead to an increase in team performance.

2.3.4. Consequences for the organisation

Past research suggests that homeworking presents advantages and disadvantages for organisations as well as for individuals. Cost effectiveness may be one of the main benefits of homeworking perceived by organisations and, therefore, an important reason for organisations to provide their employees access to homeworking (Baruch, 2000). Savings in costs may be gained from reduced office space and increased operational flexibility (Harpaz, 2002; Thomson, 2008). For example, an experiment in homeworking at the BBC yielded savings of around 25 per cent (Mann et al., 2000). It is significant to note that some of the savings in overhead costs (such as office space utilisation, utility bills) are shifted to the employee (Baruch, 2000), who is responsible for maintaining a fully functional work space at home.

Homeworking also expands the labour market as it provides the right conditions for more people (single parents, people with disabilities, older people) to work (Baruch, 2000) and thus increases human resource capacity and quality (Harpaz, 2002; Kossek & Friede, 2006).

A higher quality workforce may increase competitive advantage by adding value to the organisation and enhancing organisational performance (Kossek & Friede, 2006).

Furthermore, as discussed previously, homeworking may be associated with an increase in individual productivity and job performance for a variety of reasons (such as working in peak efficiency hours and lacking distractions) that generate an improvement in organisational productivity and performance. A recent meta-analysis of 22 studies that examine the organisational consequences of homeworking (Harker Martin & MacDonnell, 2012) suggests that there is a positive, although small, relationship between homework and productivity, employee retention, organisational commitment and performance. However, one of the main limitations of this study is that the outcome variables were based on perceptions of homeworkers or managers, rather than more objective measures. Empirical evidence that links homeworking with quantifiable organisational outcomes is scarce. One example, an experiment conducted in a large Chinese travel agency (Bloom et al., 2013), found that working from home led to a 13% performance increase (9% of which was due to working more minutes per shift and 4% from handling more calls per minute). Another organisational benefit of homeworking is ensuring business continuity through external crises, such as terrorism attacks or epidemics (e.g., swine flu), that may lead to temporary office closures (Kossek et al., 2009).

Homeworking is perceived as having important drawbacks for organisations as well. Innovation, direction, and culture are some of the main reasons that critics of homeworking advocate for employees to work at the office (Heatherman & O'Rourke, 2014). The assumption is that informal interactions with others at the office often a) generate the innovation that modern organisations need, b) provide employees with information and knowledge and, overall, a better understanding of the organisation's direction (helping employees to contribute more effectively to organisational objectives), and c) help to develop an organisational culture, as they enable employees to socialise and share values and beliefs.

Sharing ideas, knowledge and information in order to meet an objective is an important part of collaborative work for which effective group communications are required (Lowry, Roberts, Romano, Cheney, & Hightower, 2006), and there is evidence that homeworking may negatively affect knowledge transfer in organisations (Taskin & Bridoux, 2010). This negative effect is the result of homeworking having a negative impact on components of organisational socialisation (i.e., shared mental schemes, quality of relationships) that are key enablers of knowledge transfer. Past research has found that employees working

remotely while relying on technology to communicate may experience lower levels of communication, information sharing, discussion quality and communications richness than those employees who mainly interact face to face (Lowry et al., 2006). In contrast, there is recent evidence indicating that even though working from home for at least 50% of the time leads to less frequency of information exchange, it does not necessarily mean that it will affect the quality of information exchange, and fewer interactions with others may even prove to be beneficial (as interactions with others may disrupt work) (Fonner & Roloff, 2010).

One may conclude that, based on existing empirical evidence, homeworking could bring significant benefits to organisations but it presents challenges as well. Then again, there is little consensus amongst scholars about the effects of homeworking on organisations. Research is still needed to determine those effects and the conditions under which they occur.

2.3.5. Consequences for society

The impact of homeworking on society can be multiple and varied. Among the positive effects is the potential to resolve issues of equality and employability as it may allow individuals who would not otherwise be able to work, for reasons such as a disability or care giving responsibilities, to undertake paid employment (Heatherman & O'Rourke, 2014; Verbeke et al., 2008). Homeworking may benefit traffic flow and the environment as employees working from home do not commute to the office every day and, therefore, help reduce traffic congestion and pollution (Kossek & Michel, 2010; Verbeke et al., 2008). Like other work-life initiatives, homeworking can also be a solution to address the labour market challenge of an ageing population as it enables people who would not otherwise work to do so, and improve the economic dependency ratio (Lewis, 2009). It can also help to raise low fertility rates (which contribute to the ageing of society), as work-life initiatives support women to meet the demands of paid work and childcare (Lewis, 2009).

At the same time, homeworking may help to reinforce and maintain traditional work and family roles (Sullivan & Lewis, 2001). The rationale behind this idea is that since women are more likely than men to choose to work from home for childcare reasons and to fit their work responsibilities around their domestic responsibilities (Sullivan & Lewis, 2001), homeworking does not challenge the traditional gendered division of labour; instead, it enables women to continue taking on primary responsibility for care of home and children while also being in paid employment. Homeworking may also contribute to the creation of a society where members are isolated and detached from one another and from public institutions (Baruch,

2001; Harpaz, 2002). Baruch (2001) argues that the excessive use of technology may contribute to create an 'autistic' society and considers homeworking as a sign of this social phenomenon. In other words, new ways of working that rely heavily on technology to communicate and where the human touch is missing, such as homeworking, may lead to social isolation and contribute to a society that is severely impaired in terms of interpersonal communications.

2.3.6. *Debatable benefits of homeworking*

The practice of homeworking is a non standard mode of working that affects multiple stakeholders (homeworkers themselves, co-workers, organisations, society), and its consequences for these stakeholders are not clear-cut according to extant research. In addition, although most of the empirical research on outcomes of homeworking has been conducted at the individual level, the decision to implement homeworking ultimately lies at the top management level of the organisation and is driven by managerial perceptions of outcomes at the organisational level (Harker Martin & MacDonnell, 2012). Perhaps because of the lack of conclusive evidence regarding the beneficial impact of homeworking, particularly at the organisational level, there is still an open debate about whether homeworking is a beneficial arrangement for organisations compared to a traditional working arrangement (Ang, 2013; Heatherman & O'Rourke, 2014).

Although homeworking is a common and growing practice, some organisations have been reluctant to offer access to and support the use of homeworking among employees and, as a result, access and adoption of homeworking are not as extended as they could be (Kossek et al., 2010; Thompson, 2008). Some researchers claim that unless work-life practices (such as homeworking) are normalised or mainstreamed in an organisation, they may not reach their full potential for enhancing the work-life interface (i.e., reducing conflict and increasing enrichment) for employees and benefiting organisations (Kossek et al., 2010).

There are several potential barriers that may prevent the successful implementation of homeworking besides the lack of management support due to inconclusive evidence about its benefits. Thompson (2008) identifies barriers at the organisational, supervisor, group and individual level. At the organisational level, a supportive work-family culture has been identified as a critical factor for employees to decide whether or not to use work-life initiatives (Allen, 2001; Kossek et al., 2010). Presenteeism or the perception that visibility equates to commitment and productivity is another example of an organisational barrier that may prevent homeworking from being effectively implemented (Manochehri & Pinkerton, 2003).

The norm of the 'ideal worker' also constitutes a potential barrier at the organisational level: employees who work from home may challenge the basic assumption about the 'ideal worker' for whom work is primary and private life secondary (Bailyn, 1993; Williams, 1999).

At the supervisor level, there is empirical evidence that a lack of informal support by supervisors could limit the number of employees accessing and using work-life practices, and, therefore, training supervisors to develop their family supportive behaviours, for example, may have a positive impact on the uptake of work-life initiatives (A. M. Brewer, 2000; Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner, & Zimmerman, 2011; Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2008). In fact, supervisors are considered the gatekeepers to work-life programs as their support is seen to be critical for employees to use such programs (Allen, 2001; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999).

At the work group level, Thompson (2008) identifies barriers such as lack of co-worker support and task interdependence. Regarding co-workers, work-life initiatives can generate resentment among co-workers who perceive they do not benefit from work-life practices and their lack of support can make it difficult for employees who use work-life practices to benefit from them (McDonald, Brown, & Bradley, 2005).

Thompson also acknowledged barriers at the individual level, such as lack of knowledge of programs and fear of negative consequences. For example, there is often a perception that work-life practices are mainly for women (P. McDonald et al., 2005), who are perceived (and expected) to be more committed to family than to work. Men, meanwhile, are often seen (and expected) to be more committed to work than to family (Bailyn, 1993). These perceptions and expectations may make it difficult for employees (particularly men) to use work-life practices, as they may fear being perceived as less committed to the organisation and thus suffer negative career implications (McCloskey & Igbaria, 2003; Thompson, 2008).

Extending employee access to and adoption of homeworking may require more empirical evidence that shows the net benefits of this practice for organisations, in order to increase support from management (Harker Martin & MacDonnell, 2012). This is one area to which the current dissertation seeks to contribute. Papers II and III of this dissertation focus on the multi-level (individual and organisational) implications of homeworking in a specific setting and attempt to explain the conditions under which these implications take place, in order to contribute to the current debate on whether homeworking is beneficial.

In the next section I discuss broader gaps in the work-life literature that the three studies of this dissertation aim to help to fill.

2.4. Gaps in the work-life literature

Integration of work-life constructs across disciplines, inclusion of context (e.g., life stage) and bridging theory with practice are some of the research priorities in the study of the work-life interface that have been identified by scholars (Eby et al., 2005; Greenhaus et al., 2013; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kossek & Lautsch, 2012; Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013; Poelmans & Caligiuri, 2008). These are also areas to which this dissertation attempts to make a contribution.

2.4.1. *Integration of theoretical perspectives*

Research on the work-life interface has grown significantly since the 1970s in response to the increased diversity of workplaces and families, changes in societal values (e.g., increased attention paid to work-life interface issues) and changes in technology, and global competitiveness. As the field of work-life research expands, so does the need to integrate the different constructs and theories. Integrating work-life research from different disciplines and theoretical perspectives is a research priority repeatedly highlighted in past studies (for example, Allen et al., 2000; Barnett, 1998; Eby et al., 2005; Greenhaus et al., 2013).

According to Allen et al. (2000, p. 279), 'one area of concern is the limited integration of the [work-family] field'. They found that the work-life research was fragmented due to scholars working in single disciplines, such as sociology or business, focussing on different issues and not building on previous research or similar work in other disciplines. Furthermore, in their work-family (WF) literature review in the industrial organisation (IO) and organisational behaviour (OB) disciplines, Eby et al. (2005, p. 183) indicate that 'IO/OB research on WF issues appears to lack comprehensive theory building or model testing, both of which are necessary to develop a strong and coherent body of research'. More recently, Greenhaus et al. (2013, p. 31-32) acknowledge that the work-life research has been developed with separate theoretical frameworks and encouraged researchers 'to conduct studies of cross-domain relationships that can incorporate insights from a variety of frameworks to better understand the interdependencies between work and other life roles'. Acting in response to the need to integrate different theoretical frameworks, the first paper of this dissertation aims to integrate the positive (enrichment) and negative (conflict) perspectives of the work-life interface within a context (life course) in order to enhance our understanding of the relationship between the work and personal life spheres.

2.4.2. Context matters

Past researchers (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kossek & Lautsch, 2012; Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013) have argued that the inclusion of context would help to expand our understanding of the interdependence between the work and life domains. Contextual factors are likely to influence the work and life experiences of individuals and, thus, complement existing theoretical frameworks in explaining employee decision-making or actual behaviours and interactions between work-life variables. The context could be the societal or national culture (Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013; Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009), the organisational culture and climate in which employees work (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012), personal context (e.g., worker in the context of other family members' schedules) (Kossek & Michel, 2010) or the life and career stage an employee is at (Demerouti et al., 2012; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

For example, in their review of work and family research in the first decade of the 21st century, Bianchi and Milkie (2010, p. 719) remarked that 'the work-family conflict literature could be strengthened if it more often took an explicit life course perspective.' They supported this statement by arguing that there is empirical evidence that suggests that there are different periods in life when more work-family conflict should be expected, for example, in the period of life when raising a young family while the parents are in the workforce (Jacobs & Gerson, 2001). Paper I and Paper III of this dissertation directly address the call for research that includes context. In particular, Paper I includes the life course context and Paper III the organisational culture context.

2.4.3. Bridging theory with practice

How is the work-life research helping employees to manage more effectively the demands from work and private life? How is it helping organisations to find solutions that maximise employees' productivity without harming their private life and well-being? How is it supporting governments to devise and implement policies to address work-life issues? These are questions that highlight the important role that research in the work-life field could play in the practical world.

However, although there is a well-established body of work in the work-life research field (Eby et al., 2005), sometimes this research is criticised for its lack of practical relevance (Jones et al., 2006; Kelly et al., 2008). More needs to be done in bridging research with practice, in establishing a dialogue between research scholars and practitioners and public policy advocates in order for organisational interventions and government policies to be

guided and informed by sound theoretical and empirical research (Poelmans & Caligiuri, 2008).

In their study providing direction for future research in the work-life field, Jones and colleagues (2006) note that action research interventions (for example, Baral & Bhargava, 2010; Barbosa, 2014; Hammer et al., 2011) are scarce in the work-life arena. There is information about the policies and programmes (e.g., onsite childcare, job sharing) that are likely to address work-life issues, but there are fewer studies on the actual benefits for both individuals and organisations of these policies and programs and even less research on how these changes were designed, implemented and evaluated. Regarding flexible work schedule practices, Kossek and Michel (2010) found in their review that scholars have been more successful in investigating their potential benefits and who may need them, than in clarifying how to ensure their successful implementation in organisations (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). As a result, Kossek and Michel (2010) emphasised the need to translate research into practice in effective ways. They also noted the need for more multi-level research and an interdisciplinary approach.

Linking research with practice is at the heart of Paper II and Paper III. They provide a practical illustration of potential benefits and drawbacks of the practice of homeworking in order to shed light on the conditions under which such a practice may be effectively implemented and used. Paper III also offers a multi-level (individual and organisational) analysis of the potential consequences of working from home.

2.5. Additional theories

While in previous sections I discussed the overarching theories that help to frame this thesis, there are additional theories that underpin each of the individual papers of this thesis. Without getting into a detailed discussion of each theory and how it supports each paper, in this section I will provide an overview of all the theories that will be referred to throughout the thesis. Table 8 depicts a summary of the theories and concepts.

Table 8: Overview of additional theories by paper

Paper	Theory / Concept
Paper I	<p>Work-life interface concepts / theories:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work-life balance concept based on typology by Rantanen et al. (2011) • Jobs Demands Resources model by Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001) <p>Life stages based on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1994) • Human development theory (Erikson, 1968) • Life course research (Giele & Elder, 1998)
Paper II	<p>Employee Organisation Relationship concepts:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) • Social and economic exchange (Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006), • Psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995) • Employment relationship (Tsui et al., 1997) <p>Employee Organisation Relationship theoretical frameworks:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) • Norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) • Inducements-contributions model by March and Simon (1958)
Paper III	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisational culture and climate (Ehrhart, Schneider, & Macey, 2013; Schein, 1996; Schneider et al., 2013) • Multi-model framework of organisational culture-climate alignment (Ostroff et al., 2012)

Would work and life issues change as an individual goes through different life stages? In Paper I, I hypothesise that this is the case, in other words, that work-life balance will vary by life stage. While this hypothesis relies on the work-life theories and concepts already described in Section 2.2 (such as role scarcity and expansion theories), it also draws on additional literature. First, the concept of work-life balance is based on the typology by Rantanen and colleagues (2011) which combines conflict and enrichment. Second, the referred hypothesis is based on the idea that individuals will have different roles within their own demands and resources in each life stage, which draws on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model by Demerouti and colleagues (2012). Third, the concept of life stages is based on human development theory (Erikson, 1968) and life course research (Giele & Elder, 1998).

Paper II integrates the homeworking and EOR literature. This is a study of the potential impact of the homeworking practice on the employee-organisation relationship (EOR) and seeks to contribute to the debate about the benefits of homeworking at the individual level.

Therefore, the homeworking literature about the benefits of homeworking discussed in Section 2.3. is directly relevant for this paper. Furthermore, EOR theories and concepts are central for framing the research of this paper. The EOR related concepts reviewed in Paper II are perceived organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986), social and economic exchange (Shore et al., 2006), the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995) and the employment relationship (Tsui et al., 1997). I also discuss the main theoretical frameworks underpinning past EOR literature: the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) with an emphasis on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), and the inducements-contributions model (March & Simon, 1958). The inducements-contributions model is particularly relevant to this paper since I propose an extension of such model in order to include the perspective of both employer and employee and, hence, address a gap in the EOR literature.

Paper III analyses the congruence between organisational culture and climate using a multi-level model by Ostroff and colleagues (2012). It also relies on the general literature about organisational culture and climate literature (Ehrhart et al., 2013; Schein, 1996, 2000; Schneider et al., 2013). Since this study is concerned with explaining the mechanism that links organisational culture with the homeworking practice and associated climate, it draws on the homeworking literature discussed in Section 2.3 and aims to contribute to the debate on the benefits of homeworking at the organisational level.

The literature reviewed above sets the stage for a deeper understanding of the work-life interface and the potential benefits of one work-life initiative, homeworking. The next three chapters will be dedicated to Papers I, II and III, where I build on this literature review and the research opportunities identified.

3. PAPER I: INTEGRATING WORK-LIFE CONFLICT AND ENRICHMENT BY LIFE STAGE

3.1. Introduction

3.2. The work-life interface

3.2.1. Definition of work-life balance

3.2.2. Measurement of work-life balance

3.3. A life stage approach

3.3.1. Theoretical support

3.3.2. Empirical evidence

3.4. Hypotheses

3.4.1. Work-life balance by life stages

3.4.2. Outcomes of work-life balance

3.4.3. The role of gender

3.5. Method

3.5.1. Sample

3.5.2. Measures

3.6. Analysis and findings

3.6.1. Hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c

3.6.2. Hypothesis 2

3.7. Discussion

3.7.1. Differences in work-life balance by life stage

3.7.2. Outcomes of work-life balance types

3.7.3. Implications for theory and practice

3.7.4. Limitations

3.7.5. Future research

3. PAPER I: INTEGRATING WORK-LIFE CONFLICT AND ENRICHMENT BY LIFE STAGE

3.1. Introduction

The harmonisation of an individual's work and private life domains has been the subject of public debate in recent years (McMillan et al., 2011). At the same time, aging of the workforce is one of the major demographic changes that the developed world is facing (Leibold & Voelpel, 2006; Shultz & Adams, 2012). However, little attention has been devoted to how the relationship between work and private life domains can change for an individual across his/her working life span (Huffman, Culbertson, Henning & Goh, 2013). Do work and life roles change during the course of one's life? If so, would this change the resulting work-life balance of an individual? If this is the case, as I argue in this paper, should we not take a life stage approach to study the work-life interface? The term "work-life", which is intended to be a general and an inclusive term refers to work-family or work versus non-work domains.

The work-life interface literature has mainly concentrated on the study of antecedents and outcomes of work-life conflict and work-life enrichment, without taking into account the particular life and career stage that an employee may be at (Demerouti et al., 2012). Yet, life and career stages may help to determine the resources and demands that an individual has in their work and private life domains and, consequently, the conflict or enrichment between work and non-work roles he/she may experience. Moreover, with the exception of Grzywacz, Almeida, and McDonald (2002), to the best of the author's knowledge, past work-life studies with a life stage perspective have focused exclusively on work-life conflict; this literature has largely ignored the positive side of the work-life interface, wherein an individual's work and non-work roles may enrich one another.

In this study, I propose and test a work-life interface model that not only takes a life stage approach but also includes both work-life conflict and enrichment in order to explain their impact on job satisfaction, employee engagement and well-being.

3.2. The work-life interface

3.2.1. Definition of work-life balance

There is a lack of consensus among scholars about the definition of work-life balance, even though the term is commonly used in the work-life literature and in the popular press (McMillan et al., 2011). Work-life balance, in particular achieving it, is a concern when social and demographic trends indicate a growing number of dual income households, single parents living with dependent children and adults acting as caregivers of their elderly

parents. For example, according to the UK Office for National Statistics, there were nearly 1.9 million lone parents with dependent children in the UK in 2013, a figure which has grown steadily in the last few years. At the same time, advances in technology have made it possible to work across many different sectors and jobs from anywhere at any time and have led to greater work interference with personal life, as well as more pressure on employees to work faster and longer hours (Poelmans & Caligiuri, 2008). These social, demographic and technological trends seem to indicate that managing the demands from work and life roles is a challenge for a significant number of individuals. The subsequent expectation is that achieving work-life balance will produce benefits in terms of reducing work-life conflict and enhancing well-being. Since work-life balance is an important concept, a definition becomes crucial for its study.

Researchers (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003) have noted that previous definitions are not consistent with each other or specific enough to be measured. Greenhaus and colleagues (2003, p. 513) define work–family balance as 'the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in—and equally satisfied with—his or her work role and family role.' Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) note that this definition has important limitations. Balance is based on the desirability of achieving "equality" of engagement in roles when, in practice, there is little evidence in the literature suggesting that people seek "equality" in their work and non-work domains. They also note that this definition is mostly an individual's perception. If work-life balance is an individual's subjective experience, it shifts the burden of trying to achieve it entirely to the individual and frees the organisation of any responsibility. Grzywacz and Carlson (2007, p. 458) offer an alternative definition of work-life balance as 'accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his or her role-related partners in the work and family domains.' In this definition, the social aspect of achieving work-life balance is included rather than mostly relying on an individual's perception. This definition suggest also an overall assessment approach to balance, which brings its own limitations in terms of measurement. In contrast, from a component-based perspective, Frone (2003) defines work-life balance as "low levels of inter-role conflict and high levels of inter-role facilitation" (p. 145). This is the definition of work-life balance considered for the present paper. I discuss the two approaches (overall assessment and components-based) to measure work-life balance in the next section.

3.2.2. Measurement of work-life balance

Measuring work-life balance is necessary in both theory and practice: for scholars developing and empirically testing theory and for organisations to design, implement and monitor

policies and practices that support individuals in managing their work-life balance. Past research has taken two main approaches to measure work-life balance (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). An overall assessment of the balance is concerned with an individual's perception of his/her general situation with statements such as 'How successful do you feel at balancing your paid work and your family life?' (Keene & Quadagno, 2004). In contrast, a components-based approach considers that work-life balance is formed by different elements that predict and provide meaning to the concept of balance (Rantanen et al., 2011). One of the key advantages of this component approach over the overall assessment is that it employs established proven measures of concepts that cover different aspects of work-life balance, such as work-life conflict and enrichment.

Building on previous work that used conflict and enrichment dimensions to address research questions related to work-life balance (Frone, 2003; Tiedje et al., 1990), Rantanen et al. (2011) propose a work-life balance typology with a perspective that regards work-life balance as the additive experience of conflict and enrichment. In their view, whilst separating components of the work-life interface is useful for analytical purposes, the combination of these components, as experienced by individuals, results in different outcomes from those expected when the components are considered separately. For example, the expected best combination for an individual in terms of experiencing a positive work-life balance may be low work-life conflict and high work-life enrichment in both directions. However, as Rantanen and colleagues (2011) show in their empirical study with Finnish managers, Finnish employees, Finnish university professors and Estonian managers, high levels of both work-life conflict and enrichment and low levels of both work-life conflict and enrichment may also result in satisfactory levels of psychological functioning and well-being for an individual. Rantanen and colleagues use work-life balance as a collective term for conflict and enrichment and proposed four types of work-life balance: active, harmful, passive and beneficial balance. The work-life balance typology by Rantanen and colleagues is represented in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Work-life balance typology (Rantanen et al., 2011)

	Low work-life conflict	High work-life conflict
Low work-life enrichment	Passive work-life balance	Harmful work-life balance
High work-life enrichment	Beneficial work-life balance	Active work-life balance

In their empirical study, Rantanen and colleagues also examine outcomes associated with

the identified work-life balance typology and find differences in psychological functioning and work role engagement. Indicators of psychological functioning used are high vigor and low exhaustion/stress at work, high emotional stability, high self-efficacy, high self-esteem, high locus of control, self-reported health and life satisfaction. Indicators of work role engagement considered are high weekly working hours, over-commitment to work, high organizational involvement and low turnover intentions. Results indicated that the beneficial work-life balance type is associated with the highest levels of psychological functioning and harmful work-life balance with the lowest levels. As both active and passive types were not found to be associated with very poor levels of psychological functioning, Rantanen and colleagues consider these types as satisfactory types of work-life balance. They also found that in general, employees with an active balance type display high work role engagement regarding all indicators except (low) turnover intentions.

Rantanen and colleagues (2011) indicate that it would be valuable to consider their work-life balance typology in different life contexts, which may help to explain why individuals experience a specific type of work-life balance. Addressing this call for further research, this paper takes Rantanen and colleagues' perspective of work-life balance to better understand how life stage may influence the type of balance of an individual.

3.3. A life stage approach

A life stage approach in the work-life literature is uncommon, even though an employee's particular life stage may significantly contribute to the work-life balance he/she may experience. In this section, I provide theoretical and empirical evidence in support of the pursuit of a life stage approach to the analysis of the work-life interface.

3.3.1. Theoretical support

During the course of their lives, individuals pass through different personal life and career stages, 'a sequence of socially defined events and roles that the individual enacts over time' (Giele & Elder, 1998, p. 22). In practice, life stages are defined by a broad range of structural and social factors (such as age and marital status) that might lead individuals belonging to a particular life stage to experience their work and life roles differently. In each of these stages, individuals will have different roles (e.g., parent, spouse, community volunteer, senior manager, etc.) each with its own demands and resources. Different work-life resources and demands bring different combinations of work-life conflict and enrichment outcomes. For example, having young children, a demanding job and strong social support may lead to high levels of both conflict and enrichment. This is the key theoretical argument that Demerouti

and colleagues (2012) use to link work-life resources and demands with work-life conflict and enrichment across life and career stages. Their argument is based on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti et al., 2001).

The JD-R model posits that any job (or any occupational activity) presents demands and resources to an employee. Job demands are those "physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). Examples of job demands are work overload and a poor physical environment. Similarly, job resources are defined as 'those physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job' (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312) that could help employees manage or reduce their job demands (and therefore, reduce their potential negative impact), help them to meet their job goals and/or contribute to their personal growth and development. Examples of job resources are job autonomy and social support. The concepts of job demands and resources can be applied not only to work roles but also personal life roles (e.g., parent, carer, community volunteer). Empirical research has shown that different work-life role demands and resources are associated with different levels of work-life conflict and enrichment. Grzywacz and Marks (2000) demonstrate that more resources in work and life roles (e.g., good family relations, discretion to make decisions at work) can be associated with less work-life conflict and more work-life enrichment.

The passage of time may also affect how individuals perceive job demands and, consequently, their resulting work-life conflict and job attitudes and behaviour. For example, the refinement of the job resources-demand model by Crawford, LePine, and Rich (2010) demonstrates that job demands perceived as a challenge (as opposed to a hindrance) by individuals are positively associated with employee engagement and negatively related to burnout. In their study, Crawford and colleagues indicate that 'it may be possible that the appraisal of demand as a challenge can change as a result of experience over time, and as a consequence, the relationships between the demand and both burnout and engagement may change as well' (p. 845). This supports the idea that employees in late adulthood, who are likely to have greater work experience, may perceive demands or stressors as challenges rather than hindrances. This perception of demands may positively contribute to their work engagement and decrease job burnout among older workers.

Following a similar rationale, past theoretical and empirical research has studied how different stages in life and career may contribute to individuals viewing and experiencing their

work-life interface differently (Demerouti et al., 2012; Martinengo, Jacob, & Hill, 2010). Certain factors and values may be of different importance to an individual, depending on his/her life and career stage and this, in turn, may affect his/her attitudes and behaviors. For example, while younger employees may be more concerned about developing their skills and career progression, older employees may be more concerned about health and appropriate workload (Demerouti et al., 2012; Huffman et al., 2013).

3.3.2. Empirical evidence

There is no clear definition of life stages or life course. Prior studies have used measures such as age, the presence of children at home and age of youngest child to create cohorts to operationalise life stages. Some of the studies (such as Huffman et al., 2013) even define and use life stages as overlapping 'bands' for their analysis. According to Huffman and colleagues, career stage bands include exploration (ages 18-30), establishment (ages 25-49), and maintenance (ages 45+).

Past empirical studies of the work-life interface with a life stage approach have demonstrated that life stages are linked to different levels of work-to-life and life-to-work conflict (Demerouti et al., 2012; Erickson, Martinengo, & Hill, 2010; Grzywacz et al., 2002; Jeffrey Hill et al., 2008; Martinengo et al., 2010; Matthews, Bulger, & Barnes-Farrell, 2010) and enrichment (Grzywacz et al., 2002; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Differences in measurement and inconsistencies in the results make it very difficult to draw clear conclusions from these studies. While some researchers (Erickson et al., 2010; Jeffrey Hill et al., 2008) found that having children in preschool and school age is associated with higher levels of work-life conflict, Grzywacz and colleagues (2002) discovered that work-life conflict is not limited to workers with young children and note a significant association between age and work-life conflict. Grzywacz and colleagues found that work-life conflict is relatively stable during the early and midlife stages and declines after midlife. Regarding work-life enrichment, some studies (Grzywacz et al., 2002; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000) have shown that advancing age is associated with more work-life enrichment, independent of family structure (having young children, family status) and occupational attributes (occupation, working hours).

Some studies have also demonstrated that the strength and significance of contributing factors to and outcomes of work-life interface variables may vary depending on an individual's life stage (Erickson et al., 2010). Yet these studies have important limitations. With the exception of the study by Grzywacz and colleagues (2002), they focus on the traditional view of the work-life interface as conflict between work and personal life. They

disregard the important aspect of how work and life roles can positively influence each other and their potential consequences. Even the study by Grzywacz and colleagues (2002) does not consider how work-life conflict and enrichment fit together and the potential implications of this fit, such as the impact on employees' job attitudes and behaviors.

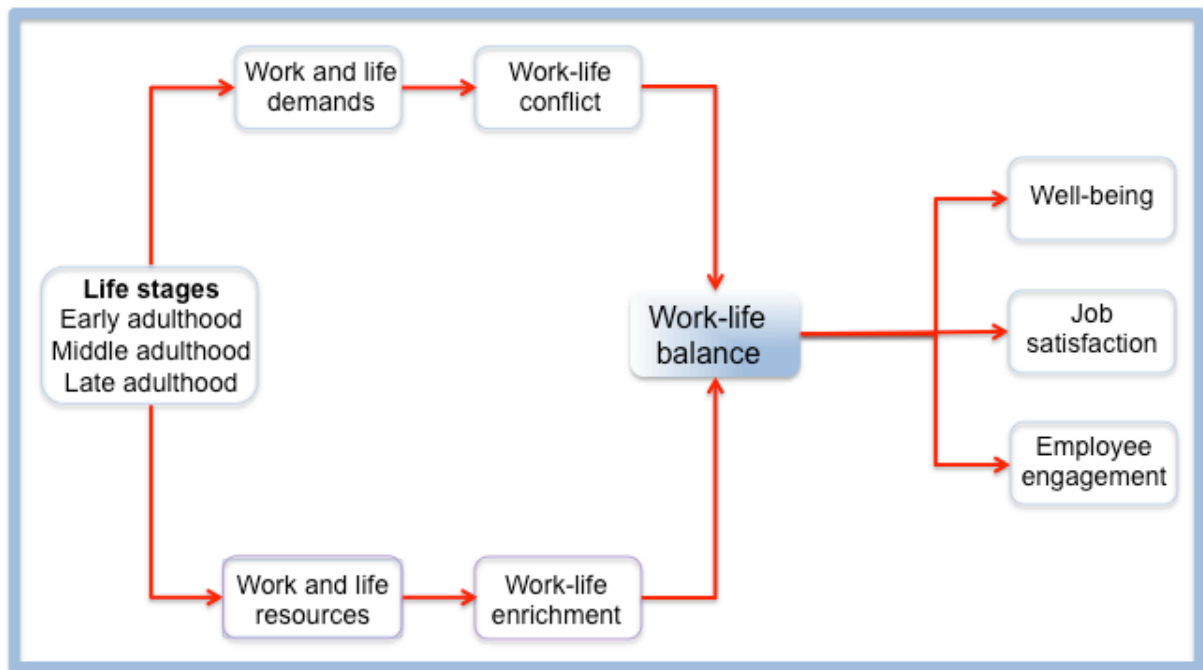
Using an international sample of 41,769 employees, Erickson and colleagues (2010) examine the implications of work-life conflict (such as work-family fit, job satisfaction and job success) with a life stage perspective. Their model also includes predictors that potentially foster (e.g., job hours) or diminish (e.g., job flexibility) work-life conflict. Some limitations of this study are that it fails to include the positive aspect of the work-life interface and uses single item measures for some variables, which might have negatively affected their validity and reliability.

3.4. Hypotheses

As mentioned earlier, there is no consensus or clear guidance about what constitutes a life stage and past studies have operationalised it in different ways. Huffman and colleagues (2013) note that it is not the age of the employee that may determine changes in work-life conflict and enrichment, but the experiences that employees in the same life stages may go through. However, several theoretical and empirical studies (Demerouti et al., 2012; Grzywacz et al., 2002; Huffman et al., 2013; Matthews, Bulger, et al., 2010) use age as a proxy for life stages. Age has been used to represent life stages since each age cohort has similar demographic characteristics, such as having young children and being married.

Age-linked periods in life structure development is also well supported by empirical evidence (Levinson, 1986). Developmental psychology traditionally distinguishes the early adulthood or exploration stage, the middle adulthood or establishment stage and the late adulthood or maintenance stage (Levinson, 1986). In this study, I make use of these three life stages and draw from theory and empirical research in order to hypothesise about the expected level of work-life balance per stage, together with potential outcomes. The model of the relationships between the variables under study is represented in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Model of work-life balance by life stages



3.4.1. Work-life balance by life stages

3.4.1.1. Early adulthood (~18-30 years old)

In this stage, called 'exploration', an individual's main focus is on their identity (Erikson, 1968) and, therefore, individual interests are located in self development activities such as continuing studies and/or starting a job. In their review of the work-family interface literature from the life and career stage perspective, Demerouti and colleagues (2012) argue that young employees may experience high levels of demands and low levels of resources in both work and life domains. Van der Heijden, Schalk, and van Veldhoven (2008) explain that, in the early stages of their careers, young employees are finding out whether they can meet the demands of their job and life roles and are likely to have insufficient resources to do so (i.e., skills and capabilities). They are learning to deal with the requirements and expectations of their jobs. However, at this early stage of their careers, employees may have lower levels of job responsibilities and are less likely to have dependents, and therefore, their work and life domains may not conflict much (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976, as cited in Huffman et al., 2013).

Past empirical research is inconclusive about the expected level of work-life conflict among young employees. While results from some studies have shown a curvilinear relationship between age and work-life conflict peaking at the middle adulthood stage (Erickson et al., 2010; Huffman et al., 2013), others (Grzywacz et al., 2002) suggest that work-life conflict is

stable through young and early mid-life age, and declines for those employees aged 45 years or older. Based on previous work, I take the view that the level of work-life conflict among young employees may be low since their jobs tend to be low in responsibilities (compared to older employees) and they have a lower likelihood of having dependents (Arnett, 2000; Wilkie, 1981). According to the UK's Office for National Statistics, the average age of first time mothers in England and Wales was 28.3 years in 2013, compared with 28.1 years in 2012. The 2013 rise represents a continuation of the increasing average age of mothers in England and Wales since 1973, when the average age of all mothers giving birth was 26.4 years, compared to 30.0 years in 2013. First time fathers tend to be older than mothers.

Regarding work-life enrichment by life stage, there is startlingly little empirical evidence. Grzywacz and colleagues (2002) found that younger employees may report lower positive work-life spillover than older employees, independent of parental status or occupational factors (e.g., working hours). This is consistent with the view of Demerouti and colleagues (2012), who posit low levels of resources among young employees. Therefore, I hypothesise that we should expect more passive work-life balance (low level of work-life conflict and low level of work-life enrichment) among young employees than among older employees.

Hypothesis 1a: Passive work-life balance is the most prevalent type of work-life balance among employees in early adulthood.

3.4.1.2. Middle adulthood (~30-45 years old)

According to van der Heijden et al. (2008), after early adulthood, the work priorities of individuals change; job specialisation and attaining a professional identity become more important. At the same time, new life demands may arise if employees get married and/or have dependents. This is also the life stage of the "the sandwich generation", when demands from child rearing and aging parents may collide (Zal, 1992). As a result, employees in middle adulthood can expect an increase in pressure at work and at home, which can lead to higher levels of work-life conflict. Erickson and colleagues (2010) found that work-life conflict increases across the early life stage, peaking in the middle adulthood stage for employees with children of preschool and school ages.

Regarding the positive side of the work-life interface, theoretical and empirical evidence suggest that adults in the middle life stage may have more resources and report more work-life enrichment compared to the early life stage. They may have developed a certain level of achievement in jobs in which they have some competence and with which they may identify

(Super, 1980), and may have better integrative skills to manage work and life roles (Demerouti et al., 2012).

De Lange and colleagues (2010) examined whether older workers (45 years or older) differ significantly from young (30 years or younger) and middle-aged workers (31–44 years) regarding the level of job control and learning-related behaviours. With a sample of 1473 workers, their findings suggest that middle-aged workers report significantly higher levels of job control, active problem-solving, and motivation to learn compared to the younger and older groups of workers. De Lange and colleagues offer several explanations for these results. Adults in mid-life may have achieved positions with higher levels of job control that fit their identity but are still open to the opportunities to move on to other more interesting roles, while older workers have reached the highest position possible for them and have limited opportunities for job transfer. Another explanation is the potentially more favourable treatment in the workplace of middle-aged versus younger and older workers.

Grzywacz and colleagues (2002) theorise that older employees report higher levels of work-life enrichment since accumulation of skills and experience over time may enable individuals to better manage the work and life interface. Results of their study suggest that work-life enrichment increases with age, confirming their hypothesis. Given the theoretical and empirical evidence discussed above, I argue that employees in middle adulthood have more resources (such as skills and capabilities and social capital) that make them better equipped to manage the demands of work and life than employees in early adulthood (Sterns & Huyck, 2001). Therefore, I propose that employees in middle-adulthood are more likely to experience an active work-life balance (moderate to high work-life conflict and moderate to high work-life enrichment) rather than other types of balance.

Hypothesis 1b: Active balance is the most prevalent type of work-life balance among employees in middle adulthood.

3.4.1.3. Late adulthood (~45 plus years old)

In the late adulthood stage, individuals' priorities may gradually shift to non-work domains, such as family (grandchildren) and leisure activities (T. W. Ng & Feldman, 2008). Older employees are likely to have fewer childcare responsibilities, but they may have other caregiving responsibilities (e.g., elderly parents or disabled partners). As individuals age, they gain experience in managing work and life activities (Erickson et al., 2010). Older employees have acquired the knowledge, skills and capabilities to cope with work and life demands (Sterns & Huyck, 2001) and be more resilient (Greve & Staudinger, 2006). They

may perceive job and life demands as challenges instead of obstacles (Crawford et al., 2010). One could argue that individuals in late adulthood may have gained more experience when dealing with demands and, as a result, perceive them as challenges or opportunities for personal development or future gains, instead of perceiving them as hindrances or constraints to pursuing their goals. As Crawford and colleagues explain, the appraisal of demands as challenges triggers positive emotions (e.g., excitement) and an active or problem-solving style of coping (e.g., strategising). This, in turn, results in individuals likely managing the demands upon them more effectively.

There is empirical evidence that suggests that employees in older age may have more work and life resources and, therefore, are more likely to experience work-life enrichment than younger employees. Older employees may be more psychologically mature than younger people and be happier as a result (Sheldon & Kasser, 2001). In a study of 634 Hong Kong managers, Siu, Spector, Cooper, and Donald (2001) show that older managers reported fewer sources of stress, better coping, and a more internal locus of control.

In addition, past empirical studies have consistently reported lower work-life conflict among older employees (Erickson et al., 2010; Grzywacz et al., 2002; Matthews, Bulger, et al., 2010) and also found that older employees report more positive work-life spillover (enrichment) than younger employees, independently of life or job factors. Therefore, I theorise that a beneficial work-life balance (low level of work-life conflict and high level of work-life enrichment) will be more prevalent among older employees.

Based on the theoretical and empirical research presented above, I propose:

Hypothesis 1c: Beneficial balance is the most prevalent type of work-life balance among employees in late adulthood.

Hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c are represented in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Hypothesised work-life balance by life stage

	Early adulthood	Middle adulthood	Late adulthood
Work and life demands	Low level	Moderate to high level	Low level
Work and life resources	Low level	Moderate to high level	High level
Work-life balance	Prevalence of passive (low conflict, low enrichment)	Prevalence of active (high conflict, high enrichment)	Prevalence of beneficial (low conflict, high enrichment)

3.4.2. Outcomes of work-life balance

3.4.2.1. Job satisfaction, employee engagement and well-being

As mentioned earlier, Rantanen and colleagues (2011) examine the association of their work-life balance typology with positive psychological functioning and work engagement. The psychological functioning measure that they apply includes personality characteristics and strategies that positively contribute to an individual's well-being (such as emotional stability and self-efficacy). Their results suggest that even though the beneficial balance type is the ideal in terms of both psychological functioning and work role engagement, both the passive and active balance types were also satisfactory in terms of psychological functioning. These results are based on two samples of Finnish university professionals and Finnish managers. I question whether these results would be the same for other samples of managers and employees from different organisations and/or countries. Following the work by Rantanen and colleagues (2011), I examine the association of work-life balance types with important outcomes such as well-being, job satisfaction and employee engagement. The importance of positive job attitudes and well-being has been highlighted in past research literature, especially for their potential predictive role in work-related behavioral outcomes, particularly job performance (Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987; Judge et al., 2001; Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010)

Job satisfaction is a work-related attitude defined as a positive feeling about a job. This

positive feeling is the result of an individual's assessment of aspects of his/her job (e.g., amount of work, working patterns, promotion opportunities). The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance has been the subject of numerous studies. Judge and colleagues (2001) found in their qualitative and quantitative review that there is a positive relationship between these two variables, although the nature and the strength of this relationship need to be further researched.

Employee engagement encompasses a broad range of concepts. The definition used for the purposes of this paper is by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p. 295), '...a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption'. It measures employees' enthusiasm and energy for their work and it helps to understand what makes employees "go the extra mile". Employee engagement has been associated with important organisational outcomes such as organisational citizenship and job performance (Bakker, 2011; Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin, & Lord, 2002). In addition, employee engagement has been positively associated with reduced tardiness and absenteeism (Blau, 1986) and turnover (Blau & Boal, 1989). Employee engagement also has negative aspects. It has been linked to overwork (Beckers et al., 2004) and, as Bakker, Albrecht, and Leiter (2011) note, high enduring employee engagement may produce workaholics.

3.4.2.2. Work-life balance components and job satisfaction, employee engagement and well-being

Past work-life literature has associated work-life conflict and work-life enrichment with outcomes such as job satisfaction, employee engagement and well-being. Drawing from role scarcity theory, Goode (1960) posits that individuals have limited physical and psychological resources to meet the demands of multiple roles. When the demands from work and life roles clash or compete for the limited amount of an individual's resources, work-life conflict ensues (Frone et al., 1992a; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). When work and life roles conflict with each other, negative effects on job performance are likely (Allen et al., 2000; Netemeyer et al., 2005). Past empirical research has also associated work-life conflict with a decrease in job satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Furthermore, role scarcity theory suggests that conflict arising from demands competing for scarce resources causes psychological symptoms (e.g., higher stress) and physical ailments (Eby et al., 2005; Frone et al., 1997), which indicates that work-life conflict is negatively related to employee well-being.

Social exchange theory offers an explanation for the relationship between work-life conflict

and employee engagement as well. Individuals who have difficulties managing work and life demands may perceive their organisations as unsupportive and will subsequently not feel the need to reciprocate with commitment and/or engagement (Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Consistent with role expansion theory, which posits that involvement in one role facilitates involvement in another role, the model developed by Greenhaus and Powell (2006) explains the enrichment process between roles. Resources (e.g., skills and capabilities) in one role may bring increased performance and positive affect in another role and, thus, increased role satisfaction. Resources acquired in one role help to not only meet within-role demands but also inter-role demands via the instrumental and affective paths of the enrichment process.

Empirically, job resources have been identified as a significant predictor of employee engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Moreover, resources can also activate the acquisition of other resources in the enrichment process. For example, hardiness, a psychological resource, can promote effective coping skills and physical health (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Since the enrichment process can explain how being satisfied in one role can lead to satisfaction in another role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), and past research has shown that participating and being satisfied in work and life roles leads to greater well-being (Rice, Frone, & McFarlin, 1992), we can expect that work-life enrichment will be positively related to well-being as well. McNall and colleagues (2010) provided a further theoretical basis for a positive association between work-life enrichment and well-being (assessed as psychological and physical health). They draw from conservation of resources theory (COR) (Hobfoll, 1989), which suggests that individuals with resources are less likely to face stress that can harm their mental and physical well-being.

Social exchange theory can also help to provide an explanation of the relationship between enrichment and job satisfaction and employee engagement. As individuals acquire resources in their work role, they may feel that their organisations are supportive and feel obliged to reciprocate with increased positive work-related attitudes.

To sum up, past research associates work-life conflict with deterioration in well-being, job satisfaction and employee engagement. In contrast, work-life enrichment is related to improvement in well-being, job satisfaction and employee engagement. Unsurprisingly, researchers (Rantanen et al., 2011) have concluded that individuals should strive to experience high levels of work-life enrichment while minimising work-life conflict in order to achieve a beneficial work-life balance. Since the ideal work-life balance type is the beneficial

one, because it includes low levels of work-life conflict (as opposed to the active type with high levels of work-life conflict) and high levels of work-life enrichment (as opposed to the passive type with low levels of work-life enrichment), I expect employees with beneficial work-life balance to report higher levels of well-being, job satisfaction and employee engagement than employees with the other types of work-life balance.

Hypothesis 2: Employees with a beneficial work-life balance will report higher levels of well-being, job satisfaction and employee engagement than employees with an active, passive or harmful work-life balance.

Viewed through the lens of life stages, the implications of Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c and 2 are that adults in the late life stage are more likely to experience higher levels of well-being, job satisfaction and employee engagement than adults in early and middle stages, based on their work-life balance type.

3.4.3. The role of gender

Theoretical and empirical research suggest that gender differences may persist in the way men and women experience work-life interface. The traditional model of gender-role socialisation (Pleck, 1977) expects that family factors interfere with work for women more than men because a woman's primary role is family-centred, while work factors have a greater impact on men than women, because men continue to work longer hours for pay and to identify primarily with work roles. More recently, Eagly and Wood (2011) expanded on these ideas in their social role theory which argues that when individuals observe men and women in certain roles, these observations may lead to a shared view of gender role stereotypes. These stereotypes suggest that men and women have specific and different attributes that make them well matched to play prescribed gender roles. At the same time, men and women internalise these shared views of gender stereotypes and subsequent expectations of behaviour, such that they self-regulate their own behaviour to conform with prescribed gender roles.

However, empirical evidence is not conclusive regarding gender differences in the way individuals experience work-life issues (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). As Grzywacz and Marks indicate, while some scholars find gender effects on the work-life interface consistent with the traditional gender role division (more work-to-life conflict for men and more life-to work conflict for women) (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991), others report a negligible amount or absence of those effects (Eagle, Miles, & Icenogle, 1997). Grzywacz and Marks attribute these inconsistencies to differences in methodology.

Empirical research has shown that differences remain between men and women in how they perceive their work and personal life demands and resources (J. Lewis, 2009). For example, empirical studies have shown gender differences in perceptions of work-life enrichment (McNall et al., 2010). In their meta-analytic review of the consequences associated with work-life enrichment, McNall and colleagues (2010) found that the positive association between both work-to-life and life-to-work enrichment and job and life satisfaction is higher when the sample includes more women. The explanation that McNall and colleagues offer for these results is that women may manage the boundaries of work and personal life domains differently and make use of their resources differently.

Moreover, empirical studies have revealed gender differences in the work-life interface by life stages (Chi-Ching, 1995; Martinengo et al., 2010). Martinengo and colleagues use an international sample of over 40,000 IBM employees to find that men experience greater work-to-life conflict than women in almost every life stage, while 'women reported significantly greater life-to-work conflict in the life stages of being younger than age 35 years with no children, having a youngest child in elementary school, or having a youngest child who was a teenager' (Martinengo et al., 2010, p. 1377). The same study also found that while becoming new parents poses new life demands for both men and women, they experience these demands differently. In the transition to parenthood, women increase their amount of time on family care and prioritise their personal life role over work, while men work longer hours for pay and prioritise their work role over their personal life role. This can be explained by Pleck's gender role model (Pleck, 1977), which posits that women take a bigger share of the work at home than men. Based on past theoretical and empirical evidence on its potential impact, gender is included as a control variable in the present analysis.

3.5. Method

3.5.1. Sample

The sample for the present study is composed of 507 respondents to an online quantitative survey conducted in a UK organisation, AdviceCo⁴, which provides advisory services. The survey instrument is included in Appendix I. Participation in the research was voluntary and employees were assured that their individual responses would remain confidential. Advance notice of the survey and follow-up reminders by email were used in order to obtain a high response rate (Roth & BeVier, 1998). Participants were sent pre-notification emails prior to the survey launch at which time they were sent another email with a link to the self-

⁴ Fictional name

administered online survey. The survey was active for a three-week period. Periodic reminders were also sent throughout the data collection process encouraging non-respondents and partial respondents to participate. Over 900 employees were emailed the survey link. Among these, 514 surveys were completed, including 12 surveys from the pilot, yielding approximately a 55% response rate in total. Responses from 7 employees were removed because the age data were missing and thus, could not be categorised in any life stage. Additional missing data were treated using pairwise deletion (Schafer & Graham, 2002).

The sample was 42% male and 58% female, with an average age of 46 (ranging from 18 to 70 years old) and an average tenure with the organisation of 11 years (ranging from less than a year to 40 years). It was composed of employees with different occupational functions (such as Telephone services, administrative services and advisory services) and managerial levels, working patterns (26% of the participants worked mainly from home, 54% worked mainly from the office and the remaining 20% worked more flexibly) and family status (77% of the respondents were married or in a committed relationship, 35% of respondents had dependent children, 18% had caregiving responsibilities for other dependents).

3.5.2. Measures

The survey participants provided demographic information such as age (in years), gender (0='Male', 1='Female') and marital status (1='Single/Divorced/Widow', 2='Married or live with a partner', 3='Married or in similar relationship but do not live with partner'). They indicated the number of children living at home and the age of the children under 18. Respondents also specified whether they had any other care responsibilities besides childcare (0='No', 1='Yes').

Participants in the survey were also asked to provide information about their jobs. They were asked to select their grade (managerial level) from a pre-populated list that included five managerial grades (from value one being the highest managerial level to value five being the lowest managerial level).

3.5.2.1. Outcome variables

Well-being was measured with a six-item scale from the 2004 Workplace Employment Relations Survey. This scale asks participants to rate how often (from 1='Never or almost never' to 5='All or almost all of the time') their jobs made them feel, for example, calm or uneasy over past few weeks. Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .89.

Job satisfaction was measured with a ten-item scale from the 2004 Workplace Employment Relations Survey. Participants indicated their satisfaction (from 1='Very dissatisfied' to 5='Very satisfied') with various aspects of their job such as volume, variety, sense of achievement, pay, support from line manager and job overall. Cronbach's alpha for job satisfaction was .85.

Employee engagement was assessed with the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Participants indicated their agreement (from 1='Strongly disagree' to 5='Strongly agree') with ten statements reflecting the underpinning dimensions of vigour, dedication and absorption, such as 'At work, I feel that I am bursting with energy', 'My job inspires me' and 'I get carried away when I'm working'. Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .90.

3.5.2.2. Work-life measures

Work-life conflict was measured with a six-item scale by Matthews, Bulger, et al. (2010), an abbreviated version of a scale by Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams (2000), with statements that capture time, strain and behaviour based conflict. Items were slightly reworded to allow employees without traditional family structures to represent their non-work experiences. Work-to-life conflict was assessed with statements such as 'I have to miss family, social or leisure activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities' and 'I am often so emotionally drained at the end of a workday that it prevents me from engaging with my family or friends'. Life to work conflict was measured with statements such as 'Behaviour that is effective and necessary for me in my personal life is counterproductive at work' and 'I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities or personal commitments'. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement (from 1='Strongly disagree' to 5='Strongly agree') with each statement. Cronbach's alpha for the work-life conflict measure was .69. It should be noted that this is slightly lower than the generally accepted minimum level of .7 for this statistic (Cortina, 1993). The lower reliability of this measure could be explained by the fact that the items were reworded in order to not exclude those employees who did not have a family (i.e., married or in a similar type of relationship and/or having children). I tested the reliability of this measure for the respondents who reported having a family and the Cronbach's alpha for the work-life conflict measure was above the .70 acceptable minimum.

Work-life enrichment was measured with a four item-scale by Wayne, Randel, and Stevens (2006). Work-to-life enrichment was assessed with two items of the scale, and life-to-work

enrichment was assessed with the remaining two items of the scale. Sample measures included statements such as 'Having a good day on the job makes me more effective in my personal life' and 'I feel more confident personally when I feel that I am being successful professionally'. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement (from 1='Strongly disagree' to 5='Strongly agree') with each statement. Cronbach's alpha for work-life enrichment was .82.

The measure for types of work-life balance was formed by combining the measures for work-life conflict and work-life enrichment reported by employees. Following the method applied by Rantanen et al. (2011), I divided the responses to work-life conflict and work-life enrichment into two groups, using a cut-off point. I then grouped the responses into four categories (as shown in Figure 4): active, passive, beneficial and harmful. I chose the value of 3.5 as the cut-off point because in the scales used for conflict and enrichment, below 3.5 constitutes non-experience of the work-life conflict and enrichment (1='Strongly disagree', 2='Disagree', 3='Neither disagree nor agree'), while a mean score of 3.5 or above signifies experiencing work-life conflict and/or enrichment (4='Agree', 5='Strongly agree'). Selecting a cut-off point that is dependent on the response scale, rather than the mean or median of the resulting scores, ensures that the subsequent work-life balance types are not sample-specific and can be compared with results from other samples.

Figure 4: Work life balance typology

	Low level of work-life conflict (less than 3.5)	High level of work-life conflict (greater than or equal to 3.5)
Low level of work-life enrichment (less than 3.5)	Passive work-life balance	Harmful work-life balance
High level of work-life enrichment (greater than or equal to 3.5)	Beneficial work-life balance	Active work-life balance

Based on work by Rantanen et al., (2011)

3.6. Analysis and findings

I carried out a preliminary exploration of the data using descriptive and correlation analysis. Table 9 shows the descriptive statistics and correlations for the study variables. I applied Spearman's correlation as there are several categorical variables (such as work-life balance) and, unlike Pearson's correlation, it does not assume that the relationship between variables is linear (Hauke & Kossowski, 2011). I found the strongest positive correlation between work-

life balance type and work-life enrichment ($r(507)=.73, p<.01$), and the strongest negative correlation between work-life conflict and well-being ($r(504)=-.46, p<.01$). The strong correlation between work-life balance and enrichment can be explained by the fact that work-life enrichment (in a binary form) is included in the work-life balance measure. The negative correlation between work-life conflict and well-being is expected as there are numerous empirical research studies linking work-life conflict with harmful effects on well-being (Allen et al., 2000; Frone et al., 1992a). Similarly, work-life conflict is negatively related to job satisfaction and employee engagement. Also, as expected from past research, there is a significant positive association between the positive job related attitudes (job satisfaction and employee engagement) and well-being. Interestingly, work-life stages do not have significant correlation with work-life conflict but are negatively associated with work-life enrichment, indicating that adults in late adulthood may experience lower levels of enrichment. The relationship between work-life stages and work-life conflict and enrichment are further examined in the next sections.

Table 9. Descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables (N=507)

	Mean	S. D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Well-being	3.26	0.79	1							
2. Job satisfaction	3.46	0.63	0.58**	1						
3. Employee engagement	3.19	0.76	0.47**	0.62**	1					
4. Work-life conflict	2.33	0.58	-0.46**	-0.451*	-0.37**	1				
5. Work-life enrichment	3.72	0.60	0.05	0.11*	0.17**	-0.00	1			
6. Work-life balance type ^a	3.48	0.87	0.11*	0.15**	0.15**	-0.08	0.73**	1		
7. Life stages ^b	2.49	0.65	0.02	0.04	0.07	-0.05	-0.19**	-0.16**	1	
8. Gender ^c	0.58	0.50	-0.09*	0.01	0.03	0.06	-0.06	-0.04	-0.04	1

^a1=Harmful, 2=Passive, 3=Active, 4=Beneficial

^b1=Early adulthood, 2=Middle adulthood, 3=Late Adulthood

^c0=Male, 1=Female

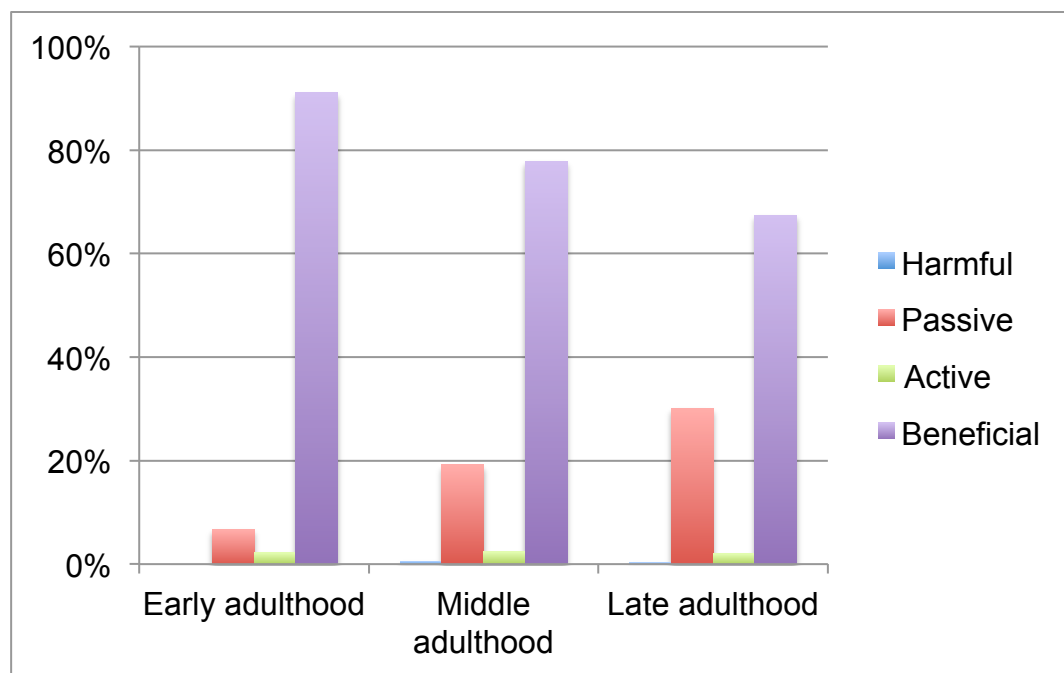
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

The majority of the participants (58%) belonged to the late adulthood stage (over 45 years old), while 33% of the participants were in middle adulthood (31 to 45 years old) and only 9% in early adulthood (18 to 30 years old). I analysed the difference among group means of variables such as caring responsibilities and, as expected, I found significant differences among these groups of employees. Differences are explained with more detail in the Appendix III.

3.6.1. Hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c

To test hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c, I first examined the frequency distribution of work-life balance types by life stage. The results show that the vast majority (97%) of employees in the organisation studied had a beneficial (67%) or passive (30%) type of work-life balance. Hypothesis 1c was supported: the most common type of work-life balance found among employees in late adulthood was the beneficial type. In contrast, Hypotheses 1a and 1b were not supported. Similar to employees in late adulthood, the predominant balance type found among employees in early and middle adulthood was the beneficial type. The responses of eleven employees were classified under the category of active work-life balance and two under the category of harmful work-life balance. Figure 5 shows the distribution (in percentages) of the types of work-life balance by life-stage.

Figure 5: Types of work-life balance by life stage



N=507 (45 in early adulthood, 167 in middle adulthood, 295 in late adulthood)

I further explored the differences in work-life balance type by life stage by analysing the variance among means. Results show significant differences between employees in late adulthood and those in early and middle adulthood. For example, 91% of employees in early adulthood had a beneficial balance compared to 67% of employees in late adulthood. While almost one third (30%) of employees in late adulthood had a passive work-life balance, 19% of employees in middle adulthood and 7% of those in early adulthood had the same type of work-life balance. Significant differences are shown in Table 10.

Table 10: Differences in means for work-life balance types by life stage

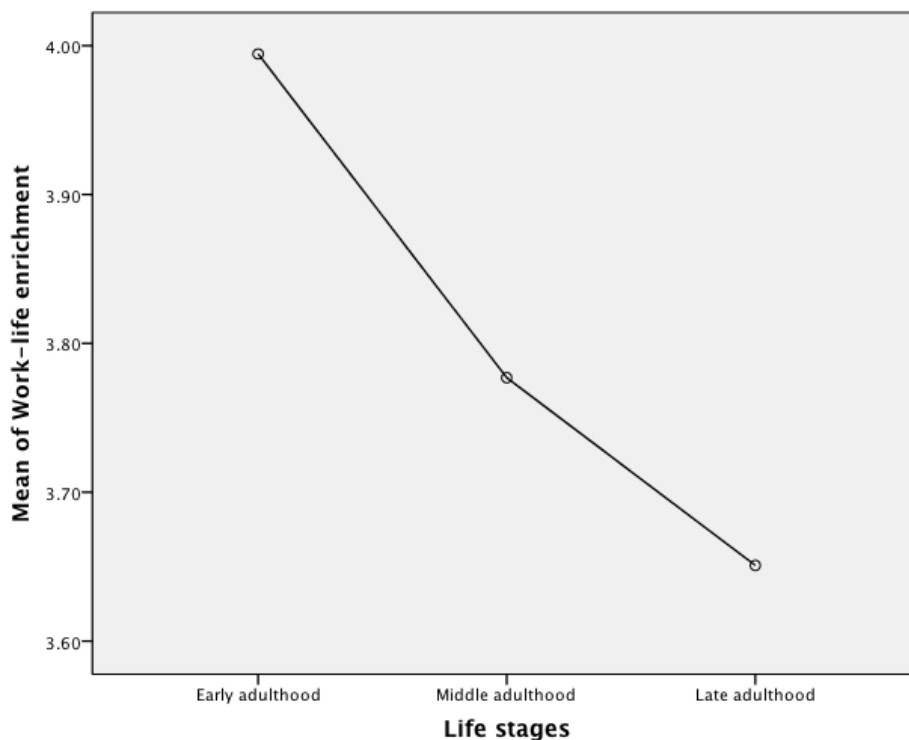
(I) Life stages	N	Mean	S.D.	(J) Life stages	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Early adulthood	45	3.84	0.52	Middle adulthood	0.26959	0.063
				Late adulthood	.47834*	0.001
Middle adulthood	167	3.57	0.82	Early adulthood	-0.26959	0.063
				Late adulthood	.20875*	0.013
Late adulthood	295	3.37	0.93	Early adulthood	-.47834*	0.001
				Middle adulthood	-.20875*	0.013

*N=507, *p<.05*

Although, as I expected, significant differences were observed between life stages in terms of work-life balance, these differences were not what I anticipated. For example, contrary to prediction, the proportion of employees with a beneficial work-life balance type was higher among employees in early adulthood than in late adulthood.

I examined the differences in responses to work-life conflict and work-life enrichment measures in order to understand the underlying reasons for the difference in work-life balance type by life stage. I analysed the variance among means and results indicate that higher work-life enrichment among younger employees drives the difference in the resulting work-life balance with older employees. I did not find significant differences for the reported level of work-life conflict by life stage. Findings suggest that the level of work-life conflict remained at a low level (scores of less than 3.5) through the life stages of employees. This explains why most employees reported either a beneficial or passive work life balance. The difference between these two types of balance is the level of work-life enrichment. Employees in early adulthood reported a significantly higher level of work-life enrichment than adults in late adulthood. Results are illustrated in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Differences in means for work-life enrichment by life stages



N=507 (45 in early adulthood, 167 in middle adulthood, 295 in late adulthood)

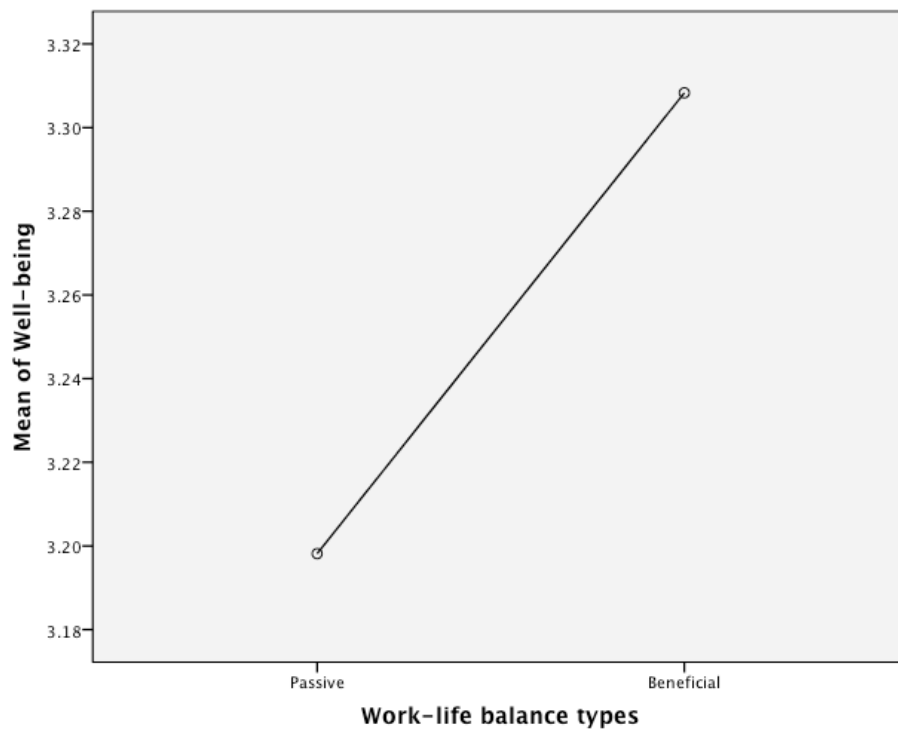
I also explored potential differences in gender between employees with different types of work-life balance. Results from the analysis of variance do not indicate significant differences by gender.

3.6.2. Hypothesis 2

To test Hypothesis 2, I first checked the results of the correlation analysis (Table 9) and confirmed that there is a significant positive correlation between the type of work-life balance and well-being, job satisfaction and employee engagement. Second, I analysed the variance of means to establish whether there were statistically significant differences in the responses from employees with different types of work-life balance with regard to well-being, job satisfaction and employee engagement. Since the sample size for employees with a harmful or active balance was very small, the analysis was focused on the beneficial and passive balance types. As expected, employees with a beneficial work-life balance reported having significantly higher levels of job satisfaction and employee engagement than employees with a passive balance at the $p < .01$ level. This signifies that, based on the type of balance, we can expect that employees in the early adulthood life stage would report higher levels of job satisfaction and employee engagement than employees in late adulthood. However,

although employees with a beneficial balance reported experiencing higher levels of well-being than those with a passive balance, the differences for well-being were not found to be significant. Consequently, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported. Results are illustrated in Figures 7, 8 and 9. Figure 7 below shows the difference in mean of well-being between employees with passive balance and employees with beneficial balance.

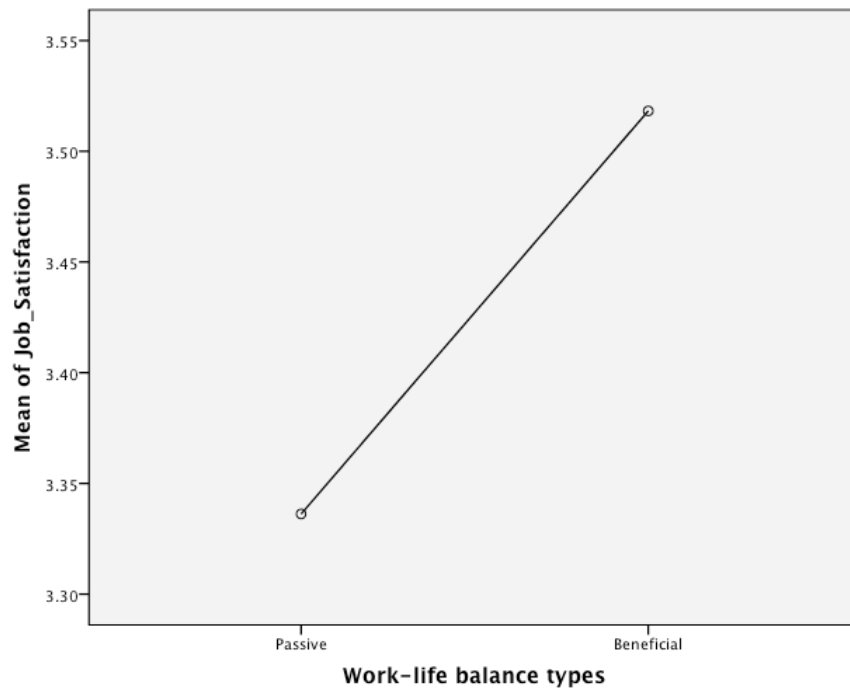
Figure 7: Well-being by type of work-life balance



N=500 (127 Passive, 373 Beneficial)

Figure 8 illustrates the difference in job satisfaction reported by employees with passive work-life balance and employees with beneficial work-life balance. The difference in means is statistically significant.

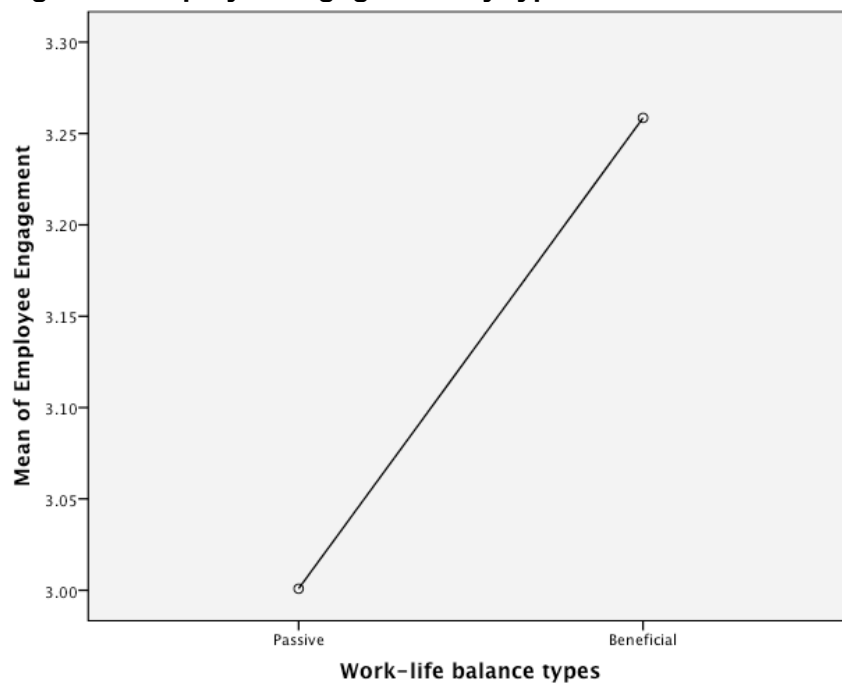
Figure 8: Job satisfaction by type of work-life balance



N=500 (127 Passive, 373 Beneficial)

Supporting Hypothesis 2, employees with beneficial work-life balance reported a significant higher level of employee engagement than employees with a passive work-life balance.

Figure 9: Employee engagement by type of work-life balance



N=500 (127 Passive, 373 Beneficial)

Surprisingly, employees with a beneficial work-life balance reported low levels of well-being and employee engagement on average, even though employees with a beneficial balance reported higher levels of positive job related attitudes than employees with a passive balance. Employees with a beneficial work-life balance reported an average value of less than 3.5 for well-being and employee engagement. This means that, on average, employees with a beneficial balance reported not experiencing well-being or work engagement according to the scales employed in this study (1='Strongly disagree', 2='Disagree', 3='Neither disagree nor agree', 4='Agree', 5='Strongly agree').

3.7. Discussion

This paper aims to understand 1) whether work-life balance (which combines conflict and enrichment) is different for individuals in different life stages, and, if so, what those differences are, and 2) the potential outcomes of work-life balance types in terms of well-being, job satisfaction and employee engagement. Consequently, I present the discussion of the results in the first two sections: differences in work-life balance by life stage and outcomes of work-life balance types. I then provide implications for theory and practice and a discussion of the study's limitations in the following two sections. Future areas for research are discussed in the final section.

3.7.1. Differences in work-life balance by life stage

The findings of this paper reveal differences in work-life balance between individuals in different life stages, but not according to expectations. First, while I expected that employees in early adulthood would mostly have a passive balance (low levels of enrichment and conflict), the large majority of them (91%) had a beneficial balance (high level of enrichment, low level of conflict). Second, employees in middle adulthood predominantly had a beneficial balance, rather than the anticipated active type (high levels of enrichment and conflict). As a result, Hypotheses 1a and 1b were not supported. In contrast, Hypothesis 1c was supported by the results of the analysis: employees in late adulthood predominantly had a beneficial work-life balance. However, I found a significantly higher proportion of employees in early adulthood with a beneficial balance than those in late adulthood.

A possible explanation for the observed differences in type of work-life balance by life stage is differences in work-life enrichment, as there were not any significant differences in work-life conflict by life stage. Younger employees reported a higher level of enrichment than older employees while work-life conflict remained stable at a low level across the life stages under study. This raises two main questions: 1) why did younger employees report a higher level of

enrichment and 2) why did work-life conflict remain at a low level through the different life stages?

Examining the antecedents of enrichment by life stage may help to answer the first question. Several work and non-work related variables (such as flexibility, skills, and social-capital resources) have been identified as resources that may facilitate a positive relationship between the work and personal life areas (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007). Perhaps young employees have access to more of these resources than older employees? One of these resources, social support or support provided by family and/or friends, is a likely antecedent of work-life enrichment (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Good quality relationships with friends and family that provide affective sustenance are likely to generate resources that benefit an individual's work. Post-hoc analyses indicated that there was a strong positive correlation between social support and enrichment and that employees in early adulthood reported significantly higher levels of social support than older employees.

Could it be that younger employees better exploit the resources available to them than older employees do? Wayne and colleagues (2007) posit that personal characteristics that foster positivity lead individuals to maximise available resources such that individuals can experience positive gains in one domain (e.g., work) that influence other domains (e.g., family). Perhaps younger employees tend to have personal characteristics that promote positivity compared to older employees?

Similarly, analysing the predictors of work-life conflict may provide an explanation for work-life conflict remaining at a low level through different life stages. Past theoretical (based on role scarcity theory) and empirical research (Byron, 2005; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) have identified several antecedents to work-life conflict such as non-work hours, presence of children at home, age of the youngest child, marital status and working hours. In the present study, variables that can be considered predictors of work-life conflict showed significant mean level differences across the three life stages (see Table 11 in Appendix III), such that I anticipated a variance in the resulting work-life balance types. As theorised, each life stage was associated with different work and life factors that could influence work-life balance. Depending on life stage, employees in the current study presented differences in terms of marital status, having children aged 18 or younger at home, caring for dependents other than children and managerial level. Being married (or in a similar type of relationship) may provide support (i.e., material and psychological resources) to reduce work-life conflict. Caring for dependents requires time and energy that may lead to the personal life domain interfering

with the work domain. In particular, the age of children and/or age of the youngest child is a variable that has often been used to predict work-life conflict in past work-life interface studies with a life stage approach, and results have supported the idea that the presence of young children is a contributing factor to work-life conflict (Grzywacz et al., 2002; Martinengo et al., 2010). A higher managerial level is likely to entail increased work demands and, thus, may contribute to work-life conflict as well.

Yet, despite the differences found in variables that could influence work-life conflict in each life stage, corresponding differences in work-life conflict and therefore, different work-life balance types were not found. These results are not consistent with previous research regarding not only the antecedents of work-life conflict (Byron, 2005) but also the expected work-life conflict that one could have at different points in one's life (Huffman et al., 2013).

A potential explanation for the results may be the presence of elements that are known to reduce work-life conflict such as schedule flexibility (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) and supervisor and coworker social support (Byron, 2005). Considering that 97% of the research participants did not report experiencing work-life conflict, it would be of great value to understand via further research the organisational policies and practices that could have helped achieved such a result at AdviceCo.

Another potential explanation for the differences in work-life balance type by life-stage may be variation in management of the boundaries between work and life. The higher level of passive work-life balance among older employees suggests that a higher proportion of these employees may keep their work and life domains separate, to the effect that negative and positive interactions between the work and life roles are kept to a minimum. Segmentation (i.e. keeping work and life domains separate so that they do not affect each other) may help to reduce work-life conflict (Ashforth et al., 2000; Kossek et al., 2006) but also, one could argue, work-life enrichment.

3.7.2. Outcomes of work-life balance types

As theorised, a beneficial work-life balance yielded higher levels of well-being, job satisfaction and employee engagement than a passive type, although significant differences could not be reported regarding well-being. Therefore, on the one hand, these results confirm that a beneficial type of balance is the optimal type to have (in agreement with the empirical findings by Rantanen and colleagues, 2011) and partially supports Hypothesis 2. On the other hand, results of this paper do not support the findings by Rantanen and colleagues, which indicate that a beneficial balance is associated with positive levels of well-being and

employee engagement. In the present study, employees with a beneficial balance type did not indicate experiencing positive well-being or work engagement on average. In other words, employees with a beneficial balance, on average, did not agree or disagree with the well-being and employee engagement statements used to measure these variables. Moreover, there were no significant differences in well-being between employees with a beneficial work-life balance and those with a passive one.

The inconsistency of findings regarding the outcomes of work-life balance types may be related to the level of enrichment and conflict reported by employees. Perhaps a lower level of conflict and a higher level of enrichment are required to constitute an actual beneficial balance that is associated with the positive outcomes found by Rantanen and colleagues (2011). Another potential explanation for the well-being results could be the influence that other variables may have had on the research participants, such as physical activity (Netz, Wu, Becker, & Tenenbaum, 2005) and socio-economic status (Pinquart & Sörensen, 2000), which have been associated with well-being.

3.7.3. Implications for theory and practice

First, this paper furthers existing theory by studying potential job related outcomes when taking work-life conflict and enrichment together. Past theoretical and empirical research has established the potential negative implications of high levels of work-life conflict for employees and, therefore, has provided a rationale for organisations and employees to pursue low or no conflict. However, past research has generally failed to study what the implications would be if the level of work-life enrichment is taken into account as well, as this paper does. This is important as individuals experience a combination of both in practice. The positive implications of having low or no work-life conflict may change once work-life enrichment is factored in. Drawing from role scarcity theory, role expansion theory and the job resources-demands model, this paper extends the findings of Rantanen and colleagues (2011) by suggesting that employees who experience high enrichment with low conflict may benefit from higher levels of not only engagement but also job satisfaction than those experiencing neither conflict nor enrichment.

Furthermore, since the results of this paper indicated that a beneficial balance may not be different than a passive one regarding well-being and, actually, a beneficial balance type may not be associated with positive well-being or employee engagement, this paper raises the question whether the work-life balance typology developed by Rantanen and colleagues (2011) needs further refinement. This model dichotomises conflict and enrichment variables

into two categories (high and low) to combine them into four work-life balance types by using a cut-off point that perhaps needs to be further adjustment. Perhaps there is a different minimum level of work-life enrichment (higher than the proposed cut-off point) and a maximum level of work-life conflict (lower than the proposed cut-off point) to constitute the ideal or beneficial work-life balance in terms of positive outcomes, such as well-being or employee engagement. Perhaps an individual's psychological functioning also plays a role, such that the cut-off point depends on the point at which psychological functioning is compromised. As a result, there will be variation across individuals in terms of work-life balance and associated outcomes.

The results of this paper provides support for researchers to continue their study on the mechanisms that influence enrichment and the consequences of its combination with conflict. It also gives a reason to organisations for measuring and monitoring both the work-life conflict and enrichment of their employees and designing and implementing programmes to promote enrichment (for example, by facilitating access and use of resources such as work schedule flexibility among employees) while reducing conflict. As for employees, being aware of the potential benefits of work-life enrichment may encourage them to actively pursue the acquisition and utilisation of those resources that may benefit their work-life balance.

Second, taking a life stage approach for the analysis of work-life balance potential outcomes adds a different and potentially valuable perspective to current work-life theories. Understanding how or why work-life balance may be different for individuals belonging to different life stages may help to refine existing work-life models based on role expansion and scarcity theory by raising new questions. In the case of the current study, 'Why did younger employees report a higher level of enrichment?', 'Is there any difference in availability of resources and personal characteristics by life stage to explain differences in enrichment?', 'Why did a larger proportion of older employees have a passive work-life balance?', 'Why did work-life conflict remain at a low level through the different life stages?', and 'What are the organisational policies and practices that could have helped achieve such result?' are some of the questions that may prove to be a productive area of future research.

Policy makers and practitioners would also benefit from understanding the needs of population segments that will become prevalent in the future in order to design policies and practices that target the particular needs of those segments to facilitate the reconciliation of work and personal life. Given that managing an ageing workforce is becoming one of the challenges for organisations in this century (Leibold & Voelpel, 2006; Shultz & Adams, 2012), learning that employees in later life stages would have a more passive work-life balance than

younger ones, for example, would help those organisations to craft more targeted policies and practices for their employees.

3.7.4. Limitations

One of the main limitations of this paper is that it makes use of cross-sectional data, instead of longitudinal data. Ideally, differences in life stages should reflect differences for the same individuals during their working life span in order to establish causality between variables. In the case of this paper, I analysed differences between groups of employees belonging to different life stages, which may reflect generational differences. Examining differences in generational groups and comparing them with other generational studies may be a potential fruitful area for future research.

Another key limitation of this study is that it is based on data from a single organisation in the UK. There is a risk that the findings cannot be generalised. In the context of the study variables, AdviceCo may be unique in some respects compared to other organisations: it is a medium size organisation dedicated to provide advisory services, with a small proportion of young employees and a long history of flexible working practices. Perhaps as a result of these flexible working practices, employees at AdviceCo do not report experiencing a high level of work-life conflict, despite differences in predictors of work-life conflict. I expect employees in other organisations to experience different levels of work-life conflict, which may yield different work-life balance types by life stage and overall, different findings.

3.7.5. Future research

The unanticipated finding that younger employees reported a higher level of enrichment is not consistent with past research (Grzywacz et al., 2002) and raises questions for future research. New studies could examine the reasons that may lead to younger employees to reporting a higher level of enrichment or older employees to report a lower level of enrichment. One approach to do this could be to explore whether there is any significant difference in availability of resources and personal characteristics by life stage. Younger employees may be better at exploiting the resources available to them than older employees. In the same way, employees in early adulthood may tend to have personal characteristics that promote positivity compared to employees in late adulthood.

Similarly, understanding why employees did not report experiencing work-life conflict independently of their life stage may be a productive area for future research. Maybe life stage is overshadowed by situational or contextual factors. Perhaps the availability and use

of organisational practices (such as flexible working practices) could have helped achieve such a result. A broad range of flexible working practices (such as homeworking, part-time working, compressed week) were available at AdviceCo and their use was well extended among employees. Percentage % of AdviceCo's reported using a flexible working practice in the year prior to the survey. AdviceCo may be a good example of best practice in making available flexible working practices to those employees who need them to reduce their work-life conflict and therefore, worth to be the subject of further study. In addition, focusing on variances in boundary management strategies by life stage may provide an explanation of the different work-life balance types observed in this study. Investigating whether younger adults differ from older adults in segmentation or integration strategies, and the relationship between these strategies and the work-life conflict and enrichment they experience, may provide an explanation of the resulting work-life balance.

The unexpected result that employees with a beneficial work-life balance still did not report experiencing either positive or negative well-being and work engagement also could be the subject of further research. A focus on factors that may have influenced the well-being and employee engagement of these employees may be a good starting point. It would also be a valuable contribution to determine whether there is a minimum level of work-life enrichment and a maximum level of work-life conflict to differentiate a beneficial work-life balance from an active or passive one in terms of positive levels of well-being and work-related attitudes and behaviours.

Future research could also potentially focus on the differences by generational groups (rather than by life stages) and compare them with other generational studies. Perhaps taking the perspective of generational differences may help to explain some of the unforeseen results of the present paper. Younger employees may have different expectations from work and life domains (E. S. Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons, 2010) and make different work-life choices (Charles & Harris, 2007) that have an impact on the resulting work-life balance.

4. PAPER II: WHEN HOMEWORKING AS A BENEFIT IS NOT RECIPROCATED: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF AN EMPLOYEE-ORGANISATION RELATIONSHIP

4.1. Introduction

4.2. The employee-organisation relationship

4.2.1. Rules of the exchange

4.2.2. Content of the exchange

4.2.3. Participants in the exchange

4.2.4. Content and process of the exchange

4.3. Homeworking and the EOR

4.3.1. Homeworking perceived as organisational support

4.3.2. When homeworking is not perceived as a benefit

4.4. Method

4.4.1. Qualitative study

4.4.2. Quantitative study

4.5. Results

4.5.1. Homeworking as an employer's inducement

4.5.2. Employee's contribution

4.5.3. The employee-organisation relationship

4.6. Conclusion

4.6.1. Contribution to the homeworking literature

4.6.2. Contribution to the EOR literature

4.6.3. Implications for practice

4.7. Limitations

4.8. Future research

4. PAPER II: WHEN HOMEWORKING AS A BENEFIT IS NOT RECIPROCATED: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF AN EMPLOYEE-ORGANISATION RELATIONSHIP.

4.1. Introduction

The previous study drew attention to an organisation where the vast majority of employees did not report work-life conflict and questioned whether this absence of conflict is due to the availability and use of flexible working practices. This paper focuses on one flexible working practice, homeworking, and examines its benefits at the individual level. According to the Telework Research Network (2015), organisations offer their employees the opportunity to work from home due to the multiple benefits that homeworking may provide (e.g., real estate cost reduction, increase in employee retention level, global warming reduction). Evidence from the research literature has also supported the association of homeworking (and other types of flexible working) with positive outcomes at the individual level, such as increased job satisfaction, lower work-life conflict, and higher organisational commitment (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). However, research studies have also shown the potential drawbacks of homeworking such as an increase in work-life conflict (Standen et al., 1999), professional and social isolation (Golden et al., 2008) and work intensification (Kelliher & Anderson, 2009). Since the empirical research is inconclusive, there is currently a debate over whether homeworking is beneficial for employees and organisations and the conditions in which benefits or drawbacks may occur.

Past empirical studies (Kelliher & Anderson, 2009; Scandura & Lankau, 1997) have drawn upon social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) to explain both benefits and drawbacks derived from flexible working practices, making use of employee-organisation relationship (EOR) constructs such as the psychological contract (PC) and perceived organisational support (POS). Homeworking may be viewed by employees as a favourable treatment received from the organization, just like career development opportunities and other human resource practices, that lead to POS (Kurtessis et al., 2015). In their recent meta-analysis, Kurtessis and colleagues (2015) suggest that human resources practices and job conditions, such as job security and flexible and family supportive work practices, are antecedents to POS. Since POS is associated with positive work-related attitudes and behaviours and subjective well-being (Kurtessis et al., 2015), some benefits from homeworking (e.g., higher organisational commitment) may stem from the employee's perception that the granting of homeworking is interpreted as organisational support, particularly if employees feel that the organisation's decision to do so is discretionary. Reasons for employees finding homeworking valuable may include removing

the hassle of commuting, having greater autonomy over the scheduling of tasks, and having greater flexibility to meet non-work demands. Following the norm of reciprocity, employees may feel they need to reciprocate perceived organisational support with higher levels of loyalty to the organisation or job performance, for example.

This paper seeks to contribute to the on-going debate about the consequences of homeworking focusing on the employee-organisation relationship and drawing from the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the inducements-contributions model (March & Simon, 1958). First, I question the employee's perception of homeworking as a benefit. For example, in the case of an organisation where homeworking has a long history and has become a common and extended practice among employees over time, I argue that employees may not perceive homeworking as a discretionary benefit, but as an entitlement. If this is the case, some of the expected benefits from homeworking in terms of employees' job related attitudes and behaviours may not materialise. Second, I consider the employer's perspective of homeworking together with the employee's view in order to better understand the employee-organisation relationship. Employees and the employer may differ in how they view homeworking and this may have an impact on their relationship. For example, if the employer views homeworking as an organisational discretionary benefit while the employee does not, they may subsequently develop different expectations in terms of what the employee should contribute or return in exchange for the ability to work from home. This may result in a situation where expectations are not met. And third, these different perceptions and expectations may impact on the employee-organisation relationship and, subsequently, on the employee's work related attitudes and behaviours and organisational performance. This leads to the main research questions of this paper, which are of an exploratory nature:

1. To what extent do employees and employer perceive homeworking differently (e.g., as a valuable benefit or as a 'right')?
2. Do they have different expectations in terms of what the employee should contribute or return in exchange for the ability to work from home?
3. If so, do they also perceive their relationship differently?
4. What are the potential work related outcomes of these differing perceptions?

In answering these questions, this paper seeks to contribute not only to the homeworking literature but also to the EOR literature. Specifically, I use qualitative analysis triangulated with quantitative data to participate in the long-standing debate about the effects of homeworking and identify circumstances under which potential negative effects may occur. With regard to the EOR literature, I propose an extension to an employment relationships

construct (Tsui et al., 1997) by including the employee's perspective and providing a view of how and why a non-reciprocated EOR can develop. I also propose a research agenda that takes into account the perspective of both employee and employer in the EOR to investigate further the consequences of homeworking and other work-life practices.

In the next section, I discuss the EOR literature, focusing on the theories and concepts that help to frame the research questions of this paper. Specifically, I will concentrate on the social exchange theory, the inducement-contribution model and the social and economic and exchange, psychological contracts, perceived organisational support and employment relations frameworks.

4.2. The employee-organisation relationship

The EOR is 'an overarching term to describe the relationship between the employee and the organisation' (Shore et al., 2004, p. 292). The study of the EOR is important because relationships between employers and employees affect significant organisational outcomes, including deviance, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), identification, and relational exchange quality (Shore & Coyle - Shapiro, 2003).

The EOR includes a family of related concepts such as perceived organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986), social and economic exchange (Shore et al., 2006), the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995) and the employment relationship (Tsui et al., 1997). The main theoretical frameworks underpinning past EOR literature are social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) with an emphasis on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), and the inducements-contributions model (March & Simon, 1958). Both theoretical frameworks are concerned with the exchange between employee and organisation but they differ in the level of analysis: constructs based on social exchange theory (such as the psychological contract) examine the EOR at the individual level while constructs based on the inducements-contributions model (such as the employment relationship) examine the EOR at the group or organizational level. In the next sections, I discuss the social exchange theory, the inducements-contributions model and the aforementioned EOR concepts. I organise the discussion into the rules, content, participants and process of the exchange. These themes help to frame the research questions this paper is attempting to address.

4.2.1. Rules of the exchange

Social exchange theory (SET) is an approach that helps to understand social behaviour and has been a useful framework in areas such as social power, networks and social justice

(Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In the context of the relationship between employees and their organisations, SET has been the dominant theoretical framework and the subject of a multitude of research studies (see Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005 for a review).

Social exchange occurs when there is 'an exchange of acts, more or less rewarding or costly, between two or more people' (Homans, 1961, p. 13) and the process is usually seen to be governed by an element of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Shore et al., 2004). As defined by Blau (1964, p. 6), "social exchange as here conceived is limited to actions that are contingent on rewarding reactions from others". In a social exchange, there are repeated interdependent interactions that may potentially develop into high-quality relationships over time if the parties follow certain rules of the exchange. Scholars have generally applied the norm of reciprocity while studying relationships between employees and their employing organisation with a social exchange theoretical framework (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Under the reciprocity rule, social exchange theory helps to explain the relationship between employees and their organisation, where the organisation provides a benefit (e.g., the opportunity to work from home; schedule flexibility) that is perceived as valuable by employees, and employees feel they need to reciprocate by giving something back (e.g., increased commitment or engagement).

However, one could argue that sole reliance on the reciprocity norm to explain the EOR may not represent the true diversity of norms that may govern such a relationship. Scholars (for example, Meeker, 1971) have identified other exchange rules (alternative to the reciprocity rule) and understanding deviations from the reciprocity exchange rule has been acknowledged as a significant gap in the social exchange literature (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) to which this paper seeks to contribute. A social exchange rule or principle guides the behaviour of a participant in a social exchange and helps to determine the type of exchange relationship he/she will engage in. As mentioned earlier, the reciprocity rule is the most commonly applied principle when studying the employee-organisation relationship. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) distinguish three types of reciprocity: a) reciprocity as a transactional pattern of interdependent exchanges, b) reciprocity as a folk belief, and c) reciprocity as a moral norm. Of these three types, the first one, the reciprocal interdependence, involves contingent interpersonal transactions in which action by one party leads to a response by another and it is the most commonly found interpretation of reciprocity in the management literature. Cropanzano and Mitchell and other scholars have also posited exchange rules or norms that are non-reciprocity based. A selection of non-reciprocity based exchange rules are displayed in Table 12.

Table 12: Non-reciprocity based exchange rules

Social exchange rule	Brief description
Negotiated rules	The parties in an exchange negotiate the terms of their relationship (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The type of relationship resulting from an exchange based on negotiated rules tends to be more explicit and less trusting than a relationship based on the reciprocity rule (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).
Equity / Distributive justice	Higher investments should be matched with higher rewards, as a party's output should match his/her input (Greenberg & Cohen, 2014).
Rationality	The participant assesses the consequences of his/her actions in order to maximise the benefits or rewards and minimise the costs he/she bears from the exchange (Meeker, 1971).
Altruism or social responsibility	The participant that seeks benefit for the other participant involved in an interpersonal exchange, without regard to what it would cost to him/her (Meeker, 1971).
Competition or rivalry	The participant seeks to obtain more benefit than the other person involved in the social exchange (Meeker, 1971).
Group gain	The participant chooses to maximise the value of the pay-off for all participants in the exchange (Meeker, 1971).
Status consistency or rank equilibration	The participant seeks to obtain benefits based on their standing or position in a social group (Meeker, 1971).
Indirect positive reciprocity	Participants help each other, depending on the other's helping behaviour toward third parties (Nowak & Sigmund, 2005). In other words, a party will help a second party based on the reputation of the second party. This principle is one of the mechanisms for cooperation in human behaviour studied in biology and economic literature (Kolm, 2006; Seinen & Schram, 2006).
Indirect negative reciprocity	A participant in an interpersonal relationship may seek to harm another participant who caused harm to a third party (Turillo, Folger, Lavelle, Umphress, & Gee, 2002). The mechanism is similar to that of indirect positive reciprocity but the result is not to benefit someone but to harm him/her and, thus, it could be considered an indirect negative reciprocity. In this case, the participant's motivation is generated from a sense of fairness, in other words, the exchange rule is driven by the participant's disapproval of an interactional injustice (unfair treatment) perpetrated on a third person (Turillo et al., 2002).
Revenge	The party seeks to minimise the other party's benefits without regard for his or her own (Bies & Tripp, 1996).

More recently, Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) argue that exchange relationships can change from a reciprocity-based to a non-reciprocity-based form. They claim that this change could be caused by a specific exchange or a short sequence of exchanges "marked by extreme emotional and instrumental content", for example, when an employee is subject to public ridicule by a boss. They challenge the key assumption from past research that each party in a relationship evaluates the resources exchanged in each interaction, and it is the balance of those accumulated interactions that define the perception of the relationship and the rules it will be governed by. According to Ballinger and Rockmann (2010), this is not always the case and they propose that "significant events in relationships take place and alter the state of these relationships in lasting ways" (p. 374).

Past research has noted that significant events can impact a relationship. For example, past evidence from the psychological contract literature have suggested that when individuals perceive a breach of the psychological contract (when their expectations are not met by their experience in a relationship with their organisation), it results in negative work-related outcomes such as lower trust, organisational commitment and organisational behaviour (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). According to Ballinger and Rockmann (2010), most of the research has focused on the consequences of negative events and how to repair the relationship, with little attention paid to the characteristics of these events, the process by which events change relationships and the conditions under which these events are likely to occur. Consequently, using memory and emotion concepts, Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) theorise about the process of how relationships come to be altered by a significant event (called "anchoring event"). They explain the process by which a positive anchoring event can turn a reciprocal relationship into a non-reciprocal positive one (e.g., altruism or group gain) and a negative anchoring event can turn a reciprocal relationship into a non-reciprocal negative one (e.g., competition or revenge).

To sum up, although reciprocity is the primary rule in the extant social exchange literature, there are alternative rules that govern interpersonal exchanges, multiple rules can co-exist in an exchange, rules help to determine the type of relationship (reciprocity and non-reciprocity based) that is built over time and an enduring change in rules can occur quickly and dramatically when triggered by an anchoring event.

In this paper, I explore why and how an EOR can evolve into a non-reciprocity based form and what the potential work related outcomes could be.

4.2.2. Content of the exchange

The perception of the resource exchanged between employer and employee plays an essential role in determining whether an exchange is reciprocated (Emerson, 1976). A resource is understood as 'an ability, possession, or other attribute of an actor giving him the capacity to reward (or punish) another specific actor. Any ability possessed by Person A is a resource only in relations with specific other persons who value it.' (Emerson, 1976, pp. 347-348). The concept of value is therefore subjective and based on the perception of the receiver. EOR constructs such as the social and economic exchange, psychological contract and perceived organisational support rely on the content of the exchange.

The perceived type of resource exchanged and the timeframe involved helps to differentiate between social exchange and economic exchange (Blau, 1964; Shore et al., 2006). An economic exchange involves specified economic resources (e.g., pay). A social exchange involves not only economic resources, but also unspecified resources (e.g., socio-emotional resources) (Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, Chen, & Tetrick, 2009). In a social exchange, the obligations of each party are unspecified and require a higher level of trust between the parties; the relationship in a social exchange also takes place over a longer time period than in a purely economic exchange (Blau, 1964). It starts with relatively small or simple transactions where the required level of trust is low and, over time, evolves into a relationship where unspecified socio-emotional resources are exchanged. A social exchange can also turn into an economic exchange triggered by a negative anchoring event (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) argue that a negative significant event may affect the trust of a party and, consequently, this party may measure and watch closely the exchanges with the other party such that the resulting relationship becomes closer to an economic exchange. Both economic and social exchange can co-exist in an EOR. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) developed a typology based on the type (economic or social) of transactions that occur in economic or social relationships, where the type of transaction can be consistent with the type of relationship (for example, economic transaction in an economic relationship or social transaction in a social relationship) or inconsistent (for example, economic transaction in a social relationship or social transaction in an economic relationship).

Related to social exchange, psychological contracts are 'individual beliefs in a reciprocal obligation between the individual and their organization' (Rousseau, 1995, p. 121) wherein these beliefs are explicit and implicit promises which reflect the employee's subjective view of the resources provided by the employer. Past literature has used the concept of the

psychological contract to explain employees' behaviour when they perceive the contract has been fulfilled (when the organisation provides what it promised) or broken (when the organisation does not provide what it promised) (Conway & Briner, 2009). A perceived breach in the psychological contract (when the organisation is perceived to deliver less than what it promised, or under fulfilment of contract) may lead to important work-related attitudes and behaviours among employees such as feelings of violation and mistrust and lower levels of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and in-role performance (Zhao et al., 2007). On the positive side, past empirical research has found support for the association of fulfilment of the psychological contract with objective employee performance (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012). It is important to note that the vast majority of past research has focused on under fulfilment when studying psychological contract breach. Research examining over fulfilment of the psychological contract has found that it may lead to positive individual consequences depending on the type of inducement provided and the level of discrepancy between what is promised and what is delivered (Lambert, Edwards, & Cable, 2003; Montes & Irving, 2008).

Similarly, the concept of perceived organisational support (POS) relies on the employee's view of the value of the resource exchanged. POS is defined as the employees' "beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501). The content of the exchange is influenced by the employee's treatment by the organisation. This treatment (such as job conditions or flexible work practices), in turn, helps to shape the employee's interpretation of the motives that underline such treatment. Empirical evidence strongly suggests that employees respond to higher levels of POS with higher organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, performance and lower turnover intention, absenteeism and tardiness (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Kurtessis et al., 2015).

In this paper, I pose the following questions: when a resource exchanged is perceived by one of the parties involved in the EOR as an economic one but the resource expected by the other party is a socio-emotional one, what impact would this have on the perception of the relationship? Would an inconsistent type of relationship (as defined by Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005) lead to a non-reciprocated form of relationship? If so, how would it happen? In order to understand the perception of resources, it is necessary to determine whose perspective we are considering.

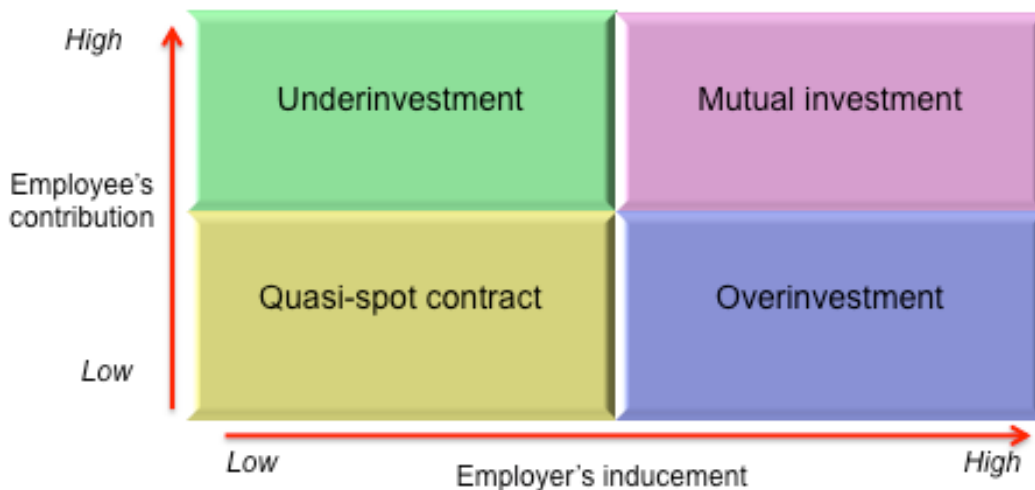
4.2.3. Participants in the exchange

4.2.3.1. Employer's perspective

The EOR has been studied largely from the point of view of one party, mostly the employee's (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007), using frameworks such as the POS and psychological contract. The work by Tsui et al. (1997) was one of the first to offer an empirical study of the EOR from the employer's point of view (where managers represent the organisation's views) based on the inducements-contributions model by March and Simon (1958). As mentioned earlier, this model, together with social exchange theory, have been the dominant theoretical frameworks in the EOR literature. According to the inducements-contributions model, an organisation provides inducements to its employees in exchange for employee contributions. The level of analysis is at the group or organisational level, rather than at the individual level.

Tsui and colleagues (1997) combine high and low levels of employer's inducements and employee's contributions to categorise four types of employment relationship (ER). The model by Tsui and colleagues is illustrated in Figure 10.

Figure 10: Employment relationship types by Tsui and colleagues (1997)



These four categories of ER differ in two dimensions: balance (between inducements provided by the employer and contributions expected from employees) and content of the exchange (social and economic exchange). A *mutual investment* type of ER is when both the levels of inducement and contribution are high and balanced. This is a balanced relationship, closer to the concept of social exchange. A *quasi-spot contract* is when both the levels of inducement and contribution are low. This is also a balanced relationship but narrower in scope from the previous one and closer to the concept of economic exchange. The

underinvestment type is when the level of inducement is low while the level of contribution is high. This is a case of unbalanced ER. Finally, *overinvestment* occurs when the level of inducement is high but the contribution is low. Employees' expected contribution is limited to their core tasks. This is another case of unbalanced EOR. In their empirical study, Tsui and colleagues (1997) show that employees working in an overinvestment or mutual investment environment exhibit higher levels of citizenship behaviour, performance on core tasks and affective commitment to their organisation than those working in underinvestment or quasi-spot-contract type of environments.

Further work by Tsui and Wu (2005) argues that the traditional mutual loyalty approach to the employment relationship (mutual investment ER) is more beneficial to organisations than the new employment relationships (closer to quasi-spot contract and underinvestment types of ERs). Additional empirical studies conducted in different countries (including China and Spain) have supported the idea that a mutual investment approach brings more benefits to both employees and organisations than the other three ER types. For example, studies found positive effects of mutual investment on firm performance (Wang, Tsui, Zhang, & Ma, 2003), trust among middle managers (Zhang, Tsui, Song, Li, & Jia, 2008), team creativity (Jia, Shaw, Tsui, & Park, 2014), and innovation (Bornay-Barrachina, Rosa-Navarro, López-Cabrales, & Valle-Cabrera, 2012). They also showed that variables such as social exchange and economic exchange mediate or moderate the impact of ER on outcomes. Song, Tsui, and Law (2008) found support for the mediating role of employees' perceptions of social exchange relationships in the link between the mutual investment approach and both on affective commitment and task performance. They also found that economic exchanges mediated the influence of the quasi-spot contract approach on commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

4.2.3.2. Psychological contract and employer's perspective

Regarding the parties of the exchange, even though concepts such as the psychological contract have been studied largely from the employee's point of view, some scholars have appealed for future research to include the employer's perspective. In their review of psychological contract literature, Taylor and Tekleab (2004) identify the inclusion of the employer's perspective into the psychological contract as a research priority in order to better understand the interactions between both parties. Likewise, in a more recent literature review, Conway and Briner (2009) also reference the absence of the employer's perspective in psychological contract research. They argue that the highly influential work by Rousseau (1989), in which she theorised that individuals can hold a psychological contract with an

organisation but not the other way around, has contributed to later research focusing mostly on the employee's perspective rather than the employer's.

Addressing this gap in the EOR research literature, several recent studies of psychological contracts have included both the employee's and the employer's perspective (Boxall, 2013; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Lee, Liu, Rousseau, Hui, & Chen, 2011). Based on the joint perceptions of university staff scientists and their research directors, Dabos and Rousseau (2004) examine mutuality (shared understanding of the content of the contract) and reciprocity (the reciprocal commitment of each party) in the psychological contract. In accordance with their hypotheses, Dabos and Rousseau found that both mutuality and reciprocity are positively associated with favourable outcomes such as productivity and career advancement and negatively associated with employees turnover intentions. Lee and colleagues (2011) focus on new hires to examine the effects of contract fulfilment from the perspective of both the employee and the employer on the employees' psychological contracts. They investigate employees' reports of organizational support and job rewards (employer's inducements) and supervisors' reports of job performance and extra-role citizenship behaviour of employees (individual contributions) in a longitudinal study. Their study sheds light on the development process of newcomers' psychological contracts of and provides support to the importance of contract fulfilment as a reference point in such a process. In his theoretical study, Boxall (2013) focuses on theory and research on mutuality in the employment relationship and proposes three tests (which assess the capability, commitment and contribution match between employee and employer) to evaluate the quality of employment relationships in practice.

Overall, these studies highlight the importance of shared understanding of the content and quality of the EOR between the employee and employer in order to achieve their respective interdependent objectives. However, studies taking into account the perspective of both parties of the EOR are still uncommon. Coyle-Shapiro and Shore (2007, p. 23) note that 'an important issue that has yet to be addressed is whether the content of the exchange (that is, inducements provided for contributions given) are recognised and similarly understood by the parties to the EOR.' Failure to reciprocate the other party's actions may lead to psychological contract violation and damage the quality of their relationship (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1995). The fact that the employee and employer may perceive differently what has been exchanged could raise the question of whether they also perceive their relationship differently. Being aware of this different perception of the quality of relationship may help to better understand the EOR and predict the behaviours of employee and employer in future exchanges. Addressing this research gap, the research questions of this paper concern the

perspective of employee and employer on both the content and the process (quality) of the EOR.

4.2.4. Content and process of the exchange

Research focusing on content studies the resources exchanged (value, amount, etc.) in the employment relationship, while research focusing on the process considers the overall mechanisms and quality of the relationship. Past empirical research has mostly been devoted to the content of the EOR (with concepts such as the psychological contract and POS) rather than the process (with concepts such as social and economic exchange) (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Shore et al., 2009). The ER model by Tsui and colleagues (1997) is a mixture of content and process because it includes the amount/type of the resources exchanged (levels of employee contribution and employer inducement) and the overall quality of the employee-organisation relationship (balanced or unbalanced). Given that the research questions of this paper are related to both the content and process of the EOR, I make use of the model proposed by Tsui and colleagues.

The principle of reciprocity explains the process in which an organisation grants a benefit (in the case of this paper, homeworking) to an employee and this action generates a sense of obligation on the part of the employee. At the same time, the employer would also have some expectations in terms of the contribution of the employee in exchange for the benefit provided. The resource offered by the organisation would not only be a benefit but also an incentive to encourage certain behaviours among its employees (for example, higher levels of performance or commitment). Since one of the difficulties in studying the social exchange process of the EOR is that it is a continuum of exchanges, where 'the output from a past transaction can be a resource exchanged in a future transaction' (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 889), it makes sense to focus on a specific event or exchange to examine the subsequent relationship. Granting homeworking to employees is the focal point of the present study.

As indicated earlier, I make use of the ER typology by Tsui and colleagues (1997) to address the research questions of the present paper. However, as Tsui and colleagues' ER model does not take into account the employee's perspective, I extend their model to include the employee's point of view. The resulting model can be seen as a combination of ER and psychological contract. Tsui and Wang (2002) theorise that, since the ER provides a view of the contributions that an organisation expects from their employees in exchange from the organisational inducements, the ER should be the main input into the psychological contract.

In a sense, both constructs complement each other. The extended model is described in Section 4.4.1.3.

4.3. Homeworking and the EOR

Homeworking, also known as teleworking, telecommuting or remote working, is a form of flexible working practice that organisations may offer to their employees. Homeworking is a work arrangement in which employees perform their job in an off-site location (typically at home) for at least some part of their work schedule on a regular basis, using telecommunications devices (e.g., computer, phone) to interact with others inside and outside of their organisation (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). Homeworking provides employees with the flexibility of not only space but also, potentially, of time (working from home may make a more flexible working schedule possible).

4.3.1. Homeworking perceived as organisational support

Employees perceive the provision of homeworking as organisational support if they interpret it as a benefit that the organisation has discretion to give. As Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986) show, an increase in perceived organisational support (POS) may intensify the employee's efforts to meet organisational goals. In their review of consequences of POS, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that favourable treatment received by employees from their employers is positively associated with POS, which in turn is associated with job satisfaction, reduced job strains, organisational commitment, turnover and increased job performance. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) with the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) offers an explanation for this improvement in employees' attitudes and behaviours: employees who have access to, for example, homeworking, may perceive it as organisational support and feel that they need to reciprocate, and they do so by showing more commitment to the organisation or increasing their organisational citizenship behaviour.

Scholars have based their studies in the social exchange theory to identify psychological mechanisms that link flexible working practices with both positive and negative consequences. Based on the premise that HR practices are important aspects of the psychological contract between employees and employer, Scandura and Lankau (1997) found in their empirical study that female employees who perceived that their organisations offered flexible work hours reported higher levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction than women who did not. They also found a positive association between the availability of flexible working hours and organisational commitment and job satisfaction

among employees with family responsibilities. Employees may feel that when organisations offer flexible working hours, it indicates caring about the well-being of their employees. Since psychological contracts '...refer to beliefs that individuals hold regarding promises made, accepted, and relied upon between themselves and another' (Rousseau & Wade—Benzoni, 1994, p. 466), employees may increase their organisational loyalty and job satisfaction as they feel they work for an employer that cares about them.

In contrast, social exchange theory can also support an explanation of how working from home may lead to negative individual outcomes. Working from home may result in work intensification, which refers to the increased effort that employees put into their jobs. Employees who perceive the provision of homeworking as a resource or benefit may feel that they need to work harder to reciprocate. Some research studies (Baruch & Nicholson, 1997; Kelliher & Anderson, 2009; Tietze & Musson, 2005) provide evidence that homeworkers may voluntarily work more intensely and longer hours than their office-based colleagues. This phenomenon may happen in the particular case of professional workers, who are more likely to exert discretion in the effort and hours they dedicate to work (Felstead, Jewson, Phizacklea, & Walters, 2002). Work intensification generally has a negative impact on employees and leads to a reduction in job satisfaction and worker well-being (Warr, 1987). In an empirical study with professionals from three UK organisations from the private sector (Kelliher & Anderson, 2009), both quantitative and qualitative evidence show that homeworkers exchanged this type of effort for the "gift" of flexibility.

Therefore, according to social exchange theory and taking the perspective of employees, an essential condition to explain homeworking's link to certain job outcomes (for example, higher job commitment) is that the provision of homeworking is perceived as a benefit by the employees and, consequently, as organisational support. However, what happens when this is not the case?

4.3.2. When homeworking is not perceived as a benefit

The proposition that employees may not perceive homeworking as organisational support can be substantiated with three theoretical concepts: the utility margin, a sense of entitlement, and the hedonistic treadmill.

Borrowing from the economists' diminishing utility margin concept, the perceived value of a benefit received by an employee over a series of transactions may become, after an adaptation period, a neutral point. This is related to the satiation-deprivation proposition, 'the more in the recent past a person has received a particular reward, the less valuable any

further unit of that reward becomes for him' (Homans, 1974 p. 29, cited in Emerson, 1976). Following this rationale, I question whether the employee's perceived value of homeworking's provision declines after having worked from home for a certain period of time.

The decline in the value of the provision of homeworking may also be related to a sense of entitlement. Sense of entitlement in the management literature has been the subject of several reviews (Fisk, 2010; Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002; Tomlinson, 2013), which highlight the importance of this concept in the employee-organisation relationship. If entitlement beliefs are defined as 'as an actor's beliefs regarding his/her rightful claim of privileges' (Tomlinson, 2013, p. 71), excessive entitlement beliefs are those that may exceed an objective observer's assessment (Tomlinson, 2013). Managing employees with an excessive sense of entitlement is seen as a contemporary organisational challenge that affects not only the U.S., but also Canada, India and European countries (Fisk, 2010; Tomlinson, 2013). Excessively entitled employees will behave in a way such that they maximise personal outcomes related to their personal input (Fisk, 2010). One could argue that, over time, employees may develop a sense of entitlement to homeworking. Lewis and Smithson (2001) examined employees' sense of entitlement to state and employer support for work-family reconciliation in several European countries, and found that in countries where state support is well established, this sense of entitlement is higher. One could argue that the focal organisation of the present study, where homeworking practice has a long history (over 15 years) and is taken up by almost half of its employees, provides strong support for homeworking and, therefore, helps to create a sense of entitlement amongst its employees.

The concept of the hedonistic treadmill (Diener, Lucas, & Scollon, 2006) can also explain the fact that employees, after an initial period of time, adapt to homeworking's benefits and therefore do not perceive them as a valuable resource. The hedonistic treadmill concept essentially states that individuals have a stable point of happiness or well-being. External factors may increase or decrease the level of happiness of an individual but this effect will be temporary. Individuals adapt eventually and recover their stable point of happiness. According to this concept, homeworking may bring benefits (such as flexibility of working hours to meet family demands) or drawbacks (higher self-imposed pressure to work longer hours or social isolation) that can affect employees' perception of happiness or well-being. However, after an adaptation period, this level of happiness or well-being goes back to their original pre-homeworking level.

Taking the perspective of both employees and employers in order to study the effect of homeworking on their relationship, I examine whether employers and employees perceive differently the value of homeworking (content of the EOR) and the type of relationship derived from it (quality of the EOR). If employees perceive the value of homeworking's provision as diminishing over time, they may interpret it more as an economic resource they are entitled to (such as paid holidays) and, consequently, they may not see the need to reciprocate with socio-emotional resources (such as organisational commitment). Their view of the relationship with their organisation may be closer to a quasi-spot contract. At the same time, if the organisation perceives granting homeworking to employees to be a discretionary benefit or incentive, they may expect higher employee contributions in terms of socio-economic resources than the ones they actually receive. As a result, the employer may perceive that the relationship with the employee is unbalanced, that the organisation is overinvesting in the employee. I discuss the method that I applied to address the research questions in next section.

4.4. Method

I adopted a mixed method approach in this empirical study, based on the pragmatic philosophy of enquiry (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Since the research questions of this study are of an exploratory nature, I applied qualitative analysis to primary interview data obtained in AdviceCo. The interview data allowed examination of the ways in which research participants perceived and experienced past employee-organisation exchanges and, thus, address the research questions regarding the perceptions of the content and quality of the EOR. I supported the qualitative results with quantitative analysis of survey data the research team collected from the same organisation and other internal organisational data (i.e., sick leave). I made use of both qualitative and quantitative methods in an attempt to increase the accuracy of the analysis (Golafshani, 2003).

4.4.1. Qualitative study

4.4.1.1. Sample

The qualitative data analysed are one-to-one semi-structured interviews with 28 employees and 12 managers (with at least 2 direct reports each) from AdviceCo. Interviews lasted one hour on average. This sample of 40 interviewees was selected for a representative mix of homeworking status (43% office based and 67% working regularly from home) and gender (46% female) in three different geographical locations. Most of the 12 managers managed both homeworkers and office-based workers. All the names of the interviewees included in

this paper are fictional in order to preserve the participants' anonymity.

4.4.1.2. Data collection

Before conducting these interviews, the research team interviewed several key managers and had access to relevant organisational data (such as the homeworking and flexible working policy and a past homeworking study) in order to get a better understanding of the homeworking reality and its context within the organisation. Consequently, we developed an interview guide to address topics of concern to the organisation but also of interest to individual members of the research team. My research questions were independently generated. The questions covered an agreed set of topics (such as job satisfaction, working patterns, etc.), with specific questions for employees who regularly worked from home and for managers. The interview guide is shown in Appendix II.

The interviews were semi-structured in order to allow for the discussion of topics raised by the participants that may not have been on our radar prior to data collection. The semi-structured nature of the interviews also allowed a certain degree of freedom for participants to explore the context and issues relating to perceptions of the relationship of employees with their organisation. The interviews took place at AdviceCo's offices during working time. With the permission of the interviewees, each interview was recorded and subsequently a transcript was produced in order to facilitate the analysis. Names have been changed to protect participants' anonymity.

4.4.1.3. Analysis

I adopted thematic coding analysis, which is a generic approach to conduct exploratory work with qualitative data (Robson, 2011), to analyse the transcripts of the interviews. Thematic coding involves identifying and labeling patterns in data that are relevant to a specific research question (Gibbs, 2008). I followed a template analysis technique (King, Cassell, & Symon, 2004) to create an initial template, prior to reading the transcripts. The main themes of the initial template were identified a priori to address the research questions: perceptions of employees and employer on both the content (homeworking and the exchanged resources as a result of granting homeworking) and the quality of the resulting EOR. The codes to capture the perceptions on the quality of the EOR were based on the typology developed by Tsui et al. (1997), which I adapted to include the employee's view. I applied hierarchical coding, a key feature of template analysis, to produce a template with a tree-like structure of themes and subthemes. During the interviews and later, as I read and re-read the transcripts, new themes and relationships between themes emerged, my interpretation of the findings

evolved and, accordingly, I modified and extended the initial template and grouping of the codes. A more detailed explanation on how the coding evolved is provided later in this section. This analysis was supported by the use of NVivo software.

As mentioned earlier, I extended the ER typology of Tsui and colleagues (1997), which only includes the point of view of the employer, to incorporate the view of the employee. The extended ER model is represented in Figure 11.

Figure 11: ER types from the perspective of employer and employees

		Employer's view			
		Under investment	Quasi-spot contract	Mutual investment	Over investment
Employee's view	Under investment	Symmetrical views			
	Quasi-spot contract		Symmetrical views		
	Mutual investment			Symmetrical views	
	Over investment				Symmetrical views

The typology depicted in Figure 11 represents different situations in which employees and their employer may agree or differ in their view of the quality of their relationship. The cells coloured grey indicate the situations when the employee and their organisation agree and are implicitly captured in the typology by Tsui and colleagues. The cells coloured purple represent the situations when employees feel that their relationship with their organisation is more positive (in terms of socio-emotional exchange: negative being underinvestment, positive being overinvestment) than what their employer perceives. Similarly, the cells coloured orange represent the situations when employees feel that their relationship with their organisation is less positive than what their employer perceives. Symmetrical views represent shared understanding (or mutuality) between employee and employer of the content and quality of the EOR. As indicated earlier, mutuality in employee-organisation relationships helps both parties in the relationship to achieve their respective goals and, thus, positively contribute to a stable relationship (Boxall, 2013; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Lee et al., 2011).

The perspective of the organisation is operationalised via the comments and views expressed by the managers who participated in the interviews. Assuming that the managers represent the organisation's views is common in the EOR literature, although it has its limitations: managers' interests are not necessarily those of their organisation in some circumstances (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). In some cases, managers expressed their

views as employees in the interviews conducted. Differentiating when a manager was expressing his or her views as a manager or as an employee was facilitated by the interview guide which had a separate set of questions for managers. Otherwise, the interviewee made it clear when he/she was speaking as an employee, for example, when a manager discussed his/her own experiences as an employee working from home.

I coded comments that were directly or indirectly related to usage of homeworking, since the scope of the study is homeworking as the content exchanged in the EOR. These comments included, for example, factors that were considered important by the participants in their experience of working from home such as moral and technical support by the organisation. Details on the themes and subthemes are shown in Table 13. Illustrative quotes for each subtheme is shown in Appendix IV.

Table 13: Themes of qualitative analysis

Theme	Theme description	Subtheme	Subtheme description
Perception of homeworking	Perception of organisation's provision of homeworking	Reasons for homeworking	Reasons for starting to work from home: taking care of children, office closure, moving home, disability, etc.
		Value for the employee	Benefits for the employee associated with homeworking, such as flexibility
		Employer's support	Organisational support around homeworking such as technology resources or moral support
Employee's contribution	Perception of expected and/or actual employee's contribution to the organisation in exchange for homeworking	Expected employee contribution	Expected employee contribution as a direct result of homeworking, such as flexibility or regular attendance to office meetings
		Perceived employee contribution	Perception of employee's contribution to the organisation as direct result of homeworking, such as longer working hours or reduced sick leave
EOR	Perception of the EOR	Quasi-spot contract	EOR is perceived as a balanced exchange of economic resources
		Mutual investment	EOR is perceived as a balanced exchange of socio-economic resources
		Under investment	EOR is perceived as a unbalanced exchange of socio-economic resources, where the employer's inducement is smaller than the employee's contribution
		Over investment	EOR is perceived as a unbalanced exchange of socio-economic resources, where the employer's inducement is greater than the employee's contribution

Following the research questions, I organised the themes into three main categories: 1) perception of homeworking, 2) employee contribution in return for homeworking (expected and perceived contribution), and 3) perception of the quality of the ER (underinvestment, overinvestment, mutual investment or quasi-spot contract). Under the first category, perception of homeworking, I initially had different codes to register benefits of homeworking for employees (e.g., flexibility to manage home/family and work commitments) and employer (e.g., reduction of financial costs) based on past research and the results of the quantitative survey. As I was conducting the interviews and reading the transcripts, I decided to expand the "perception of homeworking" theme to include other topics such as the situation that led to homeworking (whether it was chosen by the employee or imposed by the organisation), and the organisation's support around homeworking (e.g., moral support, technological resources). Knowing whether homeworking has been imposed by the employer rather than chosen by the employee is important as one could argue that, in the first case, employees may not value homeworking as an extra benefit for the employee but more as an advantageous practice for the employer. Employer's support around homeworking was also included as it could help to better understand employee's perception of the full support provided by the organisation. Technological resources were rated as specially important for homeworkers by most of the interviewees, for example. As a result, the final three subthemes to capture "perception of homeworking" include perceived benefits for employees, the situation that led to homeworking and employer's support. With regard to the employee's contribution, I coded the responses related to expectations of employees' contribution (e.g., flexibility towards the organisation, attending meetings, performance) in return for homeworking and the perceptions of employees' actual contribution. I included these two subthemes when I found during the interviews that there was a difference between the expectation and the perception of the actual employee's contribution in some cases. It is reasonable to argue that this mismatch may be important in explaining the resulting perception of the quality of the EOR.

In some cases, participants explicitly expressed a view on the EOR. In other cases, they did not. In the case of the latter, I inferred a view of the EOR where appropriate from participants' expressed perceptions of homeworking and resulting exchanges. For example, in the case of a homeworker who felt that homeworking benefited her organisation (e.g., cost savings from office space reduction) at a cost to herself (e.g., isolation, increased electricity bills), I inferred that this employee perceived EOR as an underinvestment on the part of the organisation.

Nine of the 40 interviewees were office-based employees who were neither homeworkers nor managers. The value of their perspective is to provide a third party outlook and

complement that of managers and homeworkers in their view of homeworking and of the exchange between homeworker and organisation.

4.4.2. Quantitative study

4.4.2.1. Sample

I supported the results from the qualitative analysis with primary quantitative data. As part of a broader study conducted by myself and two colleagues, an online survey was emailed to all employees and was completed by 514 employees (representing an approximately 55% response rate) of which 26% were homeworkers, 20% were flexible workers (working an average of two to three days out of the office in a typical week) and 56% were office-based workers. The survey instrument is shown in Appendix I.

4.4.2.2. Measures

In order to strengthen the validity of the analysis, I triangulated the results from the qualitative data with quantitative data from the employee survey mentioned in the previous section and a report on employees' annual sick leave data (2011) provided by AdviceCo. The survey was developed in conjunction with AdviceCo and attempted to capture issues that emerged in the preceding interviews. All measures are employees' self-report, unless stated otherwise; participants used a five-point Likert scale (1='Strongly disagree', 5='Strongly agree') to indicate their agreement with the specific statements that are part of each measure.

All participants in the survey were also asked the number of contractual hours per week they had and the number of actual hours they worked in a typical week. The number of extra hours was calculated by subtracting the number of contracted hours per week from the number of actual hours worked.

Survey respondents who were working from home regularly (at least 20% of their working time in a typical week) were asked to give the reasons for starting working from home and continuing working from home. Respondents chose from a list of nine reasons (developed by the research team) which included options such as "To balance my home/family and work commitments", "To reduce my financial costs (e.g., childcare, travel)" and "To avoid commuting". Multiple choices were allowed and participants who chose "Other" reasons could provide a free text response. The survey requested homeworkers participating in the survey to report their level of satisfaction with the support they received from their line manager and IT support (from 1 = "Very dissatisfied" to 5 = "Very satisfied") when they started working from home.

Participants who worked regularly from home were also asked to assess the importance of specific reasons to go to the office. This is also a measure developed by the research team. Homeworkers rated the importance (1 = "Very unimportant", 5 = "Very important") of six reasons to go the office such as "To attend a group meeting", "To meet my line manager" and "To find out more about what is going on at the organisation". In order to better understand the issues that may have prevented homeworkers from going in to an AdviceCo office to work, survey participants were asked to choose from a list of ten issues such as "Finding a space to sit" and "Accessing the necessary technology to do my work". As before, respondents could choose multiple issues and participants who selected "Other" issues could provide a free text response.

I supplemented the qualitative data on participants' perceptions of the EOR with two scales developed by Shore et al. (2006). The economic exchange scale included seven items and asked participants to indicate their agreement (from 1= 'Strongly disagree' to 5='Strongly agree') with statements such as "My relationship with AdviceCo is strictly an economic one - I work and they pay me". The social exchange scale included eight items and asked participants to indicate their agreement (from 1= "Strongly disagree" to 5="Strongly agree") with statements such as "AdviceCo has made a significant investment in me". Cronbach's alpha was .78 for economic exchange, and .87 for social exchange.

Since employees' organisational commitment emerged in the analysis of the qualitative data as an employee contribution, it was measured with a three-item scale from the 2011 Workplace Employment Relations Survey. Participants indicated their agreement (from 1= "Strongly disagree" to 5="Strongly agree") with statements such as "I share many of AdviceCo values." Cronbach's alpha for job satisfaction was .85.

4.4.2.3. Analysis

In order to identify differences for specific variables (such as economic exchange) between groups (such as homeworkers, flexible workers and office-based workers), I conducted multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Significant differences were reported when p-value was less than 0.05.

4.5. Results

Results from both qualitative and quantitative analysis revealed that there was a clear distinction in terms of attitudes and behaviours between employees working almost exclusively from home and those employees who worked more flexibly (working out of the

office an average of two or three days per week). These differences will be further explained later in this section. Therefore, for the purpose of this paper, I will refer as homeworkers to those employees who work almost entirely from home and as flexible workers to those employees who work out of the office an average of two to three days in a typical week.

Results from the interviews confirmed that employees and employer representatives (the 12 managers in the qualitative study) did have different views of homeworking, the resources exchanged as a direct result of homeworking, and the overall quality of the EOR in some cases. These different views explained job outcomes in terms of employees' attitudes and behaviours.

I found that the view of employees was fragmented, while the view of the managers was more uniform or consistent. The diversity of views among employees may be explained by differences in job roles, seniority, working patterns and circumstances that led employees to start homeworking in the first place.

In the next section, I will first discuss the results regarding the perception of homeworking as an employer's inducement (keeping the same terminology used by Tsui and colleagues (1997)), followed by findings with regard to perceptions of the employee's contribution and quality of the EOR. Results from the qualitative and quantitative analysis are integrated in these sections. Illustrative quotes for each theme are shown in Appendix IV.

4.5.1. Homeworking as an employer's inducement

In order to understand if and how homeworking is perceived as an employer's inducement (i.e., a benefit), I first analysed the reasons employees gave for starting working from home and the circumstances surrounding that decision. Second, I examined the potential value of homeworking to employees. Third, I considered the support provided by the organisation.

4.5.1.1. Reasons to start working from home

One could argue that the reasons that employees might have had to start working from home would likely have an impact on their perception of homeworking as an employer's inducement. For example, if the reason was that their office closed, employees may feel less inclined to consider working from home as an employer's inducement. Meeting family demands and achieving a good work-life balance were the most common reasons given by the homeworkers and flexible workers interviewed for requesting homeworking. However, two of them mentioned that they started working from home because there was not an office

near their home, either because their organisation closed offices or they moved to another area or both:

"We all moved to [name of geographical area] and that closed 18 months later because of budgetary constraints and we were all made to be home workers"

- Samuel, homeworker, 23 years of organisational tenure.

The data from the quantitative survey confirmed that the most common reason for employees to choose homeworking was to balance their home/family and work commitments (55% of respondents). This reason was followed closely by avoiding commuting (45% of respondents). Directly related to these two reasons, 22% of the survey participants reported that they started working from home to reduce financial costs (travel, childcare). The same percentage of the survey participants, 22%, mentioned that having a job that was better suited to homeworking was a reason to start working from home. A smaller proportion of the respondents, 6%, stated that they started homeworking because their managers wanted them to and 12% because their office closed down. Even if employees were forced to work from home, they acknowledged the benefits of the practice.

4.5.1.2. Benefits for employees

Consistent with previous research, employees saw that the value of homeworking was mostly saving the time and financial expense of commuting to the office, and having the flexibility to meet private life needs or demands.

"I wanted a job where I could be around for the children and that was reasonably flexible...[...] Other benefits, well the obvious thing about travel and you save time and you can get more done." - Ewan, homeworker, 16 years of organisational tenure.

Survey participants confirmed that the main value of homeworking continued to be to balance work and private life demands (66% of respondents) and avoiding commuting (59%). Even if their personal circumstances had changed since beginning the homeworking arrangement (for example, children were older and did not require the same level of childcare), employees still valued the flexibility and savings in time and travel expenses that homeworking provided.

Most of the employees working regularly from home reported being able to concentrate better while working in the quiet environment of their home. This is consistent with previous

empirical research has also shown that employees may be more productive in an environment without the distractions of an office (Baruch, 2000).

"I think you are more focused when you are working from home because you don't have the same distractions as you do in the office. It's easier to concentrate." - Domina, homeworker, 22 years of organisational tenure.

Another benefit that some employees found in homeworking was access to a preferred job role or simply being able to keep their jobs after moving to another location without a local office nearby. This also suggests that there is a perception that homeworking benefits the employee as much if not more than the organisation. In fact, there were some homeworkers who perceived homeworking benefited their employer more than themselves and therefore homeworking was not understood as an employer's investment in them. On the contrary, they perceived homeworking primarily as an employee's contribution to the organisation. I will discuss this further when reviewing the findings on employees' perception of the EOR.

From the point of view of the organisation (represented by managers), homeworking was seen mainly as an investment in the employees, bringing them the benefit of flexibility. They also saw homeworking as a (mainly financial) benefit to the organisation, "a convenient and cheap option" (Fay, manager and flexible worker, 20 years of organisational tenure) for the organisation.

Office-based co-workers perceived that homeworking brought benefits primarily to the employees. Saving in commuting time and having the flexibility to meet domestic commitments were some of the benefits that office-based co-workers mentioned. Some of these office-based workers also acknowledged that, thanks to homeworking, the organisation may have less crowded offices, but this was understood more as a side benefit. Other office-based workers thought that even though homeworking may certainly be beneficial to those employees who use it, "... there are lots of downsides to the organisation and the other people that work in the office." (Joseph, office-based worker, 22 years of organisational tenure).

4.5.1.3. Organisational support

In order to fully appreciate the employer's contribution with regard to homeworking, I analysed the interviewees' perception of the physical (e.g., dedicated phone line, laptop) and psychological (e.g., training) support provided.

In terms of physical support, there was a wide variety of opinions among the interviewees regarding the suitability of technology resources provided by the organisation for homeworking. While some participants thought the resources were fine to do their jobs remotely, other participants thought they were poor. As technology plays an essential role in enabling employees to do their job remotely and can significantly contribute to employees' job satisfaction (Golden, 2006; Mann et al., 2000), technology shortcomings in terms of equipment or functioning felt very important to employees. As Corbin, a homeworker with 16 years of organisational tenure, explained "When you are at home you are at the mercy of the technology."

Some employees criticised the level of technology support provided by the organisation when first starting homeworking. For example, Ewan, a homeworker with 16 years of organisational tenure, mentioned that "Initially the hassle of getting the technology sorted out which was a real pain and it was far more complicated than it should have been getting the phone and computer sorted out and support for that.". However, most employees reported in the interviews that the organisation provided the necessary equipment to do their jobs from home. They also recognised that technology has evolved in the last few years and the provision of technology resources has improved. At the same time, other types of support, such as psychological support to employees to adapt to working from home, were mostly found to be absent. "So far as any kind of training or discussion we didn't get any", recalled Fotis, homeworker, 16 years of organisational tenure. While that did not necessarily prove to be a problem according to some employees, managers seemed to be more critical of the lack of organisational support for homeworkers and considered this to be one area for future improvement. For example, Duke, a manager and flexible worker with 12 years of organisational tenure suggested that the organisation "could put some more structured arrangements in place to ensure that people are supported rather than just hoping for the best." Fay, a manager and flexible worker with 20 years of organisational tenure, also thought that "there could be more [emotional support] and maybe that is what this is partly about, a better understanding of the emotional cost of homeworking and more support and awareness raising among managers and amongst staff of the issues with homeworking..."

The majority of survey participants did report that they were satisfied with the IT and managerial support that they received when they began working from home. Eighty two per cent of respondents reported being satisfied or very satisfied with the support they received from their line managers and 77% of respondents reported being satisfied or very satisfied with the IT support. Results are included in Table 14 and Table 15.

Table 14: From responses to "How satisfied were you with the support that you received from your line manager when you began working from home?"

	Number of responses	Per cent
Very dissatisfied	3	1%
Dissatisfied	0	0%
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	33	16%
Satisfied	64	31%
Very satisfied	106	51%

N = 206

Table 15: From responses to "How satisfied were you with the IT support that you received when you began working from home?"

	Number of responses	Per cent
Very dissatisfied	6	3%
Dissatisfied	12	5%
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	34	15%
Satisfied	94	42%
Very satisfied	79	35%

N=225

4.5.2. Employee's contribution

The previous section examined how employees and managers viewed homeworking as an employer's inducement. In order to have a full view of how the content of the exchange (homeworking) is perceived, the employee's contribution needs to be considered. This section examines the expected and perceived employee's contribution.

4.5.2.1. Attending meetings at the office

Most of the interviewees indicated that attending team meetings at the office (usually a minimum of once a month) was expected by the organisation from those working at home. Employees acknowledged the organisational requirement to go to these meetings. Homeworking employees felt that attending meetings at the office is expected of them and demanded for their current job and, almost certainly, for promotion. When asked about the importance of several reasons for going to the office, 80% of the online survey respondents who worked from home at least 20% of their working time thought it important or very important to go to the office for a team meeting and 75% considered it important or very

important to go to the office to gain and/or share work-related information with colleagues.
Results are shown in Table 16.

Table 16: From responses to "Please indicate how important each of the following reasons are in your decisions to come in the office"

	To attend a [internal group] meeting		To meet with my line manager		To meet with clients		To catch up socially with AdviceCo colleagues		To find out more about what is going on at the organisation		To gain / share work-related information with colleagues	
	Number of responses	Per cent	Number of responses	Per cent	Number of responses	Per cent	Number of responses	Per cent	Number of responses	Per cent	Number of responses	Per cent
Very unimportant	3	1%	5	2%	19	8%	9	4%	6	3%	2	1%
Unimportant	10	4%	14	6%	17	8%	19	8%	20	9%	10	4%
Neither important nor unimportant	33	15%	48	21%	59	26%	46	20%	55	24%	44	20%
Important	124	55%	103	46%	78	35%	107	48%	105	47%	101	45%
Very important	55	24%	55	24%	52	23%	44	20%	39	17%	68	30%

N = 225

However, that did not mean that homeworkers did not enjoy the days spent at the office. Sixty per cent of the homeworking employees who participated in the online survey considered it important or very important to go to the office to catch up socially with AdviceCo colleagues. This was reflected in the interviews.

"I do like coming in the office. I feel it is important. I come in for meetings such as today, I have a team meeting unless I am on leave or I am physically unable to come in and sometimes I just come in with files to say hi to people."

- Rose, homeworker, 8 years of organisational tenure.

In some cases, homeworkers were not willing or able to go to the office for various reasons such as high workload, the need to deal with different equipment at the office, lack of space at the office, cost of travel to the office or simply being used to a daily routine at home. Fotis, a homeworker with 16 years of organisational tenure explained that "once you become a homeworker sometimes you resent having to come in to the office because you are used to your daily routine at home more or less now." Some homeworkers also realised that regularly missing meetings may become a problem.

Survey participants who worked mostly from home reported the issues that might have prevented them from going to the office to work. For more than two thirds of the respondents, not being as productive at the office as they are at home and the commuting time were issues that deterred them from working at the office. Responses are shown in Table 17.

Table 17: Issues that may deter homeworkers from going to the office to work

Issue	Number of responses	Per cent
I can't get as much work done from an AdviceCo office as I do when I work from home	104	76%
Time commuting	96	71%
Noise / distractions	70	51%
Cost of travelling	61	45%
Finding a space to sit	60	44%
Accessing the necessary technology to do my work in the office	48	35%
Rearranging my non-work commitments (e.g. to meet household/family responsibilities)	47	35%
Accessing the information I need to do my job	23	17%
Other	12	9%

N=136

Validating the view of the homeworkers, managers reported that attending monthly meetings at the office is the minimum requirement for homeworkers. However, the expected employee contribution was not met in practice in some cases. The managers interviewed reported that some of the homeworkers complained, arrived late, or simply did not attend the meetings at the office. Ralf, a manager and flexible worker with 6 years of organisational tenure, recounted that "the requirement [to come into the office] for home based advisors, effectively, is half a day a month and we find that some of them complain about that." Duke, a manager and flexible worker with 12 years of organisational tenure, thought it was "reasonable to expect people to come in some times" but in some cases "it seems like a bridge too far asking staff to come in to a meeting once a month." Fay, a manager and flexible worker with 20 years of organisational tenure, found very irritating when homeworkers did not get in time for meetings at the office. She explained that although the organisation do not have meetings early in the morning in order to make an allowance for employees who work from home, the team still "have to wait until half past ten" to start. The result is that, in some cases, some teams do not get together very often. George, a manager and flexible worker with 5 years of organisational tenure, stated that "a real challenge I think with a mobile workforce is actually getting people together. I think the only time we ever manage it is the Christmas lunch."

Managers cited a list of potential negative consequences derived from the lack of regular presence of homeworkers at the office. Among them, low employee engagement with the organisation to meet new job demands, decreased citizenship behaviour, and knowledge transfer issues were reported as being significant. Ralf, a manager and flexible worker with 6 years of organisational tenure, felt that homeworkers that rarely go the office "are missing the point that they need to stay engaged with the organisation." Wendall, a manager and flexible worker with 13 years of organisational tenure, reported that the management team is concerned that "when a flexible person is based more at home they become set and comfortable with doing the job role and managing it in their own way whereas the organisational demands can change and evolve and it is harder to change the flexible workers to do what you think the new job role requires." Duke, a manager and flexible worker with 12 years of organisational tenure, did not believe that "sending people to work from home encourages that knowledge transfer because the physical, seeing what happens in that job role and how people go about things and the opportunity to go with them and listen in and everything else". He also thought that "one of the biggest impacts of working at home, flexible working is that lack of understanding of what goes on in the other parts of the business within the local office."

Related to employees' office attendance or wider contribution, flexibility was another expected employee contribution in exchange for homeworking.

4.5.2.2. Flexibility

Employees recognised that flexibility needed to go both ways with their organisation. In the interviews, employees working regularly from home were asked how willing they were to change personal plans to deal with work issues. Responses varied. While some employees reported being disposed to doing so, other employees working mostly from home were not as prepared to reciprocate their organisation's flexibility. They indicated that the organisation may expect more flexibility from them than from the office workers, but these increased expectations may not be justified. Corbin, a homeworker with 16 years of organisational tenure, mentioned that homeworkers have other commitments, like everyone else. When asked to continue working past contracted hours to deal with a matter that is urgent, he is "more inclined to say to people, I'm sorry I am not staying."

Flexibility was one of the key aspects where managers believed the contribution of some homeworkers did not meet the organisation's expectations. George, a manager and flexible worker with 5 years of organisational tenure, stated that there was a "constant demanding of flexible working arrangements for them [homeworkers] but never being flexible with the organisation or constant, especially childcare cover to be funded and requests that I thought were not really appropriate." Some of the managers made a clear distinction between homeworkers and flexible workers with regard to flexibility. While homeworkers may be not be perceived as being flexible with the organisation, flexible workers were perceived as being more adaptable to respond to the organisation's needs. For instance, Duke, a manager and flexible worker with 12 years of organisational tenure, thought that flexible workers "operate a very fair, flexible type of arrangement. I think there is an expectation that you will deal with things but I think there is an equal or equivalent amount of flexibility in terms of if you need to take a bit of time back. I think it is very fair the way that we run it, certainly in my experience."

Apart from attending office meetings from time to time and using their schedule flexibility to meet job demands or contribute more broadly to the organisation, past research suggests that homeworking employees may feel they need to work longer hours in exchange for the privilege of being allowed to work from home (Kelliher & Anderson, 2009). I will discuss this subject in the next section.

4.5.2.3. Working longer hours

Past research has shown that homeworkers may work longer hours than office based workers, in effect exchanging effort for flexibility (Kelliher & Anderson, 2009). However, the present qualitative study found that working longer hours was not expected from the employees by the organisation. Participants (employees and managers) reported having a higher workload compared to previous years, but they unanimously agreed that the increased workload was not due to working from home or flexibly. Duke, a manager and flexible worker with 12 years of organisational tenure, explained that AdviceCo's employees are "working with ever decreasing resources overall, so trying to do more for less." As a result, "it is probably more about that than the extra demands that any flexible arrangement places on you."

Some of the interviewed homeworkers mentioned they felt the need to work harder. However, this need to work harder was not because they felt they had to reciprocate the organisation's "gift" of homeworking with longer hours, as the norm of reciprocity in social exchange theory suggests. This need had other sources, such as guilt or proving their worth. Rose, a homeworker with 8 years of organisational tenure, indicated that homeworkers felt that they needed to prove their worth at the time of starting homeworking "because you are not seen I think we make a little bit more effort and perhaps do put in a little bit more in to the job in terms of the hours that we work."

Past research (Flynn & Schaumberg, 2012) has linked a sense of guilt to increased level of work effort and affective organisational commitment. Flynn and Schaumberg (2012) suggest that a dispositional tendency to feel guilt motivates employees to increase their work effort and that, in turn, increases their level of affective commitment towards their organisation. However, some employees indicated that, after an adjustment period of working from home, the need they felt to work harder diminished:

"So I think you relax a little bit after you've been a homeworker a while...When you come in to the office you might be standing at the tea point chatting about football or something. You would think, ah if I was doing this at home I'd feel really guilty. So I think you get used to it and you relax a bit." - Ewan, homeworker, 16 years of organisational tenure.

Proximity of the work equipment and the time saved from not commuting did lead some homeworkers to actually work longer hours. Mycroft, a homeworker with 20 years of organisational tenure, noted that "... you tend to spend longer just doing [AdviceCo] work

because it is there and you've got the equipment in your home. So you tend to not just finish at five or whatever when the office closes."

Results from multivariate analysis of variance of survey data indicated that employees working regularly from home (homeworkers and flexible workers) reported working significantly longer hours than office-based workers in a typical week. Results are shown in Table 18.

Table 18: Number of reported extra working hours in a typical week by working pattern

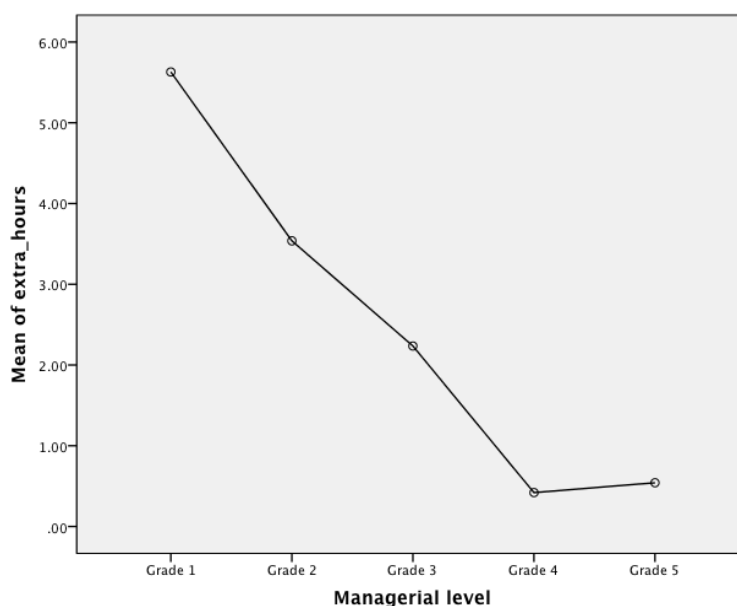
(I) Groups by working pattern	N	Mean	S.D	(J) Groups by working pattern	Mean Difference (I-J)
Homeworkers	136	2.2	2.7	Flexible workers	-1.16915*
				Office-based workers	0.82119*
Flexible workers	100	3.4	4.4	Homeworkers	1.16915*
				Office-based workers	1.99034*
Office-based workers	271	1.4	3.0	Homeworkers	-0.82119*
				Flexible workers	-1.99034*

Note. N=507.

* $p < .05$.

Nevertheless, these results hide differences in managerial level. I found that employees in more senior levels reported working longer hours than the less senior employees. Results are illustrated in Figure 12.

Figure 12: Reported extra working hours in a typical week by managerial level.



N=507 (27 employees in Grade 1, 83 employees in Grade 2, 219 employees in Grade 3, 148 employees in Grade 4, 30 employees in Grade 5)

This may explain the differences in reported working longer hours between the three groups of employees by working pattern. Flexible workers tend to have a higher managerial position than homeworkers and, at the same time, homeworkers tend to have a higher managerial position than office-based workers. In fact, when considering the different groups of employees within the same managerial level (for example, Grade 3), there are not significant differences among the groups in terms of reported extra working hours. Results are shown in Table 19.

Table 19: Number of extra working hours by working pattern for Grade 3 employees

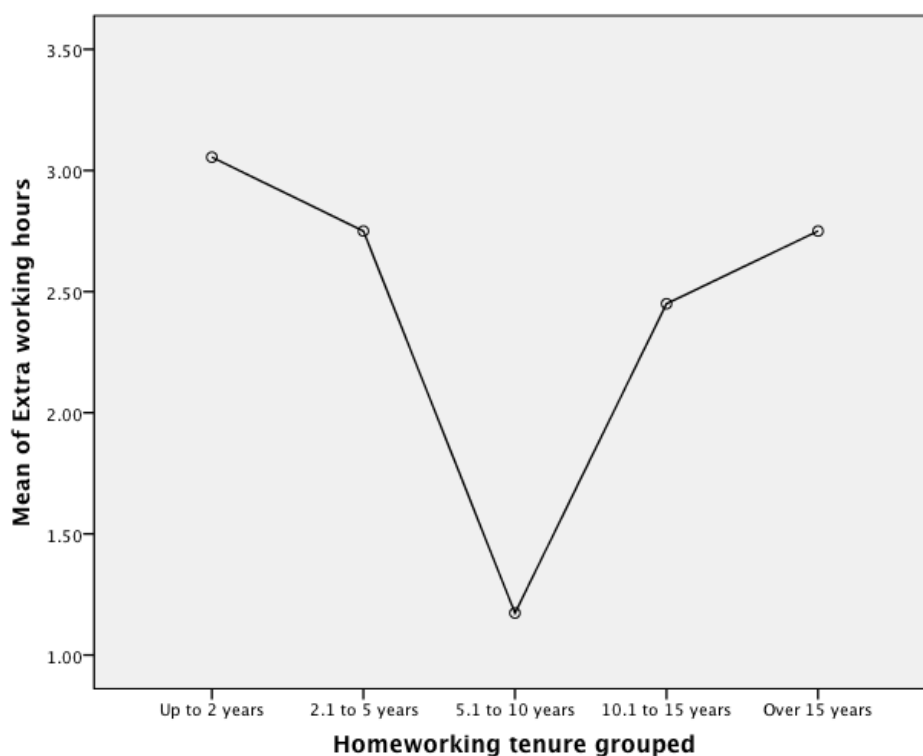
(I) Groups by working pattern	Mean	S. D.	(J) Groups by working pattern	Mean Difference (I-J)
Homeworkers (N=116)	2.40	2.72	Flexible workers	0.43
			Office-based workers	0.31
Flexible workers (N=29)	1.97	4.89	Homeworkers	-0.43
			Office-based workers	-0.12
Office-based workers (N=74)	2.09	2.88	Homeworkers	-0.31
			Flexible workers	0.12

N=219

This is not consistent with previous empirical research on homeworking that showed employees working harder for the benefit of working flexibly (Kelliher & Anderson, 2009) and it may support the idea that when the homeworking practice is strongly embedded in an organisation, homeworkers may not feel the need to work harder to reciprocate the benefit of working from home; homeworking is seen as an entitlement rather than a privilege.

I also analysed the online survey data to investigate whether employees working from home reported working fewer extra hours after an adjustment period. Since the data available is cross-sectional, I grouped employees by the years spent homeworking. Considering Grade 3 employees who work mainly from home, the results showed that homeworkers who have been working from home for up to two years reported working significantly longer extra hours (an average of 3.1 hours) than those who have been working from home between five to ten years (an average of 1.2 hours). When comparing homeworkers who have been working from home for up to two years with office-based workers, homeworkers report working significantly more extra hours than most of the office based workers. Consequently, results seem to suggest that homeworkers work longer hours when they start working from home and reduce the number of extra working hours by the time they reach ten years of working from home, unless they are in a higher managerial grade. The number of extra working hours for Grade 3 homeworkers by years spent homeworking is represented in Figure 13.

Figure 13: Number of extra working hours for Grade 3 homeworkers by years spent homeworking



N=136

This may support the view that homeworkers do not work longer hours than the office based workers after an adjustment period. This also suggests that there is a period of 'paying the employer back' for homeworking before it begins to seem like an entitlement and not a privilege. I did not find this decline in working hours when analysing the data for flexible workers and office-based workers. Curiously, homeworkers with over ten homeworking years reported working significantly longer extra hours than those with five to ten homeworking years. In other words, homeworkers reported that their extra working hours increased after ten years of working from home. Non-work factors (e.g., higher demands from personal life) may help to explain the lower number of extra working hours in the five to ten homeworking years period.

At the same time, some interviewed homeworkers and flexible workers reported not taking leave when feeling sick sometimes. Annabelle, a manager and office-based worker with 4 years of organisational tenure, offered an explanation: "I think that is mainly because they [homeworkers] can carry on putting in a little bit of work here, there and everywhere as opposed to office based workers who sometimes can't face the thought of coming in to the office but have to carry on in or report themselves sick." Sick leave data from the organisation (collected in 2011) corroborated the fact that those working from home had a lower incidence of both short and long term sick leave than their co-workers in the year prior

to the research: 5% of employees working regularly from home took long term sick leave compared to 9% of office based employees. Similarly, 25% of employees working regularly from home took short term sick leave compared to 42% of office based employees.

4.5.3. The employee-organisation relationship

Having analysed the perspectives of employees and the organisation on their respective contribution regarding homeworking, their views of the employee-organisation relationship become more apparent. Based on the categorisation of the ER by Tsui and colleagues (1997), I classified the responses of the interviewees into four types: a) quasi-spot contract (low employer's inducement and low employee contribution), b) underinvestment (low employer's contribution and high employee contribution), c) mutual investment (high employer's contribution and high employee contribution), and d) overinvestment (high employer's contribution and low employee contribution). Table 20 provides a summary of the responses for each category.

Table 20: Views of the employee-organisation relationship

Underinvestment	Mutual investment
<p>About one third of the interviewed homeworkers felt that AdviceCo took an underinvestment approach with respect to homeworking, where the organisation's investment in its employees was inferior to the employee's contribution.</p> <p>Rose, homeworker with 8 years of organisational tenure, said: "I am sure that AdviceCo actually gets a pretty good deal out of me to be honest with you. I do claw some of it back but I suspect that AdviceCo is probably the winner."</p>	<p>Approximately 40% of the interviewees (including two thirds of homeworkers) seemed to indicate that the type of EOR derived from homeworking was a mutual investment. They believed the relationship was fair, mostly in terms of flexibility.</p> <p>However, managers mainly referred to flexible workers (not homeworkers) when describing a reciprocated relationship.</p>
Quasi-spot contract	Overinvestment
<p>Just one of the interviewed homeworkers described their relationship with their organisation as one in which both parties benefit in narrow terms, similar to a quasi-spot contract: "So it kinda works both ways I think to some extent and it probably suits AdviceCo in as much as they can reduce their costs and accommodation and for other people, some employees, it is helpful to them if they've got caring responsibilities." (Mycroft, homeworker, 20 years of organisational tenure).</p>	<p>None of the homeworkers or flexible workers reported feeling that the organisation overinvested in them. In contrast, some managers and office-based workers expressed their view that even though the organisation was generous in its homeworking provision, which brought significant benefits to employees who used it, some homeworkers (not flexible workers) did not contribute accordingly to the organisation.</p>

Results from the analysis of the interviews revealed that, with one exception, interviewees described an EOR where some level of social resources were exchanged. I will focus on the instances where the EOR is perceived as unbalanced (i.e., underinvestment and overinvestment) as one of the objectives of this study is to explore how and why these types of relationships may have occurred.

Some of the homeworkers interviewed felt that their contribution to the organisation was greater than the organisation's investment in them (underinvestment). The reasons were varied, but mainly the homeworkers felt that they worked harder than office-based workers and saved the organisation financial costs. Samuel, a homeworker with 23 years of organisational tenure, explained that as AdviceCo saves in office space costs and do not contribute towards the utility bills of the homeworkers, "the organisation gains financially hand over fist and I don't think the contribution and the effort that homeworkers make is fully appreciated."

It is reasonable to expect that if homeworking is perceived by employees as a right (rather than a benefit), it is more likely that employees see their relationship with their employer with regard homeworking as an underinvestment, that is, where they provide greater social resources than their employer. In most cases, employees seemed to indicate that homeworking was a practice accepted and supported (sometimes even encouraged) by the organisation. As Lisa, a homeworker with 12 years of organisational tenure, noted: "...it was so standard that people did do homeworking so once they knew you were interested you just did it. [...] It was almost like a given. I would have been really shocked if they had not agreed [to employee's request for homeworking]." This employee perspective of homeworking as an accepted and/or encouraged practice, plus the significant proportion (over 40%) of employees making use of such a practice in the organisation, substantiate the argument that homeworking may not be perceived by some employees as an increased organisational support: it may be perceived more as an entitlement.

Regarding overinvestment, although none of the homeworkers considered that the organisation overinvested in them, some managers and office-based workers viewed the organisation's provision of homeworking as a greater as an investment in the homeworkers than the contribution by homeworkers. In an overinvestment situation, the individual's benefits may surpass the employer's benefits. Ralf, a manager and flexible worker with 5 years of organisational tenure, expressed this idea with these words: "I think there is a risk

and I think AdviceCo is vulnerable to this where we become so flexible that the person's individual personal interests outweigh the interests of the organisation professionally."

The perception of an overinvestment situation is explained by managers' view that while homeworking allowed great flexibility to employees to meet their personal demands and preferences, some homeworkers did not reciprocate in terms of job attitudes and behaviour: they were reluctant to attend meetings at the office and not willing to reciprocate with flexibility, organisational citizenship to meet organisational demands, or motivation to progress in their careers. Ralf, a manager and flexible worker with 5 years of organisational tenure, noted that "a number of our staff think that the organisation should always accommodate to their [homeworkers'] needs and seem unwilling to show a reciprocal flexibility". Naomi, a manager and flexible worker with 16 years of organisational tenure, stressed the unbalance in the EOR: "I think the balance of getting the work-life balance right has switched more to home than work rather than being in balance with each other and coming in to the office is very clearly a nuisance [for homeworkers]". Duke, a manager and flexible worker with 12 years of organisational tenure, compared working from home to being in a "fur line rut", depriving people from being "motivated to push and do a bit more or do something new or something extra particularly if they build their domestic and child care and other arrangements around the working pattern that working flexibly facilitates."

Some managers were of the view that a group of homeworkers not only did not contribute as expected by the organisation, but also made unreasonable demands of the organisation, such as covering childcare costs to attend meetings. The view that homeworking may be perceived as a "right" and not as a benefit was supported by some managers in the organisation. George, a manager and flexible worker with 5 years of organisational tenure, associated the lack of reciprocity exhibited by some employees with a culture of entitlement: "This constant demanding of flexible working arrangements for them [employees] but never being flexible with the organisation ... So there is a culture of entitlement that has crept in which is common in the public sector..."

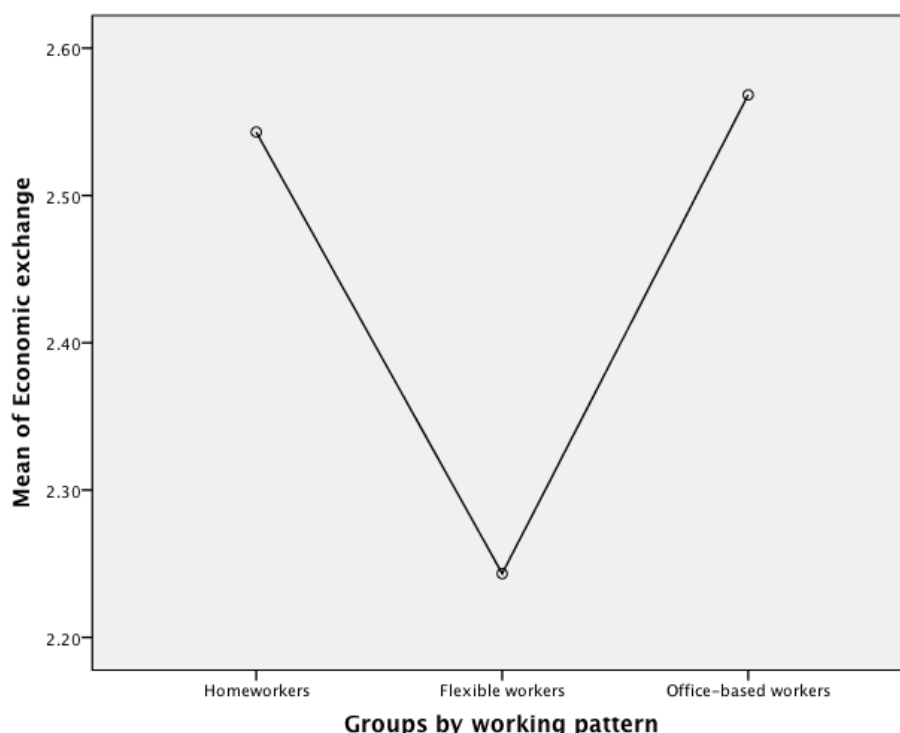
However, as one manager explained, an overinvestment type of relationship may be preferred to an underinvestment one. Given that a balanced EOR is difficult to achieve, a relationship that works in favour of the employee is more humane or compassionate. This may indicate a deliberate behaviour of non-intervention on the part of the organisation:

"It's a difficult balance to strike... I think it is about reasonable compromise and I think sometimes the pendulum in AdviceCo swings too far the other way

although I accept there are lots of employers where the pendulum will swing totally the opposite way where your personal needs are of absolutely no interest whatsoever to an employer. I would never, ever want AdviceCo to be like that. In fact I never, ever want to work for anyone like that because that is just as unreasonable." - Ralf, manager and flexible worker, 5 years of organisational tenure.

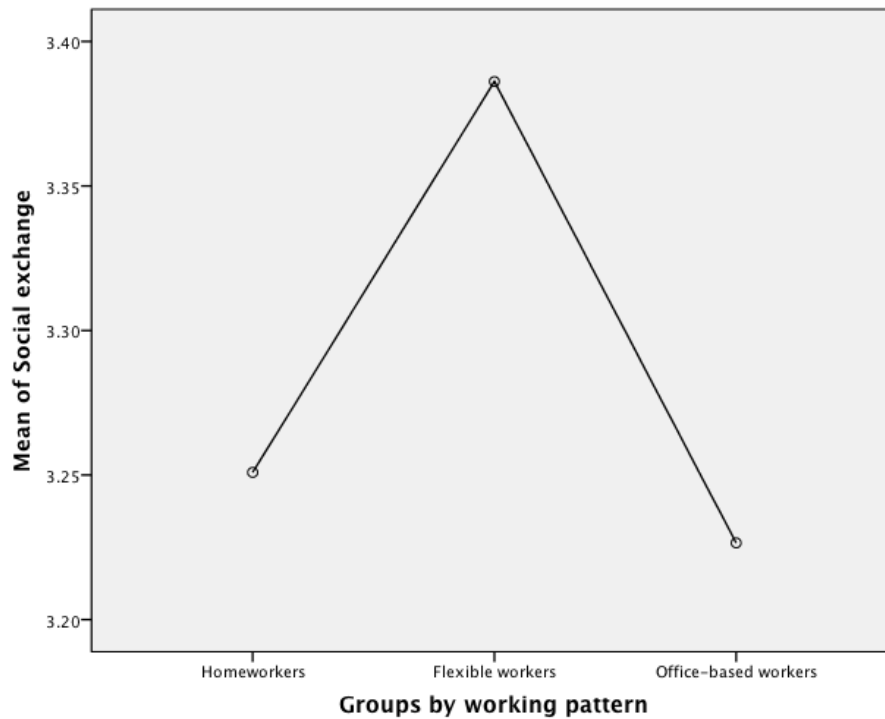
Using the quantitative survey data, I analysed the type of relationship that employees reported having with their organisation from a social and economic perspective. Even though results showed that most of the employees rated positively their relationship with the organisation, there were significant differences when the working patterns of the employees were taken into account. Results suggested that homeworkers and office-based workers had a less positive view of their relationship with the organisation than flexible workers. For instance, homeworkers were more likely to report that their relationship with their organisation was strictly an economic or impersonal one, and that they had little emotional involvement at work. Results are illustrated in Figures 14 and 15.

Figure 14: Economic exchange by working pattern



N=514 (136 Homeworkers, 101 Flexible workers, 277 Office-based workers)

Figure 15: Social exchange by working pattern



N=514 (136 Homeworkers, 101 Flexible workers, 277 Office-based workers)

This suggests that social exchange and economic exchange are negatively related, which is consistent with past empirical research (Shore et al., 2006). The explanation for the difference in employees' perceptions about the nature of their exchange with the organisation may be related to the level of POS. As Shore and colleagues found in their study (2006), POS was positively associated with social exchange and negatively related to economic exchange. Perhaps homeworkers and office-based workers perceive low employer commitment.

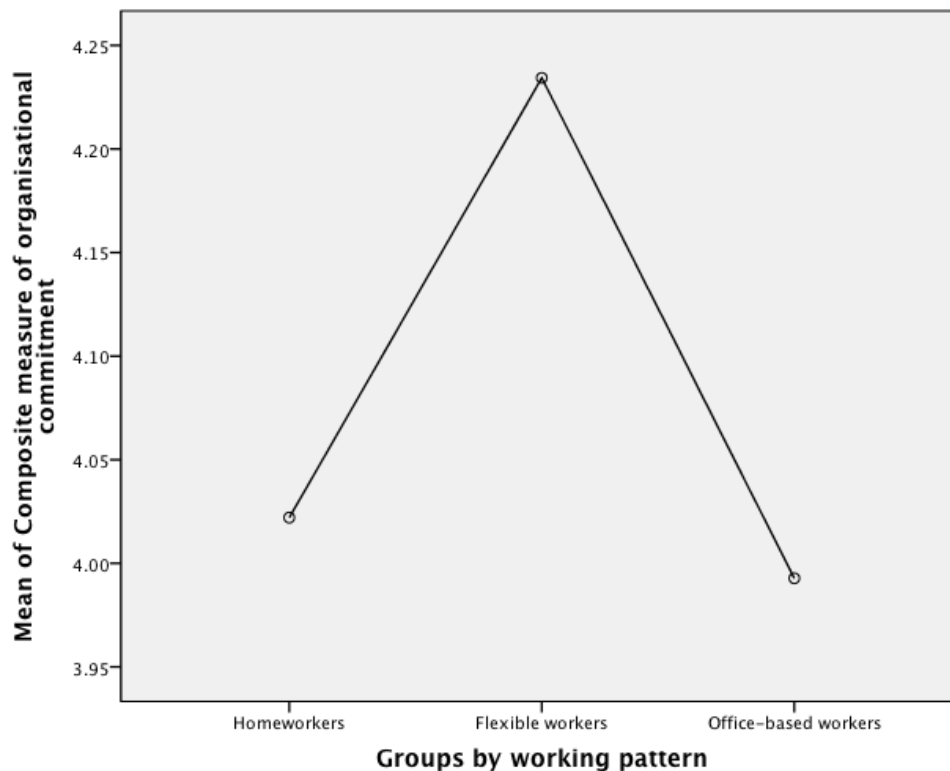
The point that flexible workers reported a more positive relationship with the organisation may be related to the fact that there are more managers and senior employees in the flexible worker group. The survey results confirmed that line managers reported a more positive relationship with AdviceCo. Consequently, I compared employees with different working patterns but the same managerial level. I selected Grade 3, the managerial level to which 116 homeworkers, 29 flexible workers and 75 office-based workers belonged to. Results indicated that homeworkers are more likely to see their relationship with AdviceCo as an economic one than office-based workers and flexible workers. When considering the social exchange measure, flexible workers still generally view their relationship with AdviceCo more positively than the other groups of employees.

Given interviewees' comments and the evidence of a lower level of sick leave among homeworkers, it seems that homeworkers' 'in-role' job performance is not a real issue but their 'extra-role' performance may be. Some homeworkers are perceived to be unwilling to perform non-core job activities, contribute to the wider team or aspire to do a different type of job. For instance, Wendall, a manager and flexible worker with 13 years of organisational tenure, noted that the behaviours of a certain group of homeworkers seemed to be "linked to just achieving the specific job outcomes rather than a wider commitment to the organisation."

Perhaps this perception of homeworkers' lack of willingness may be rooted in their lack of opportunity since working remotely may make it harder to engage in "extra-role" activities. This suggests that some homeworkers may behave like "free" agents or outsiders within the organisation. This view agrees with an employee's perspective of the EOR as a quasi-spot contract: "I think they [homeworkers] become disassociated with the organisation. I don't think they feel they belong to AdviceCo. They are associates of AdviceCo. We just feed them the work and they do it. So they are like piece workers in that respect just that they get their regular money for doing it." (Wendall, manager and flexible worker, 13 years of organisational tenure).

Nonetheless, one could argue that this perception of some homeworkers as 'outsiders' and not participating in wider team activities may be caused by remoteness rather than unwillingness. Homeworkers may lack the opportunity to engage in such activities because they work at home. Affective commitment to the organisation may provide an indication of whether employees feel attached to the organisation and would like to engage in organisational activities. The survey measured the organisational commitment of the employees. Looking at their responses, homeworkers and office-based workers were less likely than flexible workers to report that they shared the values of AdviceCo or that they felt loyal to AdviceCo. Results are illustrated in Figure 16.

Figure 16: Organisational commitment by working pattern



N=514 (136 Homeworkers, 101 Flexible workers, 277 Office-based workers)

These results are consistent with social exchange, where there is an exchange of socio-emotional resources that generates trust and a high degree of mutual obligations, leading to affective commitment to the organisation (Blau, 1964; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore et al., 2006).

4.6. Conclusion

This paper aimed to explore whether homeworking has affected the quality and content of the relationship between employees and their employer in a UK organisation and, if so, how. Analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data seems to indicate that homeworking did affect the quality and content of the EOR, and provides an explanation of how it happened and its implications. The difference in perceptions of homeworking (the resource exchanged) between employee and employer and the resulting EOR have produced adverse outcomes in some cases. These adverse outcomes are consistent with past research that has suggested that a shared understanding of the content of the exchange between employee and employer is important in order to achieve their interrelated objectives (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Lee et al., 2011). In the case of the present study, there is an indication that some employees perceive homeworking not as a privilege but as a "right", which seems

to have led them to underfulfill the employer's expectations by, for example, not being flexible with the organisation or not exhibiting organisational citizenship behaviours. Homeworking affected the content of the exchange such that the employee's contributions did not meet the employer's expectation. Since some employees reported that their employer may be underinvesting in them, while the employer's view is that the organisation may be overinvesting in the employees, it also had a negative effect on the quality of the relationship: it was not reported to be mutually beneficial.

While addressing the research questions, this study attempted to contribute mainly to the existing homeworking literature and EOR literature. The next section explains in more detail the implications of this paper for theory and practice.

4.6.1. Contribution to the homeworking literature

Even though homeworking is a growing practice that affects a significant number of the working population (Telework Research Network, 2015), there is a lack of conclusive empirical evidence of its benefits. Past research has revealed that homeworking can benefit individuals (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007), organisations (Harker Martin & MacDonnell, 2012) and society (Harpaz, 2002) but can also have negative side effects (Cooper & Kurland, 2002; Davis & Cates, 2013; Kelliher & Anderson, 2009). As a result, there is a continuing debate over whether homeworking is beneficial or harmful and under which conditions these effects happen. This paper contributes to the existing important debate over the consequences of homeworking by exploring its effects on the relationship between employer and employee.

The results support past research that shows working from home brings benefits such as helping employees with balancing their home and work commitments (Golden et al., 2006) with becoming more productive as they have fewer distractions than when working at the office (Baruch, 2000; Fonner & Roloff, 2010). The results of this paper also challenge past research regarding the potential consequences of homeworking such as working longer hours and enhanced extra-role behaviour (Gajendran et al., 2015; Kelliher & Anderson, 2009). According to the results, it seems that there is a period of adaptation after which homeworkers do not feel the need to pay the employer back with longer hours or extra-role behaviour. These results also provide support to past empirical research which indicates that when homeworking is normative (i.e., business as usual or customary) in an organisation, it weakens the intensity of the employee's perceived obligation to reciprocate to the employer with extra-role behaviour (Golden, 2007).

4.6.2. Contribution to the EOR literature

The EOR research literature has mainly investigated the EOR from the employee's point of view and based on the reciprocity norm (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). Consequently, researchers have called for further investigation from the perspective of both parties and examination of deviations from the reciprocity rule in order to enhance our understanding of the EOR and predict future exchanges or behaviours (Conway & Briner, 2009; Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The current study aimed to address these gaps in the EOR literature by exploring the perspectives of both parties of the EOR and the potential consequences of disagreement in perspectives.

In order to do that, I extended an existing theoretical model of the ER which is limited to the employer's perspective (Tsui et al., 1997) to include the views of employees as well. Tsui and colleagues (1997) indicate that some government bureaucracies take the overinvestment approach when managing their employees. With a focus on the provision of homeworking to the employees, some managers from the present study support this view: they perceived that an unbalanced relationship between the organisation and its employees can take place, where the organisation provides more than it receives.

Tsui and colleagues (1997) also show in their empirical study that an overinvestment or mutual investment approach is associated with an increase in positive employee job attitudes and behaviours (performance on core tasks, citizenship behaviour and affective commitment). However, these outcomes may make sense when both employer and employee agree in their view of their relationship. The qualitative and quantitative evidence from this study revealed that employees and the organisational representatives can develop very different views of their relationship over time in the context of homeworking and this difference had an impact on the employee's attitudes and behaviour. Sometimes these views can even lay at opposite ends: while some employees feel homeworking is a benefit they provide for their organisation, the organisation's representatives think homeworking is fundamentally a benefit that they provide to their employees. These different perspectives may explain why the subsequent expected employee attitudes and behaviours are not consistent with the findings from the empirical study of Tsui and colleagues, and show that the lack of inclusion of the employee's perspective in the work by Tsui and colleagues (1997) may be an important limitation.

I found negative consequences in terms of employee attitudes and behaviour (such as lower levels of 'extra role' behaviors) which suggest that working remotely may negatively affect

employees' organisational membership or the sense of belonging to an organisation. Such effects are consistent with past studies that have suggested that working remotely can jeopardise employees' organisational identification (Bartel, Wrzesniewski, & Wiesenfeld, 2012; Thatcher & Zhu, 2006) and organisational commitment (Tietze & Nadin, 2011). In their qualitative study, Tietze and Nadin (2011) found that homeworkers became committed to their mode of work rather than to the organisation and showed a more transactional orientation to the EOR. It is not surprising that employees' OCB (rather than 'in role' behaviour) has been affected by employees' perception of the EOR. Since OCB is a voluntary behaviour, it is more influenced by employees' motivation to reciprocate the employer's inducement than 'in-role' or task performance (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Another important limitation of the work by Tsui and colleagues is that it does not include the effects over time. Although the present study is cross-sectional, it incorporated the effect of time by allowing the research participants to refer to their past experiences (for example, when starting working from home) and discuss changes in the qualitative interviews. The effect of time was part of the interviewee's narrative. The approach of the current study takes time into account and, by doing so, the results suggest that overinvestment may foster an excessive sense of entitlement among some employees over time. An important implication of this sense of entitlement may be that employees do not meet the employer-expected contribution in terms of job related attitudes and behaviours.

This study offers an explanation of how unbalanced types of employment relationship can develop. It suggests that an overinvestment approach by the employer may have promoted an underinvestment approach by some employees over time, fuelled by a sense of entitlement. Evidence from Paper II seems to indicate that this change in the EOR occurs gradually, after an adaption period, rather than suddenly, like a change in social exchange triggered by an anchoring event (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010).

Kossek, Lewis, and Hammer (2010, p. 1) argue that work-life initiatives are usually 'marginalized rather than mainstreamed'. Although normalising work-life practices in an organisation may bring desirable outcomes for its users, the present paper draws attention to its potential drawbacks as a result of a (perhaps excessive) sense of entitlement that these users may develop.

By studying potential negative implications of lack of mutuality or shared understanding of the content and quality of the EOR between employee and employer, this paper supplements past research positing that mutuality (i.e. shared agreement of the terms of the contract) and

reciprocity in an EOR may lead to positive work-related outcomes (such as productivity and organisational citizenship behaviour) (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Lee et al., 2011). In the current study I found evidence of symmetrical views of a balanced EOR where both parties agreed that they had a mutual investment type of relationship. I also found evidence of asymmetrical views of the EOR: while representatives of the employer felt that the EOR type was overinvestment, employees felt that the EOR type was underinvestment, or quasi-spot contract. This difference in perception of the EOR may have led to a decrease in motivation among some employees to contribute beyond the limits of their job description. Perhaps, it may also lead to the employer's diminished intention to increase investment in these employees.

I did not find any evidence of asymmetrical views where the employee's view of the EOR was less positive than their employer's: no employees thought they contributed less to the EOR than their employer. Both employees and employer reported that they contribute at least as much as (if not more than) what they felt they received from the other party. Future research could examine the circumstances under which employees may perceive they contribute less than what they receive from their employer. Equally, future scholars could study employment relationships where the employer perceives the organisation contributes less than what it receives from its employees.

4.6.2. Implications for practice

The proposed extension of the model by Tsui and colleagues (1997) can be a valuable tool for organisations to assess and reflect on the relationship with their employees and inform their decision making when managing human resources practices. The results of this paper also highlight the importance of managing the social exchange between organisations and their employees. From the comments of the interviewees, it was evident that the organisation studied had limited specific communications or training regarding homeworking. Furthermore, results from post hoc analysis of communications of managers with their employees showed that employees working mainly from home reported communicating significantly less often with their managers than their co-workers did. This lack of communication may explain the difference in perspective between some employees and the organisation.

As Nishii, Nepak and Schneider (2008) explain, lack of clear communications to employees of the underlying principles and objectives of human resources practices are likely to lead to the failure of those practices. At the same time, it is necessary that favourable treatment

(such as allowing employees to work from home) should be viewed by employees as discretionary in order to foster their perceptions of organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and incentivise the desired employee contribution. Therefore, homeworking practices need to be actively managed with clear and effective communications in order to minimise potential differences in the perception of the terms of the exchange between employees and organisation and create the perception of organisational support among employees. Accordingly, the main steps that managers could take are a) communicate to employees the objectives, principles and rules of the homeworking practice, b) emphasise that granting homeworking is discretionary, and c) seek feedback on the perceived content and quality of the EOR by employees, who can indicate areas for improvement.

When describing the stages in the implementation of work-life policies (homeworking being one of them), Poelmans and Caligiuri (2008) explain that in the final stage of a successful implementation, communications on the topic are not only included in the formal employee review process, but also in the day-to-day dialogue with the organisation. The idea is that the successful implementation and management of homeworking (or any other work-life policy) is part of a progressive journey in order to achieve sustained improvement for the organisation and its employees.

4.7. Limitations

The results of this paper need to be considered in light of its limitations. First, the research was conducted in a single organisation in the UK where contextual factors may question the transferability of the results to other contexts or settings. By describing the research context and the assumptions that were central to the research, I attempted to minimise this limitation. This research was conducted in a medium size public sector organisation, which operates within the UK and has a particularly long history with the practice of homeworking. A study conducted at a commercial organisation that operates in another country or at the international level and where the homeworking practice is relatively less extended may obtain very different results.

Second, I assumed that senior managers represent the organisation's voice. Although this assumption is practical and commonly made in the EOR literature, it has its limitations because managers' interests, in some cases, may not necessarily be those of the organisation (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). Likewise, most of the quantitative data were based on research participants' self-report, which may constitute a problem in terms of validity: the data are idiosyncratic and reflect the participants' subjective view of reality.

Third, the research design that I applied to answer the research questions is also limited by the data I had available. While the qualitative data allowed the participants to discuss the evolution of their perceptions over time, the quantitative data reflected the participants' perceptions mostly in the present. Therefore, I could not use the quantitative data to triangulate some of the qualitative results regarding past experiences of the research participants. To address this limitation, I used cohorts as a proxy. For example, in order to support the view that employees may relax their feelings of "guilt" or "prove their worth" while working from home over time, I analysed the reported working hours of the groups of homeworkers by homeworking tenure. Future research using a longitudinal method of data collection would be better placed to track changing perceptions and experiences over time.

4.8. Future research

Based on the ER typology developed by Tsui and colleagues (1997), I took into account the perspectives of both parties involved in the EOR. It takes into consideration the type of ER and the symmetry of views of both parties involved. This model could help to further the research on EOR by, first, exploring the scenarios that would be possible in real life and, second, examine the outcomes for individuals and organisations in each scenario. New questions could be raised such as "What types of asymmetrical views could be expected?", and "What would be the consequences for employees and the organisation when there is an asymmetry of views?".

This study did not find evidence of employees perceiving their organisations overinvested in them and, similarly, the organisational representatives did not report perceiving the organisation underinvested in their employees. Therefore, some questions that further research could address are "Under what circumstances might employees perceive they contribute less than what they receive from their employer?", "Under what circumstances might employers perceive an underinvestment relationship?", and "How sustainable would this situation be?" Presumably, the norm of reciprocity would compel employees to reciprocate and balance the relationship, so it would not be sustainable in the long run.

This study also revealed the possibility that an unbalanced EOR (such as the perceived overinvestment by the employer) could help generate other unbalanced EOR (such as the perceived underinvestment by the employee), which raises the question of whether two unreciprocated types of EOR could co-exist. Even though mutuality and reciprocity in the EOR may be desirable (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004), it is worth investigating if some types of unreciprocated relationships complement each other and result in beneficial outcomes for the

employee and the organisation as well. This could further our understanding of relationships governed by non-reciprocity based exchange rules.

5. PAPER III: EFFECTS OF HOMEWORKING ON ORGANISATIONAL LIFE

5.1. Introduction

5.2. Organisational culture and climate

5.2.1. Overlapping or separate constructs?

5.2.2. Organisational culture and climate alignment

5.2.3. Strength of climate

5.2.4. A dynamic and multi-level process

5.3. Method

5.3.1. Sample and data collection

5.3.2. Quantitative measures

5.3.3. Analysis

5.4. Results

5.4.1. Context

5.4.2. Culture

5.4.3. Creation of climate

5.4.4. Climate for homeworking

5.4.5. Outcomes of misalignment of culture with climate for homeworking

5.5. Conclusion

5.5.1. Contribution to the organisational culture and climate literature

5.5.2. Contribution to the homeworking literature

5.5.3. Contribution to practice

5.6. Limitations

5.7. Future research

5. PAPER III: THE EFFECTS OF HOMEWORKING ON ORGANISATIONAL LIFE

5.1. Introduction

Organisational culture has inspired a multitude of publications in view of the number of research studies that have indicated that culture influences organisational performance (Sackmann, 2011). Since organisational policies and practices might link organisational culture with climate, recent literature reviews (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Muhammad, 2012; Schneider et al., 2013) have suggested that further research is needed to explain the mechanism that links organisational culture with policies and practices and associated climate. This is of particular significance, as past research has highlighted the importance of organisational climate being consistent with organisational culture to achieve organisational effectiveness (Ostroff et al., 2012). This paper aims to contribute to this explanation by focusing on how the practice of working from home fits into the organisation culture-climate relationship.

Using a mixed methods approach, I examine primary and secondary quantitative and qualitative data, collected from a medium size organisation, AdviceCo⁵, to create a case study. It contributes primarily to the organisational culture and climate research literature and homeworking literature by a) examining the mechanism of how a climate for homeworking develops and identifying potential areas of incongruence with organisational culture, b) identifying the collective attitudes and behaviours and organisational outcomes that this alignment may have led to, and c) offering a potential causal explanation of the potential culture-climate inconsistencies by assessing multiple organisational and environmental variables. A better understanding of the impact of homeworking on an organisation could support managers in implementing and managing a homeworking practice and, hence, improving the effectiveness of such a practice.

5.2. Organisational culture and climate

5.2.1. Overlapping or separate constructs?

Organisational climate is "an experiential-based description of what people 'see' and report happening to them in an organizational situation" (Ostroff et al., 2012, p. 644). Organisational culture is commonly understood as the shared assumptions, values and beliefs of employees in organisations (Schein, 1996; Schneider et al., 2013). Both concepts are important, as understanding them improves our capacity to explain and predict the behaviour of people at

⁵ Fictional name

work (Denison, 1996; Ostroff et al., 2012; Schein, 2010; Schneider, Brief, & Guzzo, 1996).

The concepts of organisational culture and climate have received significant attention. However, researchers have shown more interest in climate than in culture in the past 20 years. In their recent review, Schneider and colleagues (2013) examined published articles in three top organisational journals (*Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Academy of Management Journal*, and *Personnel Psychology*) in the period from 2000 to 2012 and found that more than 50 articles focused on climate and fewer than 10 on culture.

Both academics and practitioners have sometimes confused culture with climate or have understood culture and climate as overlapping constructs (Schneider et al., 2013). This confusion is understandable. Organisational culture and climate are related but distinct constructs. They both relate to the way people experience and describe their workplace. Recently, scholars have addressed the need for differentiating both concepts as they considered them to be two separate but related constructs (Ostroff et al., 2012; Schein, 2000; Schneider et al., 2013). The source of the confusion may also stem from the method applied to study culture or climate. Having originated in the academic disciplines of ethnography and sociology, the concept of organisational culture has traditionally been studied with qualitative methods, while the approach to study climate has been mostly quantitative, using questionnaires (Barbera, 2014). However, in the past two decades, more empirical work has been applying quantitative methods to study culture (Schneider et al., 2013). Some researchers claim that some of these quantitative studies are in fact about climate and not culture (Schein, 2010; Schneider et al., 2013). As for practitioners, they generally use the term culture even when they are really talking about climate (Barbera, 2014).

Climate is the manifestation of cultural assumptions and, as such, can be considered part of culture, a cultural artefact (Schein, 2000). A summary of the key differences between climate and culture is shown in Table 21.

Table 21: Main differences between organisational culture and climate

Dimension	Organisational culture	Organisational climate
Visibility	Low level - it is the underlying assumptions	High level - it is what employees report seeing and/or experiencing
Specificity	Low level of specificity - it encompasses the functioning of an organisation as a whole	Specific to a situation or practice
Temporality	Dynamic but stable - long term	Temporal - short term
Consciousness	Low level - almost unconscious to individuals	High level of consciousness
Study method	Mostly qualitative, although increase in quantitative approach in last 15-20 years	Mostly quantitative

However, as mentioned earlier, climate can also be considered a separate construct from culture, since the essence of culture is the underlying assumptions, not visible (as climate may be) and, to a great degree, unconscious (Schein, 2010). For example, an innovative culture, with values that promote creativity and continuous learning, may be translated in leaders creating a safe environment for employees to take risks or make mistakes. Employees' perception of this environment or management practice contributes to the creation of a climate for innovation. It is the difference in the perception of employees of "what" happens (climate) and "why" it happens (culture) in an organisation (Ostroff et al., 2012). This definition of culture has been supported by other authors: "The essence of culture is not what is visible on the surface. It is the shared ways groups of people understand and interpret the world." (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2012, p. 4). Climate is more specific; it refers to a situation or practice, while culture is broader and encompasses the whole functioning of a group (Ostroff et al., 2012; Schein, 2010). Climate is also more temporal than culture. Although a dynamic concept, culture implies structural stability, and refers to a stable set of shared values and beliefs which are shared and transmitted from one generation of employees to another (Schein, 2010).

When discussing the different attributes of culture and climate, I mentioned that the level of specificity of climate was higher. Climate research might be characterised as being focused on specific aspects of the organisational environment, particularly well-being, but also including ethics, safety, service, and justice (Schneider et al., 2013). Focused climate studies are designed to link climate with specific outcomes, for example, the effect of safety climate on accidents at the job (Zohar, 2000). Similarly, recent empirical studies on organisational

culture have focused on specific organisational performance outcomes of culture, such as innovation (Dombrowski et al., 2007; Ostroff et al., 2012).

Why is it important to differentiate between culture and climate? Simply put, it may have a direct effect on managerial practice, particularly when dealing with organisational change. For practitioners, being clear about what culture and climate mean and their impact on their organisation may help to analyse and interpret the reality of their workplace more effectively and, thus, better inform their decision-making when managing their organisations. For example, if the organisational culture puts a strong emphasis on minimising costs or is characterised as "abrupt", such as Ryanair's culture (BBC, 2013), implementing a climate that promotes customer service may require changes of some elements of the organisational culture. However, Schein (2000) pointed out that unless the underlying cultural assumptions prove to be greatly restricting or blocking the desired climate, it is preferable to focus on changing climate rather than culture to achieve specific organisational performance goals. The reason being that changing culture is seen as intrinsically difficult and costly for both organisations and employees.

The previous Ryanair example implies that a certain level of congruence between culture and climate is necessary for an organisation to achieve its objectives in an effective manner. In the next section I will discuss alignment between culture and climate and the role that organisational practices play in this alignment.

5.2.2. Organisational culture and climate alignment

In order to understand the need for congruence of culture, practices and climate, it is necessary to first consider what drives all three. The antecedents of culture are extensive and diverse. Research literature has identified internal antecedents (such as the organisation's history, size, location, vision, strategy, goals and founders' values) and external antecedents (such as national, industry and local environment) of the culture in an organisation (Robbins, Campbell, & Judge, 2010).

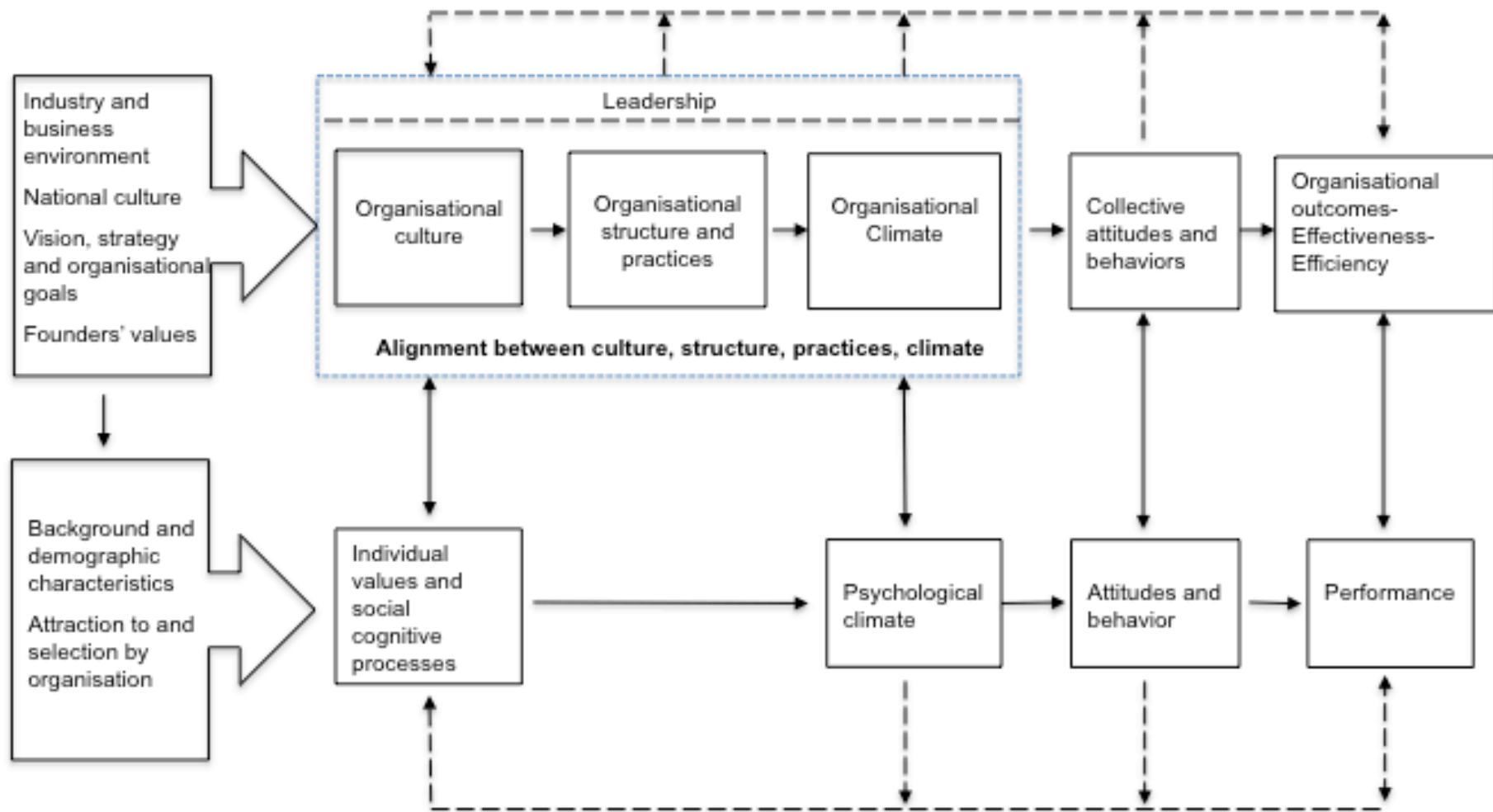
Regarding the external influences, as organisations exist within a particular environment (e.g., country, industry) to which they adapt to survive and/or flourish, their culture also reflects their external environment. Understanding the external environment of an organisation will help to illuminate the cultural forces within the organisation. With regard to the internal antecedents to culture, there is a generalised agreement in the organisational research literature that culture is formed by an organisation's leaders (Robbins et al., 2010; Schneider et al., 2013). Founders and/or leaders define the basic values and beliefs of the

organisation and acceptable behaviours within it. Leaders shape organisational culture via their actions: they provide vision, strategy and goals and serve as role models to their organisation. Organisational culture is transferred to employees via a process of socialisation and, thus, communications among members is necessary for them to internalise the cultural values and beliefs. This process of indoctrination is a critical step in creating and maintaining an organisational culture. Once the culture is embedded in the organisation, culture can also constrain the actions of their leaders and even dictate what sort of leadership is suitable for the organisation (Schein, 2010).

Leaders also decide the structure, policies and practices to be implemented in an organisation. The perception of these structures, policies and practices by employees is what generates an organizational climate. Climate is the "shared meaning employees attach to the policies, practices and procedures and the behaviours that get rewarded, supported and expected at work" (Barbera, 2014, p.3). Among the organizational practices, human resources (HR) practices provide a view of what managers expect and value from employees and, therefore, influence how employees perceive their organisation or, in other words, the organisational climate. In fact, if we understand that climate measures "whether people's expectations about what it should be like to work in an organization are being met" (Schwartz & Davis, 1981, p. 33), then climate provides a view of the perceived level of congruence between organisational culture and HR policies and practices.

Along similar lines, Ostroff et al. (2012) propose that organisational practices are the linking mechanism between culture and climate in their multi-level model of organisational culture and climate (shown in Figure 17), where these three elements (culture, practices, climate) need to be aligned.

Figure 17: Multi-level model of organisational culture and climate by Ostroff et al. (2012)



At the organisational level, this model encompasses antecedents to culture and consequences of the alignment between culture, organisational structure and climate, such as collective attitudes and behaviours and organisational outcomes (effectiveness and efficiency). At the individual level, this model includes antecedents to individual values and social cognitive processes which, in turn, influence psychological climate, leading to individual attitudes and behaviours and individual performance. There are links between the organisational and individual levels, for example, between organisational culture and individual values or between organisational climate and psychological climate. There are also multiple feedback loops among the variables of the model, for example, organisational performance influences organisational culture.

When culture-practices-climate alignment occurs, it may lead to positive organisational effectiveness (Chow & Liu, 2009; Schein, 2000). In their empirical study of 451 companies, Chow and Liu (2009) found that alignment of organisational culture with HR practices has a positive impact on organisational performance. Chow and Liu studied the congruence of organisational culture with involvement-HR practices. Involvement-HR practices are those designed to promote employees' autonomy, discretion and motivation in order to maximise employee's participation (Chow & Liu, 2009). Based on the assumption that a supportive culture (as defined by Wallach, 1983), rather than a bureaucratic or competitive culture, is better aligned with involvement-HR practices, the study by Chow and Liu suggests that a supportive culture combined with inducement-HR practices is significantly and positively related to organisational performance.

When employees perceive that what it should be (culture) and what it is (practices) are different, the resulting climate will be inconsistent with culture. For example, in an organisation with a collectivist culture and practices that encourage individualistic work, the resulting climate will likely not be congruent with the culture. Misalignment would indicate a need for organisational change to rectify this misalignment or incongruence (Schein, 2000). This paper will explore the culture-climate alignment process with homeworking as the HR practice under consideration.

The main questions this paper aims to address concern the culture-homeworking-climate alignment:

1. Is the climate for homeworking congruent with the organisational culture?
2. If not, what are the elements of incongruence and how did they develop?

While I am addressing these questions, I examine antecedents to culture (context) and the individual and organisational consequences of the alignment of culture with a climate for homeworking. An overview of the main drivers of the organisational culture or context may help to explain and interpret the culture-homeworking-climate alignment. External (industry and business environment) and internal (organisational goals) contextual factors have an influence on this alignment (Ostroff et al., 2012) and therefore, will contribute to a more comprehensive answer to the research questions.

5.2.3. *Strength of climate*

One could argue that culture and practices alignment is directly related to the idea of strength of climate. A weak climate can result when there are inconsistencies among practices and/or when policies and procedures (which are derived from culture) are inconsistent with practices (Zohar, 2000; Zohar & Luria, 2005). If employees perceive that the homeworking practice is not consistent with the homeworking policy and the organisation's cultural values, and/or the homeworking practice is inconsistent across an organisation, it will likely lead to a lack of homogeneity in their perceptions of homeworking or climate for homeworking. Bowen and Ostroff (2004) argue that a strong organisational climate helps employees share a common interpretation of what behaviours are expected and rewarded, and, thus, positively contributes to organisational performance.

Empirical evidence reveals that strong organisational climate is related to several positive organisational outcomes, including productivity, financial performance, turnover rate, and workforce morale (Ostroff & Schmitt, 1993; Riordan, Vandenberg, & Richardson, 2005). Previous studies have also consistently demonstrated positive relationships between organisational climate and individual work outcomes such as job performance, satisfaction, commitment, and involvement (Brown & Leigh, 1996; Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins, 2003).

Since the strength of climate depends on the level of homogeneity of perceptions among employees, it is reasonable to state that communication (depending on nature, clarity and content) among the members of the organisation is a necessary requirement to achieve a strong organisational climate, because communicating perceptions helps to share them. Therefore, communication among the members of an organisation plays a significant role in maintaining not only an organisational culture (by facilitating the process of socialisation) but also a strong organisational climate. Communications are necessary to keep a certain level of culture-climate congruence. As a result, I explore the potential effect that the homeworking practice may have in the internal communications of AdviceCo (among employees and

between employees and their managers) in order to better understand the overall impact of the homeworking practice on the organisational culture-climate alignment. In the argument that I have just laid out, there is an implication that the culture-climate alignment process is a dynamic one. This aspect of organisational culture and climate is addressed in the next section.

5.2.4. A dynamic and multi-level process

Organisations continuously change and so do their climates and cultures (Ostroff et al., 2003; Schein, 2000). Culture is static but also, very gradually, in constant evolution (Schein, 2000). The fact that climate is more temporal in nature than culture presents the challenge for climate to be consistent with the more stable culture. As a result, it is reasonable to expect that misalignment may occur at some point in the process of change, unless misalignment triggers changes to correct the misalignment itself.

In addition, both culture and climate develop via a multi-level process. At the individual level, members of an organisation have values and beliefs about the way things should work in an organisation, and they also have perceptions of the organisational policies and practices. The group and organisational levels are built upon members of an organisation sharing those values, beliefs and perceptions. In other words, the process of formation of organisational culture and climate starts at the individual level and finishes at the group and/or organisational level. At the same time, the organisational and group levels influence the individual level. It is a reciprocal process of causality. As organisations continuously change, the individual and organisational levels of culture and climate are required to evolve at the same pace in order to keep some level of congruence between culture and climate.

5.3. Method

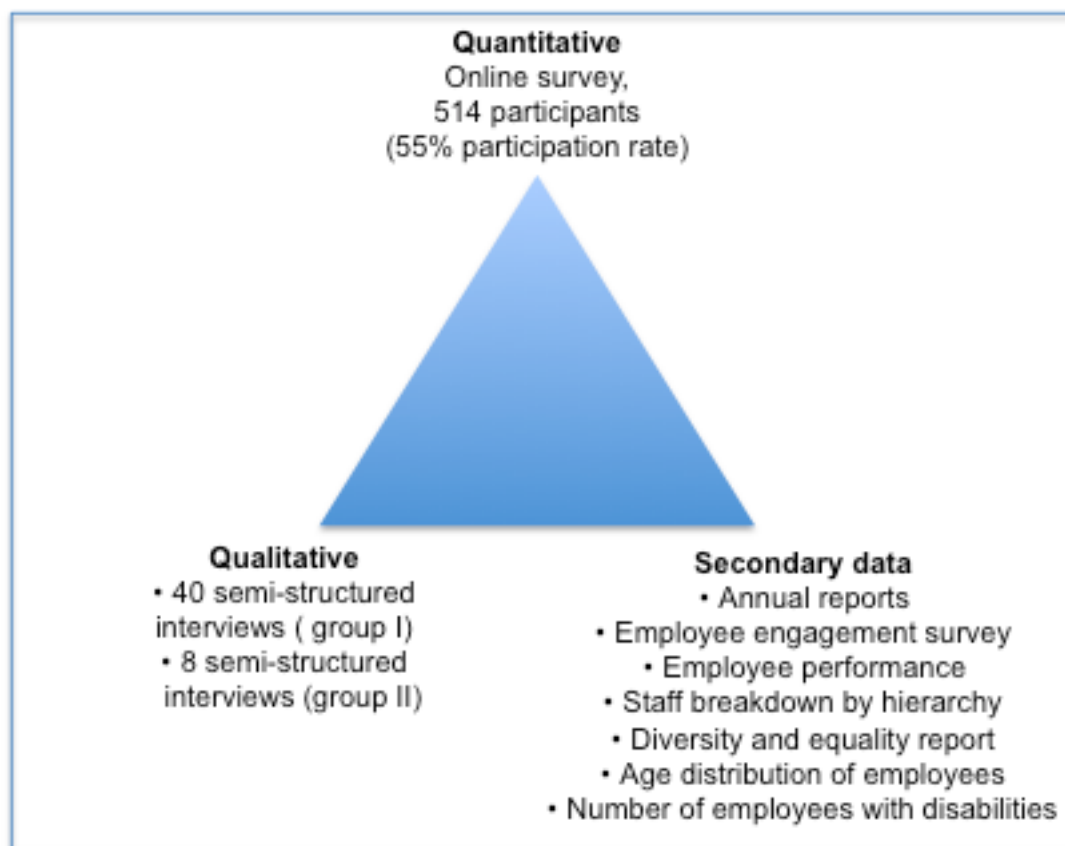
Traditionally, while empirical research on organisational culture has been of a qualitative nature, research on organisational climate has been mostly quantitative (Ostroff et al., 2003; Schneider et al., 2013). Since the subject of study for this paper is the culture-climate alignment of one organisation, AdviceCo, and the research questions are of an exploratory nature with a large number of variables, looking at the relationship of specific variables in a purely quantitative manner (to show how outcomes are shaped) would clearly not be sufficient. Therefore, I have adopted a mixed method approach, within the frame of a case study, using triangulation of qualitative and quantitative evidence. A case study is useful when it is important to understand how the organisational and environmental context is influencing social processes (Leenders et al., 2001). The current paper uses a theoretical

framework by Ostroff and colleagues (2012) that examines the influence of the organisational context on the alignment of culture and climate in light of homeworking. Therefore, a case study is the most suitable research approach to achieve the research objective stated above. The background of the organisation, AdviceCo, is described in Section 1.5.

5.3.1. Sample and data collection

The primary empirical data were collected over a period of 16 months and are both qualitative and quantitative. An overview of the fieldwork, which includes a description of the sample and timeline of the primary data collection, is provided in Section 1.5. I complemented the primary data with secondary data for the analysis. Figure 18 below shows the data that I used for the current study.

Figure 18: Data overview



As explained in Section 1.5., there were 46 employees who participated in a total of 48 semi-structured interviews in two groups: group I with 40 participants (12 managers and 28 employees) and group II with 8 participants (all senior managers). All interviews were approximately one hour long, conducted in different AdviceCo offices. For the first group of 40 interviews, we followed an interview guide (included in Appendix II) but allowed the

research participants to have some flexibility to discuss their perceptions and experiences about homeworking while capturing the organisational context at the same time. The interview guide had some variations; it had additional questions for those employees who had managerial responsibilities and/or worked regularly from home. These questions were focused on the personal or individual level such as "How would you describe your workload?", although references to the organisation often arose in the answers. Additional questions for managers included questions such as "Are there specific challenges or concerns that you have with managing homeworkers?".

For the last eight interviews with senior managers (group II), the content of the questions focused on the organisational level. I asked the interviewees to consider four issues identified as relating to a group of homeworkers (decreased career ambition, increased professional isolation, reduced frequency of communications with managers, deterioration of relationship with AdviceCo) and interpret them with the following questions: "In your view, how important are these issues?", If the answer was "Not very important" then they were asked "What kinds of issues are important to AdviceCo?" and "In your view, what are the contributing factors to these issues? Why and how did they emerge?". The issues referred to were identified in prior research work with the organisation.

Regarding the primary quantitative data, 514 employees participated (representing approximately 55% participation rate) in the online survey. The survey instrument is shown in Appendix I. Information on the participants' profile is provided in Section 1.5. The primary data collected were complemented by secondary data. For example, when the interviewees mentioned that the workload for the organisation had significantly increased or discussed organisational and individual performance issues, I supported such information with secondary data. The types of secondary data and their sources are also presented in Section 1.5.2.

5.3.2. Quantitative measures

5.3.2.1. Measures from primary data source

All primary quantitative data were based on self-reported information provided by employees in the aforementioned online survey. The participants in the survey provided their age (in years), gender (0="Male", 1="Female"), and their marital status (1="Single/Divorced/Widow", 2="Married or live with a partner", 3="Married or in similar relationship but do not live with partner"). They indicated the number of children they had living at home and the age of their children. Respondents also specified whether they had any other caring responsibilities

besides childcare (0="No",1="Yes").

They selected their job occupation and grade (managerial level) from a pre-populated list that included 12 types of job roles (e.g., Finance, Administration, Telephone Services) and five managerial grades (from value one being the highest managerial level to value five being the lowest managerial level). They indicated the length of time (in years and months) that they had been working for AdviceCo, whether they were line managing others at AdviceCo (0="No",1="Yes") and whether they had any long-term illness, health problem or disability (0="No",1="Yes"). The survey respondents also stated the percentage of their working time (on average, in a typical week) that they spent working at home, at an AdviceCo's office, and on the road or travelling.

Task interdependence was measured with a six-item scale (Pearce & Gregersen, 1991) which asked participants their level of agreement (from 1= "Strongly disagree" to 5="Strongly agree") with four statements regarding reciprocal independence (such as, "I work closely with others in AdviceCo in doing my work" or "The way I perform my job has a significant impact on others in AdviceCo") and two statements regarding independence ("I work fairly independently of others in AdviceCo." and "I rarely have to obtain information from others in AdviceCo to complete my work"). In the present study, Cronbach's alpha was .80 for the reciprocal independence subscale, and .64 for the independence subscale, which is .06 below the generally acceptable reliability coefficient (Cortina, 1993), and, thus, presents a limitation of this measure.

Knowledge sharing was assessed by Golden and Raghuram's (2010) four-item scale, which asked the survey participants their level of agreement (from 1= "Strongly disagree" to 5="Strongly agree") with statements such as, "In my team we discuss work-related problems and solutions" and "In my team, we share our experiences of work-related success and failure." Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .83.

Information sharing was measured with Fonner and Roloff's (2010) four-item scale. Survey participants were asked to think about their communications at AdviceCo during the course of a typical day and indicate their agreement (from 1= "Strongly disagree" to 5="Strongly agree") with statements such as, "I share information with my colleagues in a timely way" and "The information my colleagues share with me is useful for my work." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .86. Other questions in the survey asked employees how often they communicated with their line manager, discussed with their line manager certain subjects

(e.g., performance) and which primary method they used when communicating with their line managers (e.g., informal face to face meeting).

Professional isolation was measured with a seven-item scale (Golden et al., 2008) which asked employees to indicate how frequently (from 1="Rarely" to 5= "Most of the time") they experienced, with regard to their work, sensations such as "I feel out of the loop" and "I feel left out on activities and meetings that could enhance my career". Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .89.

Career ambition was measured with a six-item scale created by Dikkers, van Engen, and Vinkenbunrg (2010). Participants were asked their level of agreement (from 1= "Strongly disagree" to 5="Strongly agree") with statements such as, "I have the ability to reach a higher position in my line of work" and "I want to achieve the highest possible position in my line of work." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .88.

Organisational commitment was assessed with a three-item scale from the 2011 Workplace Employment Relations Survey. Research participants were asked to indicate their agreement (from 1= "Strongly disagree" to 5="Strongly agree") with statements such as, "I share many values of my organisation." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .82.

5.3.2.2 Measures from secondary data sources

From AdviceCo's annual accounts (2006/07 to 2012/13), I obtained annual financial and operational information such as total expenditure, number of employees, staff costs, cost of leases, number of calls handled, volume of cases and resolution rate of cases.

AdviceCo's internal *Age distribution of employees report* (2011) provided information about the age of the employees. AdviceCo published on their website the number of employees who reported having a disability. I obtained information on employees' engagement with AdviceCo from the *Civil Service Employee Survey* (2011).

AdviceCo provided the data on employees' performance rated by managers. For the purpose of this study, performance was assessed by the average of an individual's performance rankings from 2010 and 2011, which was matched to the primary survey data. If only one year of performance data was available, that single score was used to represent overall performance. Each of the organisation's ranking categories was assigned a numeric value as follows: 4 = "Exceptional", 3 = "Fully Effective", 2 = "Effective with Development Needs", 1 = "Unacceptable Performance". Performance data were available for 441 employees (87%) of

the sample. Therefore, when the analysis includes performance data, the sample is reduced from 514 to 441 participants.

5.3.3. Analysis

In the past, researchers using the climate construct had to face issues with the level of data, analysis and theory. For example, researchers may have used data at the individual level that did not match with analysis and theory at the group or organisational level (Ostroff et al., 2012; Zohar & Luria, 2005). This has not been a real issue for research on culture, as the unit of study is the group or collective. For the present paper, I adopted a multi-level approach. My analysis covered both the individual level (by looking at, for example, employees' values, perceptions of homeworking, and work related attitudes) and the organisational level (by looking at, for example, organisational structure, culture and climate). I had two main reasons for adopting a multi-level approach. First, although the research questions concern the organisational level, the social phenomenon under study (culture-climate alignment) is inherently multilevel and it makes sense to look at both the individual and organisational levels of analysis in order to investigate such a phenomenon. Second, a multilevel approach may positively contribute to the richness and depth of the case study, increasing the validity of the results and the overall value of the research.

One of the requirements of empirical multilevel research is to establish the functional relationships between micro level variables (e.g., individual climate perceptions) and macro level variables (e.g., group / organisational climate perceptions). I applied the referent-shift model which measures "how an individual believes others in the organization perceive the climate and whether there is within-organization consensus in such beliefs" (Chan, 1998, p. 237). This means that, for example, when coding for group or organisational climate perceptions, I analysed the comments of individuals that refer to attributes of a particular group or the whole organisation rather than their own perspectives. The referent-shift approach has been proven effective in past research as an indicator of the degree of consensus at the higher level (group or organisational) referred by individuals (Schneider et al., 2013).

I found references to others' perspectives in both sets of interviews. I also found numerous references to organisational context and cultural values and beliefs, which I fed into the organisational culture analysis for this paper. These references were not prompted, but occurred spontaneously as part of the conversation. Schein (2000) posits that to gain understanding of another group's cultural assumptions, it is useful to establish a

communication which does not directly enquire about those assumptions. As interviewees were discussing how they saw the realities of homeworking at AdviceCo, some of their cultural assumptions were revealed. As Schein also advised (2000), I tried to minimise the biases that resulted from my own involvement while conducting the interviews. For example, in the group II interviews with the senior managers, I asked them to make sense of or interpret some of the data I gathered, instead of presenting them with my own interpretation. I used them as internal informants, such that the group II interviews helped to shape the findings and provide an initial answer to the research questions.

I noted earlier that the culture-alignment process is not only multi-level but also dynamic, and this dynamism is an important aspect. The use of narrative in the interviews allowed me to capture this dynamism. For example, research participants referred to changes in perceptions of the homeworking practice that have occurred over the years, while offering causal explanations that involved organisational or other contextual factors. Considering the multi-level and dynamic aspects of climate also addresses an area that is under researched in the climate literature (Ostroff et al., 2012; Zohar & Luria, 2005).

In a similar way to the analysis of Paper II, I employed thematic coding analysis to interpret the interview transcripts and organisational data. After having the two groups of interviews transcribed, I followed the basic phases of thematic coding analysis: familiarising myself with the data by reading it several times, generating the initial codes, identifying themes, constructing thematic networks (maps of relationships between themes) and integrating and interpreting the patterns (Robson, 2011). I used NVivo software to assist with the analysis. In terms of analytical process, I took an abductive approach (Morgan, 2007), as already explained in Section 1.4. Instead of going from theory to the observations (deductive) or from the observations to theory (inductive), I moved back and forth between these two approaches. For example, my starting point was an existing theoretical framework, the multilevel climate model by Ostroff and colleagues (2012), shown in Figure 17, to explore the alignment of organisational culture with climate for homeworking (deductive approach). As the analysis progressed, themes that helped to clarify the mechanism explaining the role of homeworking in the culture-climate alignment emerged (inductive approach). The list of themes and subthemes that were generated during the qualitative analysis are shown in Table 22.

Table 22: Thematic content coding

Themes	Subthemes
Context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • External contextual factors • Internal contextual factors
Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trust in employees • Supportive of flexible working practices • Supportive of employees' autonomy • Rights awareness • Benevolence • Aversion to change
Creation of climate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisational structure • Management practices • Management style • Information exchange and knowledge exchange • Type of work • Homeworking policy • Physical workspace
Climate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Climate for homeworking
Outcomes of culture-climate (mis)alignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional isolation • Career ambition • Relationship with the organisation • Organisational citizenship behaviour • Individual performance • Organisational performance • Organisational succession

Regarding the analysis of the quantitative data, I used multivariate analysis of variance of means among groups in order to identify differences for specific variables (such as organisational commitment) between groups (such as homeworkers, flexible workers and office-based workers). Significant differences were reported when the p-value was less than 0.05. I used partial correlation analysis to establish the association between variables (such as knowledge sharing and professional isolation). Significant correlations were reported when the p-value was less than 0.05.

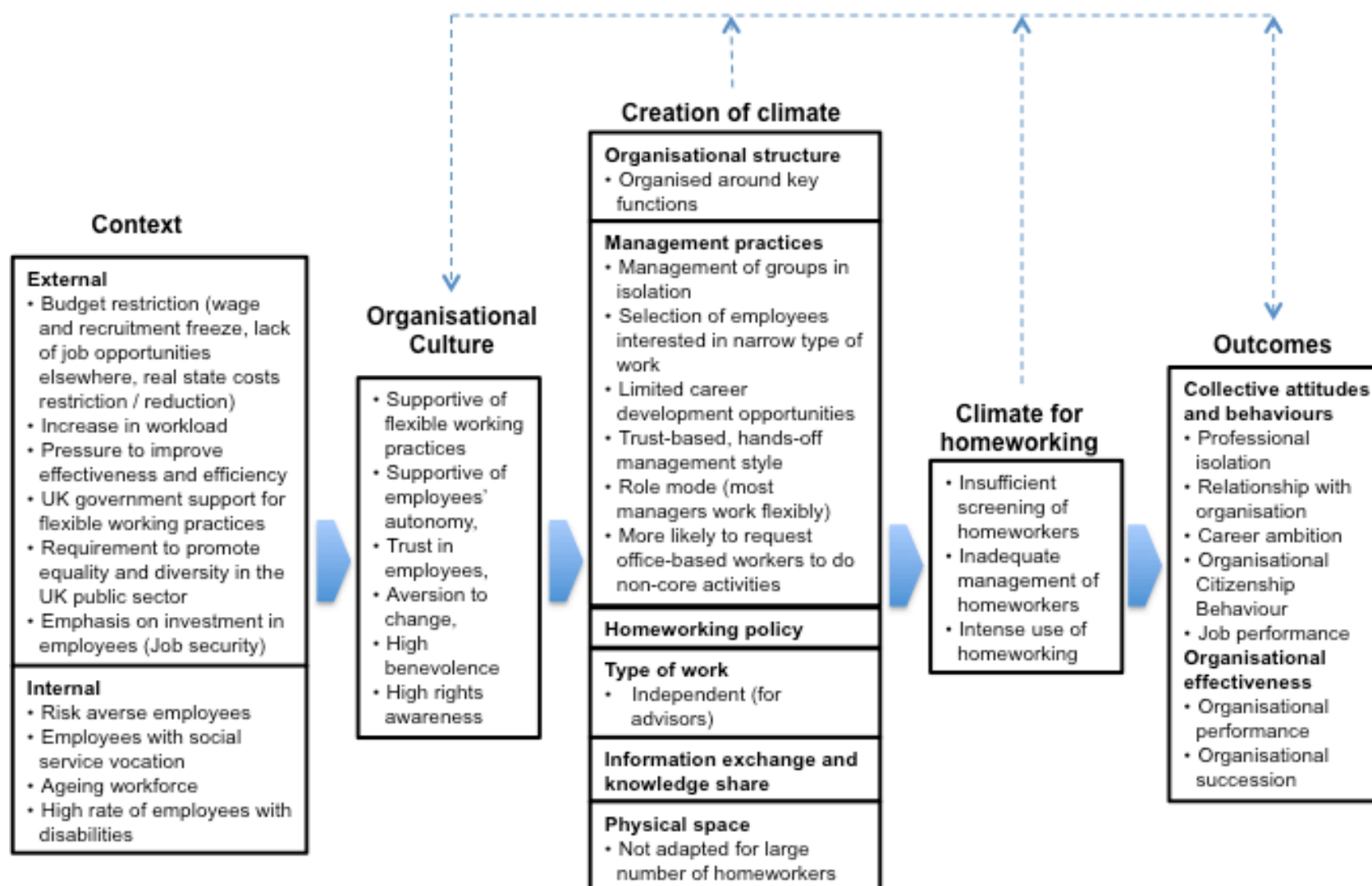
5.4. Results

The aim of this study is to address two questions concerning AdviceCo: 1) Is the climate for homeworking congruent with the organisational culture? and 2) If not, what are the elements of incongruence and how did they develop? Using the multilevel climate model by Ostroff and colleagues (2012), shown in Figure 17, I analysed the data to explore the alignment of organisational culture with climate for homeworking. I identified the elements of inconsistency

between the climate for homeworking and the organisational culture and uncovered how these elements developed by examining their antecedents, such as contextual factors.

First, I started with the contextual factors that are considered by the interviewees as having an effect on the organisational culture and/or climate for homeworking. Second, I focused on analysis of the elements of organisational culture that were related to the practice of homeworking, followed by the elements that contributed to the creation of climate for homeworking. Third, I analysed the resulting climate for homeworking, highlighting the elements of incongruence between culture and climate. Finally, I examined the consequences of these incongruences. Illustrative quotes per theme are shown in Appendix V. Results are summarised in Figure 19.

Figure 19 : Model of organisational culture and climate for homeworking at AdviceCo



5.4.1. Context

5.4.1.1. External factors

As shown in the theoretical model by Ostroff and colleagues (2012), context (both internal and external) can play an important role in shaping the alignment between culture and climate. Regarding external context, one of the external factors most cited in the interviews is the pressure for budget restriction or reduction in the UK public sector fuelled by the economic climate since 2008 (Brignall & Modell, 2000) (Vaughan-Whitehead, 2013). Consequently, the UK public sector has been subjected to considerable adjustments to contain or reduce public expenditure (such as reducing or freezing wages and employment as part of the austerity programme) and improve its productivity and efficiency (Vaughan-Whitehead, 2013). When examining the annual accounts of AdviceCo, budgetary constraints are evident in total expenditure (decreased by 1%). Reflecting the general economic and financial constraints of AdviceCo and other similar organisations, interviewees mentioned recruitment and wage freezes, reduction of staff and lack of job opportunities elsewhere. For example, Gibson, a manager and office worker with 30 years of organisational tenure, indicated that the "HR function is getting smaller because of shared services and the drive to economise." Mycroft, a homeworker with 20 years of organisational tenure, pointed out that "nationally within the Civil Service there is a recruitment freeze." The cost of real estate is worth noting because it is frequently mentioned by interviewees as an organisational reason to provide and encourage take up of homeworking among their employees. The annual reports show that AdviceCo have steadily reduced their commitment to operating leases in the last few years, especially longer term leases (65% reduction between 2008/09 and 2012/13).

Increased efficiency is apparent in the reduction of costs for handling cases (depending on the type of cases, from 11% to 39% cost reduction per completed case) and calls (29% cost reduction per answered call) from 2006/07 to 2012/13. In terms of productivity, although the Telephone Services employees handled more calls in the same period (11% increase), it is not clear that the advisors handled a higher number of cases from the information available in the organisation's annual reports. Most of the interviewees agreed that their workload had increased and found that advisors in particular have a very busy schedule. Ralf, a manager and flexible worker with 8 years of organisational tenure, explained that the reason for the increased workload was that "there are fewer staff but the demand for the service is not necessarily any less than it was." On the other hand, there were interviewees who differed from the view that the actual workload was that high. Elian, a manager and flexible worker with 20 years of organisational tenure, thought that there are groups of people at AdviceCo

that are not that busy in reality but they "expand the work to fill up all the time and then say they are busy".

Another external factor to consider is the increasing demand by UK employees for flexible working practices, which are supported by the UK government. The UK government recognises the positive contribution of flexible working practices to the employees' wellbeing, the overall society and the economy and gives the right to request flexible working to all employees in the UK (not just working parents and carers). Access to and uptake of flexible working practices among employees have significantly increased in the last few years. According to a 2012 survey from the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD), about 96% of UK organisations offer some form of flexibility to their employees. Related to the provision of flexible working practices are equality and diversity, which the UK public sector are required to actively promote (e.g., the Equality Act 2010). As explained later in the paper, the homeworking practice may be instrumental for AdviceCo in promoting diversity by allowing employees with disabilities to do their jobs. This is one of the benefits identified by past research (Verbeke et al., 2008).

5.4.1.2. Internal factors

The stated vision of AdviceCo that is shared in their annual accounts and website puts emphasis on promoting diversity and equality ('We are committed to, and promote, equality and diversity') and fostering investment in their employees ('We are proud of our staff, respect their views and invest in helping them meet their potential'). Investment in employees is consistent with the view of the public sector providing high levels of job security, which may attract the type of employees that look for job stability. In fact, some interviewees did mention that employees at AdviceCo tend to stay. Supporting this point, Elian, a manager and flexible worker with 20 years of organisational tenure, stated that "AdviceCo is a place that has low turnover, people normally progress within AdviceCo." The survey data shows that the organisational tenure of employees was high. The average organisational tenure was 11 years, with two thirds of employees having worked for the organisation for over 7 years.

Past research literature has suggested that public sector employees may be more risk averse and have more affinity for social service than private sector employees (Buurman, Delfgaauw, Dur, & Van den Bossche, 2012). In accordance with this, some employees at AdviceCo expressed the view that public service was an important factor in their choice of working for AdviceCo. For instance, Samuel, a homeworker with 23 years of organisational tenure said: "I could possibly do this job in another guise although I'm not sure I'd want to do

it in the private sector because of profit. So the public sector gives me that vocational element."

An ageing workforce is another contextual theme that emerged in the interviews as having an important influence on AdviceCo's operations. Research participants' comments about AdviceCo having an ageing workforce are confirmed by the quantitative data (age distribution is shown in Figure 20 Appendix VI). Perhaps related to older age, almost one in four (23%) participants in the survey reported having a disability. This figure is almost double the number of AdviceCo's employees that, according to AdviceCo's website, chose to disclose that they had a disability to their organisation in early 2011 and is well above the 7% of the Civil Service as a whole for the same year.

Against this contextual backdrop, the next section identifies the cultural elements that I found relevant to the practice of working from home at AdviceCo.

5.4.2. Culture

Consistent with AdviceCo's stated vision to help employees meet their potential, interviewees perceived that the organisational culture was supportive of employees using flexible working practices. Grace, an office-based manager with 19 years of organisational tenure noted that, at AdviceCo "we are proud of the flexibility that we give people." Related to flexible working, some interviewees stated that AdviceCo's culture supported autonomy among their employees, at least among managers, as Reginald, manager and office-based worker with 19 of organisational tenure, noted. Being supportive of flexible working and providing autonomy requires a culture of trust (Harrington & Ruppel, 1999) that is evident at AdviceCo given the comments of the interviewees. For instance, Alfred, a manager and flexible worker with 18 years of organisational tenure, described AdviceCo as "hugely sympathetic to the idea of flexibly doing of your job." The exception is for the Telephone Services employees, who are not allowed flexible working arrangements.

At the same time, AdviceCo was perceived as having a culture that does not embrace changes easily. Priya, a manager and flexible worker with 7 years of organisational tenure, described AdviceCo as a "very conservative organisation about a lot of things", where they "tend to be very slow to change and to take baby steps and often go backwards." Another aspect of AdviceCo that became apparent in the interviews is that it may have a culture that is overly benevolent, which was sometimes presented as an issue that needed to be changed. A manager explained that adopting a hard line management approach would be culturally unacceptable:

"The one taboo in AdviceCo would be for me to say to you, when you are complaining about your lot as some people do, if I said to you perhaps you should leave and find somewhere else to work, that would be viewed by my senior managers, what a terrible thing to say." - Hugh, manager and flexible worker, 25 years of organisational tenure.

At the same time, AdviceCo was perceived as a collective organisation where employees have a strong sense of their individual and group rights. Priya, a manager and flexible worker with 7 years of organisational tenure, explained that AdviceCo is a "very strongly collective organisation, everyone is very aware of their individual and collective rights and we do, as a workforce, work to defend those rights if we think they are being breached in any way." Gibson, a manager and office worker with 30 years of organisational tenure, also agreed with the characterisation of the culture at AdviceCo as "rights based."

In summary, I found cultural values in support of flexible working practices and employees' autonomy, management's trust in employees, aversion to change, high benevolence and high awareness of employee rights in the interview data.

5.4.3. Creation of climate for homeworking

I found several factors that contribute to the creation of a climate for homeworking. I classified them into 6 groups: organisational structure, management practices, homeworking policy, type of work, information exchange and knowledge sharing, and physical space. The factors contributing to the creation of a climate for homeworking are summarised in Table 23.

Table 23: Factors contributing to the creation of a climate for homeworking

Type of factor	Description
Organisational structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organised around key functions
Management practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Management of groups in isolation Selection of employees interested in narrow type of work Limited career development opportunities Trust-based, hands-off management style - (except for Telephone Services staff) with output based performance system. Most managers work flexibly and are supportive of flexible working. More likely to request office-based workers to do non-core activities
Homeworking policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Eligibility - Telephone Services workers are not eligible Employee suitability criteria and screening process in place Granting of homeworking is on a case by case basis, decided by line-manager Usually is taken by employees on a voluntary basis Implementation - 3 month trial. AdviceCo provides necessary equipment.
Type of work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Independent (for advisors)
Information exchange and knowledge sharing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lower information exchange and knowledge transfer among homeworkers and office-based workers than among flexible workers Managers communicate less often with homeworkers than with the other groups of employees
Physical space	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not adapted for large number of homeworkers

5.4.3.1. Organisational structure

AdviceCo's organisation is structured around functions, such as Human Resources, Strategy and Finance. The largest division (with approximately 75% of AdviceCo's employees) is dedicated to the delivery of advisory services and is organised geographically with a few UK regional bases. Within the service delivery group, an estimated 200 people work in the Telephone Services while the remaining employees are advisors of different seniority levels. Gibson, a manager and office worker with 30 years of organisational tenure, explained that, at AdviceCo, there are "roughly 350 people doing [advisory services] and then it funnels back in to around 80 or 90 staff doing [senior advisory services] and that is the next step on the career ladder." New employees joining the service delivery division at AdviceCo will start in grade 4 or 5, typically in Telephone Services. The next level in the career ladder is advisor (grade 3), then senior advisor (grade 2) and lastly senior manager (grade 1). According to an

internal report from 2011, the *Age distribution* report, the largest groups are grade 3 with 44% of employees and grade 4 with 26% of employees.

5.4.3.2. Management policies and practices

Organisational structure

The organisational structure by function at AdviceCo may have contributed to employees working in isolation. As Ralf, a manager and flexible worker with 8 years of organisational tenure, explained, employees belonging to different types of occupational groups are managed differently for valid good reasons, which "can contribute to silo working". The way the Telephone Services is managed is very structured; it clearly specifies "when people are at work and what it is that they are doing", limiting "people's choices about when they work and how they work." In contrast, senior advisors enjoy a much higher level of autonomy in terms of how they do their job as long as they meet their objectives. In between these two groups of employees, advisors (which include the large group of homeworkers) got more job autonomy than the Telephone Services but not as much as senior advisors. As a result, Ralf considers that "People on the Telephone Services perceive that they have less freedom of action than other people in the organisation" which leads to silo working and to divisions between different working groups.

Management practices

Working in isolation has been reinforced by selection practices. Even though the job description for advisors is broad, candidates who preferred a narrower range of job duties were selected. For example, Hugh, a manager and flexible worker with 25 years of organisational tenure, stated that the job description for the grade of advisors includes varied tasks such as running network groups or delivering tasks. However, AdviceCo hires people who will actually say they would not do any of those varied tasks. Unsurprisingly, when they are asked to do them, they say "no, I didn't join AdviceCo to do that."

Some interviewees were of the view that the career development opportunities within AdviceCo were limited or that the pay differential between grades was small. George, a senior manager and flexible worker with 6 years of organisational tenure, criticised AdviceCo's ability to provide employees career development opportunities. Hugh, a manager and flexible worker with 25 years of organisational tenure, noted that the "there are not many people who go up more than two grades", but the "pay differential [between grades] probably wouldn't pay off." Related to the economic pressures in the public sector, AdviceCo may promote their employees on a temporary basis at times. Mycroft, a homeworker with 20

years of organisational tenure, pointed that having temporary (rather than permanent) promotion "means that once the money runs out for that job it just disappears and then you revert back to the original grade."

In terms of management style, a culture based on trust (required for an output-oriented performance system) is also seen in the perceived approach at AdviceCo, sometimes described in the interviews as a hands-off or laid back management approach. Hugh, a manager and flexible worker with 25 years of organisational tenure, pointed out that as a manager "you take the attitude that so long as you deliver the output I don't mind when you do it...I trust you." However, as indicated earlier, managers provide less autonomy to the Telephone Services staff. Ralf, a manager and flexible worker with 8 years of organisational tenure, explained that this is the case "because the nature of the service and the nature of the technology surrounding the service means there is a much more hands-on, day-to-day, people at their desk type of approach to management." Serving as role models, managers' own working patterns reflected a culture supportive of flexible working. Based on the online survey, a large proportion (60%) of employees in the top two managerial levels (Grade 1 and 2) were flexible workers. However, a very small proportion (7%) of managers in the top 2 managerial levels worked mostly from home, which could be signalling that working mostly from home may not be compatible with working at a senior level.

When dealing with employees working from home, some managers shied away from asking homeworkers to do non-core activities because they anticipated that homeworkers would raise objections to these requests. Managers are more likely to ask an office-based worker than an employee who is working from home. This different treatment may be due to the fact that office-based workers are present and visible at the office, as Humphrey, an office-based worker with 26 years of organisational tenure, suggested. Gibson, a manager and office worker with 30 years of organisational tenure, also thought that a manager does not call a homeworker to do something that is unusual because "he knows that he is likely to get some pushback from that so he doesn't bother." This fear of "pushback" from homeworkers was shared by a few managers and expressed in different ways. This suggests that the power in the employee-organisation relationship may lay with the employee, at least, if that employee is a homeworker. Naomi, a manager and flexible worker with 16 years of organisational tenure, indicated that homeworkers may have this power as they "know you are not going to pull them back in [the office] because there isn't the space to pull them back in."

Homeworking policy

In terms of eligibility criteria, the decision to grant home working status to a specific employee is made on a case by case basis and at the discretion of the line manager. Employees in the service delivery division become eligible to work from home when they have been advisors for at least one year and have no underperformance issues. Homeworking is usually offered on a volunteer basis. The homeworking policy at AdviceCo reflects the different approach for managing the Telephone Services employees as the employees in Telephone Services and in some Administration jobs are not eligible to work from home. This means that all Telephone Services employees (with a few exceptions) are office-based. Once an employee becomes eligible, his/her request for homeworking is usually granted. Although AdviceCo provided some guidance (e.g., health and safety assessment) in order for managers to evaluate an employee's suitability for homeworking, Ralf, a manager and flexible worker with 8 years of organisational tenure, suggested that the criteria may be insufficient: "There is no attempt to assess them so long as they are hitting their targets; that is deemed enough of the criteria to say OK." There is a test period of three months before homeworking status is granted to an individual. Actual implementation for formal homeworkers usually requires paperwork (e.g., consent form) and physical set-up (phone / internet connection, IT equipment, etc.).

Type of work

The AdviceCo homeworking policy and the type of work being performed greatly determine the working patterns of the employees. Based on the survey conducted at AdviceCo, 57% of advisors worked mainly from home and 68% of senior advisors were working more flexibly (an average of two or three days a week away from the office). In contrast, the large majority of the staff working in Administration (89%), Telephone Services (96%), and Finance (67%) were office-based. Research participants in both sets of interviews explained that the type of work that advisors do is very autonomous, mainly dealing with customers remotely, and does not require much interdependence with co-workers at AdviceCo. Results from the survey confirm that task dependence is lower for some employees. For example, a minority of the advisors (19%) and Telephone Services employees (36%) reported that they needed to work closely with others compared to over 80% of employees working in IT, Human Resources and Strategy and over 75% of employees in Administration and Finance.

Information exchange and knowledge sharing

It is reasonable to expect that an organisational structure organised in occupational or functional units together with silo working and low task interdependence is less likely to lead to intergroup communications and knowledge sharing. Consistent with the task

interdependence data, results from the analysis confirmed that the level of knowledge and information sharing among employees in an advisor role or Telephone Services role is lower than for other working groups. Results are illustrated in Figures 21 and 22 in Appendix VI. In addition, survey results showed that managers are also perceived as communicating less often with homeworkers than with flexible and office-based workers. Results are illustrated in Figure 23 in Appendix VI. In terms of the content of the communications, line managers shared information that would be helpful to their direct reports' jobs less often with homeworkers than with office-based or flexible workers. These results are illustrated in Figure 24 in Appendix VI.

Physical space

The homeworking policy at AdviceCo allowed employees to go to the office as they saw fit as long as they performed their jobs. The initial homeworking provision was for homeworkers to work in the office for one day a week. However, the practice evolved over time and the vast majority of homeworkers reported going to the office no more than once per month to attend team meetings. Interviewees pointed out that some AdviceCo offices were not designed to accommodate a large number of staff working flexibly. The reasons varied. Some pointed to the design of the building being poor, others to the fact that there was not enough room for flexible workers to work at the office. In contrast, some managers felt that there was more than enough room. I went to the main offices of AdviceCo several times to conduct interviews and have meetings for research purposes. My personal observation is that the offices were not fully utilised but had little space for flexible use (such as areas with hot desks and informal social interaction).

5.4.4. Climate for homeworking

In the previous section, I examined the elements that may have contributed to create an organisational climate for homeworking at AdviceCo. In this section, I analyse the climate for homeworking, in particular those aspects of the practice that do not seem aligned with the organisational culture and/or policies. Some interviewees felt that management of the homeworking practice was not what they thought it was supposed to be in terms of screening the employees who request to become homeworkers. Interviewees mentioned that not everybody was suitable for homeworking and that screening them would prevent potential problems with employee performance that could arise. In practice, most employees who requested it were granted homeworking, regardless of their suitability. Elian, a manager and flexible worker with 20 years of organisational tenure, expressed it with these words: "We are supposed to screen but I think you can probably count on the fingers of one hand the number

of people who have been told they couldn't be a homeworker in most cases. I think it is more of, well see how they get on and if it doesn't all end in tears let them continue, type of approach which isn't probably the best way." Not only were employees not adequately screened prior to becoming homeworkers but, once they became homeworkers, if employees experienced difficulties that could affect their work, managers sometimes did not find out about it in a timely fashion. Lazarus, a manager and flexible worker with 18 years of organisational tenure, indicated that "there's a tendency for some of our homeworkers to get overwhelmed and it not to be identified until it's too far gone".

Another issue that emerged repeatedly in the interviews was that the homeworking practice was not meant to result in employees working mainly or exclusively from home. However, in a number of cases, homeworkers were seen as not being flexible enough since they did not go to the office or see clients as often as may have been required by the organisation. Alfred, a manager and flexible worker with 18 years of organisational tenure, pointed that "there is absolutely no reason why flexible homeworkers need to spend 19 out of 20 days in their house other than that is what they want." Related to this point, homeworking in practice meant doing the same job remotely over the years and not being involved in other types of activities based in the office, which was not the intended effect of the practice according to some interviewees:

"I think we've drifted in to the situation where people are working from home in a fairly chaotic rush to work from home. I think that people need not be stuck in the same homeworking job year after year after year. They should be time limited and then they should actually have to come back and do something, some core function that is office-based." - George, senior manager and flexible worker, 6 years of organisational tenure.

As a result, interviewees recognised that the homeworking practice (as utilised by some homeworkers) was not what it was meant to be. This may lead to the conclusion that the homeworking practice was not entirely consistent with the organisational culture or, in other words, the underlying assumptions of what constitutes acceptable behaviour at AdviceCo. The question that follows is how the homeworking practice came to be, to a certain degree, inconsistent with the policy and/or culturally accepted behaviour within the organisation. For example, the intensive use of homeworking was not the intended outcome when the organisation made the practice available. One could argue that the inconsistencies described fit with an organisation with a benevolent and rights-based culture, where managers have a hands-off approach. As some interviewees explained, the homeworking practice may be partly the result of the management at AdviceCo allowing it to evolve into what it currently is

"because this has been a very opportunistic evolution largely driven by cost savings and also driven by pressure from people for flexible working" (George, senior manager and flexible worker, 6 years of organisational tenure).

Results revealed not only some level of inconsistency between culture and climate, but also a degree of weakness in the climate for homeworking. Past empirical research has shown that levels of information exchange and knowledge sharing are associated with strength of organisational climate (Ehrhart et al., 2013). Since the level of information sharing and knowledge exchange is lower among homeworkers than among flexible and office-based workers as noted earlier, I would expect the organisational climate for homeworking to be weaker among AdviceCo's homeworking employees. This means that the organisation's vision and strategy regarding the practice of homeworking would be more diluted among homeworkers. According to Ehrhart and colleagues (2013), the higher the level of interdependence and communications among working groups and the more managers share the organisational vision and strategies with their employees, the stronger the organisational climate will be. Following this rationale, I would argue that the message sent by AdviceCo related to the homeworking practice (or any other HR practice) to homeworkers is not fully consistent with the intended effect. In other words, homeworkers may not understand the homeworking practice as being what it should be. For example, they may understand that it is acceptable to work from home most days when the intended usage of homeworking is to work more flexibly. This ultimately leads to making this practice not as efficient as it could be.

Therefore, management of the homeworking practice allowed insufficiently screened employees to work from home and some employees to over use this practice. This seems to indicate a climate for homeworking that is weak and not fully congruent with the culture of the organisation. In the next section, I explore the outcomes that I have found associated with this climate.

5.4.5. Outcomes of misalignment of culture with climate for homeworking

In this section, I examine collective attitudes and behaviours (such as professional isolation and individual performance) and organisational effectiveness (such as organisational performance and organisational succession). These are themes that were salient in the interviews when discussing the outcomes associated with the aspects of the organisational climate for homeworking that were not seen as being congruent with the organisational culture and/or policies. Most of these consequences have been identified and associated with the utilisation of homeworking practice (or flexible working practices) in past research, such as professional isolation (Cooper & Kurland, 2002; Golden et al., 2008), career ambition

(McCloskey & Igbaria, 2003) and individual (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007) and organisational performance (Harpaz, 2002). Taking into account the organisational context and supported by the analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data, I offer potential causal explanations for these associations.

5.4.5.1. *Collective attitudes and behaviours*

Results from the qualitative analysis connected the identified inconsistencies between culture and climate for homeworking with higher professional isolation and lower organisational commitment, career ambition, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and job performance. In some cases, this association is supported by both results from the quantitative analysis and past research. In other cases, a more complex picture is revealed, where the collective attitudes interrelate with each other and other variables (such as contextual factors) play a role in the explanation of the resulting effects on the referred attitudes and behaviours.

Intense use of homeworking was identified by interviewees as one element of misalignment between climate for homeworking and the organisational culture and/or policies at AdviceCo. Past empirical research has associated the use of homeworking with professional isolation (Cooper & Kurland, 2002) and this study is consistent with that research. Interviewees agreed that the homeworking practice did increase the level of professional isolation among those who work mainly from home. Interestingly, an interviewee considered that the use of the homeworking practice by a significant number of employees increased the sense of isolation among office-based employees as well. George, a manager and flexible worker with 6 years of organisational tenure, indicated that "office workers sometimes feel quite beleaguered, they feel the place is emptying out, there has been this drift to homeworking." The survey asked employees who worked regularly at least 20% of their working time from home whether they felt they were professionally isolated. Applying one-way analysis of variance to the online survey data, results confirmed that employees working mainly from home reported significantly higher levels of professional isolation than their more flexible co-workers. Results are shown in 25 in Appendix VI.

Interviewees also established a relationship between intense use of homeworking and low levels of engagement with the organisation. For instance, Fay, a manager and flexible worker with 20 years of organisational tenure, thought that homeworking "can and has created a culture whereby people are disengaged and don't feel an allegiance to AdviceCo". This is supported by recent research. Although past empirical research has supported a positive association of homeworking with organisational commitment (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007),

there is recent research that suggests that homeworking is associated with lower organisational commitment, as homeworkers may become more committed to work from home than to their organisation and have a more transactional view of the relationship with their employer (Tietze & Nadin, 2011). Results from analysis of variance of the online survey data indicated that not only homeworkers but also office-based workers were less committed to AdviceCo than flexible workers. Results are illustrated in Figure 26 (Appendix VI). Some interviewees associated lower organisational engagement among office-based workers with a collective sense of isolation (due to other employees working from home). George, a manager and flexible worker with 6 years of organisational tenure, reported that office-based workers may feel left behind as "people you knew and used to like are no longer in the office anymore", leading to feelings of isolation and disengagement with the organisation.

With regard to career ambition, results from both qualitative and quantitative analysis associate intense use of homeworking with lower career ambition. Although there is some empirical evidence of a positive association between career ambition and the utilisation of flexible working arrangements (Dikkers et al., 2010), a substantial amount of research suggests that there is a general perception among employees that the utilisation of such arrangements has a negative effect on career advancement (for example, Allen, 2001). This fear has been proven to be justified by past empirical research which has shown that employees using flexible working practices are perceived as being less dedicated and less interested in career progression (Almerm, Cohen, & Single, 2004; Rogier & Padgett, 2004). Results from the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data in AdviceCo seem to indicate that there was lower career ambition among homeworkers than among office-based workers and flexible workers. Analysis of the differences among group means of the survey data reveals that employees working mostly from home reported having significantly less career ambition than their office-based or flexible co-workers. Figure 27 in Appendix VI illustrates career ambition by employee working pattern. According to some interviewees, one of the barriers for homeworkers to progress on the career ladder is that promotion would require them to work more flexibly. Giving up working from home may not be something that all homeworkers are willing to do. As Hugh, a manager and flexible worker with 25 years of organisational tenure, pointed out "when you get promoted you give up your homeworking status which is obviously one of the bars and why some people say they are not interested." A senior manager (Ralf, manager and flexible worker, 8 years of organisational tenure) explained the reason why working mostly from home is not compatible with holding a senior position, especially at times when organisational changes are happening. A physical presence at the office, where a number of employees work on a regular basis, is perceived as required, "particularly at times of difficulty, times of change." According to Ralf, the

required presence for managers at the office "is about being there for people." He thought that the risk of allowing a senior manager to become a homeworker is that "difficulties could be occurring in the office and they [homeworking senior managers] might be almost totally oblivious to them."

In the interviews, professional isolation was also negatively linked to the individual performance of the employees working mostly from home. This is consistent with past empirical research that identified a negative impact of professional isolation on individual performance (Rogier & Padgett, 2004). "Are they [homeworkers] absolutely, through no fault of their own, ever getting into poor practices and not realising it and they are isolated in doing that?" questioned Grace, an office-based manager with 19 years of organisational tenure. Alfred, a manager and flexible worker with 18 years of organisational tenure, also agreed that professional isolation had a negative effect on people's ability as it is "difficult to self learn and develop when you don't have any contact with others who are doing the same role." However, past empirical research on the benefits of homeworking also suggests that employees working from home may report working longer hours (Kelliher & Anderson, 2009) and be more productive than their co-workers (van der Meulen, van Baalen, & van Heck, 2014). Some managers participating in the interviews recognised that homeworking may help employees to become more productive in their core tasks. For example, Priya, a manager and flexible worker with 7 years of organisational tenure, reported that "sometimes they [homeworkers] are less distracted and they get more done." Using performance data provided by AdviceCo, I analysed the differences in individual performance between employees working from home (homeworkers and flexible workers) and office-based workers. Analysis of the differences among group means indicated that managers rated the performance of employees working from home higher than that of office-based workers. However, these differences were not statistically significant. Results of the analysis of differences in individual performance by working pattern are depicted in Figure 28 in Appendix VI. One potential explanation for the lack of statistically significant differences could be that the variability of the individual performance scores was very limited for the time period of the performance data.

Regarding another important employee behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), I also found that that intense use of homeworking was associated with lower OCB. Although past empirical evidence suggests that there is a positive relationship between homeworking and OCB (Anderson & Kelliher, 2009; Gajendran et al., 2015), when homeworking is a customary or normative practice (as it is in the case at AdviceCo), the positive relationship between homeworking and OCB may be weaker (Gajendran et al.,

2015). In the case of AdviceCo, results do not support a strong positive association between working from home and OCB. Consistent with the results on professional isolation, those employees who were found to be less professionally isolated, the flexible workers, were perceived as those employees more willing to do something extra for the organisation. When discussing how employees respond to doing a non core task, Hugh, a manager and flexible worker with 25 years of organisational tenure, indicated that flexible workers (rather than homeworkers) "are the sorts of people who say I don't want to be an outsider. I will do anything."

5.4.5.2. Organisational effectiveness

Analysis of the interview data seemed to indicate that employees who kept doing the same type of work, independently from each other, may have had a negative effect on organisational performance: potential business opportunities may have been lost given the lack of information sharing among employees. The intensive use of homeworking was seen as having a negative effect on organisational performance. George, a manager and flexible worker with 6 years of organisational tenure, also pointed to the risk of AdviceCo becoming a 'faceless' organisation, where the use of homeworking is so extended among employees that it is decreasing not only the level of social interaction among employees but also the level of satisfaction of external customers. This negative effect on customer satisfaction may ultimately impact AdviceCo's organisational performance.

In a public sector organisation such as AdviceCo, where employees may be more risk averse than in the commercial sector (Buurman et al., 2012), where they tend to work in the same organisation for a long time (or at least remain in the public sector) and where the culture is change averse, it is reasonable to expect that managers would have difficulties when trying to implement changes. Analysis of the interviews indicates that intensive use of homeworking by some employees may have exacerbated the difficulties in bringing change to the organisation. Lazarus, a manager and flexible worker with 18 years of organisational tenure, explained that once employees got above a certain grade and work from home, they tend to stay around and "that becomes an entrenched culture, a rigidity that is difficult to change." Gibson, a manager and office worker with 30 years of organisational tenure, further explained that homeworkers are "one step removed from mainstream AdviceCo and when we want to bring in change as we are doing now, that one step removed makes it more difficult than it otherwise would be if they were all in the office."

Looking at the positive side, homeworking was seen by interviewees as helping AdviceCo to meet their equality and diversity objectives. The fact that 5% of the survey participants

reported working from home in order to help manage a long-term illness, health problem or disability they had may indicate that the homeworking practice helps AdviceCo in achieving their equality and diversity targets. At the same time, the homeworking practice was also found to allow AdviceCo to meet their office space strategy of cost control/reduction and concentration in publicly owned locations. Moreover, some employees were hired as homeworkers so that AdviceCo could have a presence in remote areas without having to maintain local offices. This contributes to a more effective delivery of services.

Organisational succession also emerged in the interviews as being a very important challenge for AdviceCo due to it having an ageing workforce. The fact that a significant number of employees will retire within the next few years means that AdviceCo will need to identify employees with the right level of expertise to replace them in a relatively short period of time. The intensive utilisation of homeworking practice by some employees combined with low career ambition seems to have aggravated the issue of organisational succession. When asked about the drawbacks of the homeworking practice for the organisation, one senior manager (George, senior manager and flexible worker with 6 years of organisational tenure) confirmed that the lack of employee interest in doing a different type of job, one that would require less homeworking, might cause a problem for organisational succession. Having a culture that is supportive of flexible working may also be helping AdviceCo to retain an ageing workforce. Working from home may have made it possible for older employees to keep working and/or take care of elderly dependents. This idea is confirmed by some interviewees. Results from the survey analysis showed that 1 in 4 employees reported having caring responsibilities other than for children and most of these employees (55%) were 50 years old or over.

Added to an ageing workforce, a combination of other factors is also seen to lead to a problem in organisational succession such as contextual factors (recruitment restrictions), management practices (internal career development), silo working, professional isolation and low career ambition.

5.4.5.3. Other factors influencing outcomes of climate for homeworking

Would professional isolation have existed without the created climate for homeworking at AdviceCo? It seems reasonable to expect a certain level of professional isolation in an organisation whose structure is divided along key occupational functions with little interdependence and communication among working groups. Hugh, a manager and flexible worker with 25 years of organisational tenure, noted that "in the office everybody is siloed anyway so we've siloed in advance of homeworking just by the very job nature".

Management practices based on autonomy and trust (except for the Telephone Services group), support for flexible working (except for the Telephone Services group), silo working, and a benevolent and rights-based culture may have contributed to the creation of a separate 'breed' of employees formed of homeworking advisors. Gibson, a manager and office worker with 30 years of organisational tenure, supports the idea of advisors, the largest group at AdviceCo, being a "kind of different breed from the rest of the staff". As he explained, advisors "have their own case load, they have their own way of working, they can elect, assuming they meet their criteria, to become homeworkers, that puts them at one step removed from mainstream AdviceCo." From the analysis of the interview data, the type of work and differential treatment by managers seemed to be the main contributing factors to the level of lower employee engagement among homeworkers. Gibson did not find it surprising that flexible workers were the most engaged in the organisation as they were "the people who have the most, I would say, the most interesting jobs, the most varied jobs, the most interesting challenges, the most opportunities to get out there and talk to different people in different environments." Having an interesting job and more autonomy positively influences employee engagement, and this is consistent with past research (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

The design of the workspace may have also played a role in making employees disengaged with the organisation. Supporting this point, George, a manager and flexible worker with 6 years of organisational tenure, indicated that "the place feels very bland, very corporate. I am not surprised people are disengaged." High workload and lack of time (external contextual factors) in a results-based performance system were also identified as causes for homeworking employees not being more in contact with the office and the managers not putting pressure on their employees to do so. This results in employees not feeling part of one organisation. Ralf, a manager and flexible worker with 8 years of organisational tenure, summarised this idea: "We are all extremely busy and because you are really busy if that is what you are doing I am not going to put any more pressure on you to do these other things. The consequence of that, ironically, is that people are driven further and further away from any sense of being part of one organisation." As such, intensive use of homeworking may be both a cause and a consequence of lower employee engagement with their organisation.

Lower career ambition among homeworkers could be partially explained by the financial terms of a promotion that do not compensate for increased responsibilities and, in the case of homeworkers, becoming more flexible and commuting to the office more often. Furthermore, the fact that homeworkers reported being less willing to advance in their careers may not be because of the effect of homeworking, but because employees with less

career ambition may be more likely to choose working from home. Priya, a manager and flexible worker with 7 years of organisational tenure, did not know "whether it is people who decided, for whatever reason, that they want to make their career slightly less important in their lives therefore are more likely to look for homeworking or whether being at home makes people more home focused and less interested in what goes on in the workplace." Gibson, a manager and office worker with 30 years of organisational tenure, did think that "there are people who aspire, when they join us, to become a homeworker." Similarly, a more ambitious group, the flexible workers, already have a higher proportion of employees in higher managerial levels and may see themselves progressing further, as Priya also noted.

The selection of employees interested in a narrow type of job and a performance appraisal system assessing a narrow range of criteria (all at the individual level), rather than a selection process taking into account team or organisational measures (such as knowledge sharing), may have contributed to individuals focusing on in-role behaviour. In addition, the way the homeworking practice was managed was also perceived as contributing towards employees displaying lower OCB. Gibson, a manager and office worker with 30 years of organisational tenure, noted that at the time when AdviceCo started the homeworking programme, the emphasis was placed on what the organisation would do for the employee and not vice versa, perhaps due to a lack of sufficient foresight. One could also expect that employees who have autonomous and narrow types of jobs (such as advisors) will be less motivated to engage in discretionary extra-role behaviours. In addition, a high workload, an output based performance system and working most of the time from home were other factors that were seen to have contributed to a decrease in OCB among homeworkers in the interviews. Ralf, a manager and flexible worker with 8 years of organisational tenure, supported this point: "...when you combine that [results based performance] with patterns of work, like homeworking, the increased demand that everybody is trying to deal with, then people can retreat behind just dealing with the immediate "what do I need to get done today." However, homeworkers may engage less in OCB activities simply because working away from the office may limit the opportunities to do so.

An internal contextual factor that may have contributed to a less positive view of the relationship between employees and their organisation is the fact that a significant proportion of employees have been working for AdviceCo or the public sector for a long time. They may not have a perspective of what it is like to work in another (or in a commercial) organisation and their expectations may be unrealistic. Ralf, a manager and flexible worker with 8 years of organisational tenure, noted that "some of the perceptions are driven by a lack of knowledge of what life is like outside of AdviceCo. I strongly believe that some of the negative

perceptions people have about working life in AdviceCo are partly fuelled by the fact that frankly they don't know how much worse it can be elsewhere."

In summary, several contextual and management factors (such as type of occupation, level of management control, output based performance, workspace design) may have contributed to negative effects on collective attitudes and behaviours and organisational effectiveness at AdviceCo. In some cases, homeworking may have intensified these negative effects.

5.5. Conclusion

This case study aimed to contribute to the organisational culture and climate literature and homeworking literature by addressing two questions concerning AdviceCo: 1) Is the climate for homeworking congruent with the organisational culture? and 2) If not, what are the elements of incongruence and how did they develop? In this section, I discuss contributions to both theory and practice while answering these questions.

5.5.1. Contribution to the organisational culture and climate literature

Regarding the first research question, the results from the analysis conducted seem to indicate that the climate for homeworking is not entirely consistent with the organisational culture. With regard the second question, the elements found misaligned with AdviceCo's values and acceptable behaviours are insufficient screening of employees who applied to become homeworkers, inadequate management of the homeworking practice, and the intensive utilisation of homeworking by some employees. In addition, the paper identified multiple contextual (e.g., budget restrictions, increase in workload) and organisational (e.g., culture, management practices) factors that had an influence on the creation of the climate for homeworking at AdviceCo and help explain its evolution to its current state and, hence, address the second part of the second research question. As such, the present study provides an explanation of how an HR practice, homeworking, links organisational culture with climate, addressing a knowledge gap in the organisational culture and climate literature identified by recent literature reviews (Ostroff et al., 2012; Schneider et al., 2013).

The present study also provides support to prior research that stressed that inconsistencies in the organisational culture-climate relationship and lack of strength of climate may negatively affect organisational performance (Ostroff et al., 2012; Schein, 2000). Although homeworking seems to have helped AdviceCo in meeting some of their objectives (e.g., office space reduction), the incongruent elements of the climate for homeworking and its lack of strength at AdviceCo may have negatively contributed to outcomes in terms of collective attitudes and behaviours (e.g., career ambition, individual performance) and organisational

effectiveness (e.g., organisational performance, effective relationship with customers).

Moreover, since one of the key strengths of a case study is to offer a detailed description of a social process (Leenders et al., 2001), the case study approach of this study allowed for an explanation of how multiple contextual and organisational factors seemed to have significant effects on the examined outcomes of the misaligned aspects of culture and climate. For example, the physical workspace of the office may have contributed to some employees' extensive use of homeworking. The extensive use of homeworking was found to be inconsistent with the intended use of homeworking by the organisation, causing tension between organisational culture and climate. Intensive use of homeworking may have contributed to multiple negative consequences such as an increase in professional isolation and a decrease in knowledge sharing.

This study also shows how the climate for homeworking might have led to unfavourable outcomes (such as low career ambition or organisational citizenship behaviour) that might have already been taking place in the organisation without the practice of homeworking. For example, a high workload, narrow job description and output-based performance system (narrow criteria and individual) were seen as having a negative effect on organisation citizenship behaviour. The climate for homeworking exacerbated this effect.

5.5.2. Contribution to the homeworking literature

This paper contributes to a better understanding of the consequences of homeworking. It both supports and challenges past research on the potential effects of homeworking on individuals and organisations. At the same time, it offers an explanation of cause and effect relationships between numerous variables, which include organisational and environmental context, with a multi-level approach. For example, it supports prior research that identified professional isolation as a potential negative effect of homeworking (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). Furthermore, the findings of the present study also points to the potential association between extended homeworking among the employees in an organisation and professional isolation of the office-based workers. The resulting effect is that those employees who use homeworking moderately are those who reported feeling less isolated.

Regarding work-related attitudes, the results of this study challenge past research that associates homeworking with higher organisational commitment (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007) and found support for homeworkers feeling more commitment to their mode of working than their organisation (Tietze & Musson, 2005). Results also revealed how the external context (e.g., increased workload, lack of higher paid job opportunities outside AdviceCo), internal context (e.g., employee's long organisational tenure), factors that helped to create

climate for homeworking (e.g., type of job, more controlling management approach towards the Telephone Services group, physical space) and intensive use of homeworking explained a lower organisational commitment among homeworkers. At the same time, I found evidence that office-based employees reported less commitment to the organisation than employees working from home for two or three days.

This case study also found evidence that employees working from home may effectively choose this mode of work over career advancement, confirming the perception that those who use work-life practices are not seen as being committed to the organisation (McCloskey & Igbaria, 2003; Thompson, 2008). With regard to individual performance, a negative effect identified in this study is that, as homeworkers may be perceived as staying longer than they should in their jobs, it may lead to performance stagnation.

At the organisational level, confirmation of positive effects from past research, such as helping the organisation to meet its office space strategy (e.g., reduction of number of offices), was found. In contrast, I found that extensive homeworking may lead to a 'faceless' organisation and negatively affect customer satisfaction. Homeworking can also help to exacerbate succession planning problems in an organisation with an ageing workforce and be a barrier when the implementation of organisational change is required.

Overall, this thesis provides evidence of the benefits of working from home on an moderate basis (two to three days per week) over working mostly from the office or from home, supporting some of the findings on homeworking intensity by prior research (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

5.5.3. Contribution to practice

Literature reviews on homeworking (e.g., Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Harpaz, 2002) provide a valuable overview of potential effects of homeworking on its different stakeholders. However, for practitioners, the additional value of this paper is to contribute to the effective management of homeworking practices by gaining a better understanding of the effects of homeworking on a specific organisation. To facilitate this understanding and bring to life the issues discussed, this study provides a rich portrayal in a real-life setting and includes numerous direct quotes by the research participants.

This case study shows the significant role that management practices (e.g., inappropriate screening of homeworkers) and style (e.g., a "hands-off" approach) play in generating inconsistencies between organisational culture and climate for homeworking and weakening the strength of this climate, with negative consequences for organisational effectiveness. The

examination of this example may help managers to evaluate and adjust their own management practices to successfully meet their business objectives while offering homeworking to their employees.

This study offers additional value to managers by conducting a multi-level analysis. As Hitt et al. (2007, p. 1385) note, "Most management problems involve multilevel phenomena, yet most management research uses a single level of analysis. A micro or a macro lens alone yields incomplete understanding at either level."

Since inconsistencies between culture and climate could indicate a need for organisational change (Schein, 2000), this paper could also help managers to identify the need for changes in their organisations and inform the implementation process of those changes. By showing how a theoretical model can be applied in practice to a specific organisation, this paper can guide managers in recognising potential inconsistencies in the culture-climate relationship in their own organisations, identify their antecedents and consequences and design and implement plans to repair them if considered necessary.

5.6. Limitations

While addressing the research questions, this case study attempted to provide a detailed description of the culture-climate alignment with a focus on the homeworking practice. The resulting analysis is limited by the fact that it is my own construction of the interviewees' construction of the behaviour of their colleagues and organisation. This limitation is usually recognised when interpreting culture (Geertz, 1994) and may call into question the validity of the results. In order to minimise the risks associated with this limitation, I aimed to reinforce the validity of the results with the use of a considerable amount of qualitative and quantitative data from multiple sources.

Given that this is a case study based in a particular organisation, this analysis may also have limitations with regard to generalisation of results, like much of qualitative research (Tsang, 2014b; Yin, 2014).

5.7. Future research

The theoretical framework that I started from was the multi-level model of organisational culture and climate by Ostroff et al. (2012) to address the research questions regarding homeworking. Future researchers could also build an in-depth case study focusing on another HR practice or flexible working practice to deepen our understanding of the relationship between organisational culture and climate.

The findings of the current study not only provide a detailed application of Ostroff and colleagues' theoretical framework, but also go beyond it as a significant number of variables and relationships between them were identified. Future research could focus on validating some of the identified relationships. For example, this study identified a relationship between physical space and the intense use of homeworking practice. The perception that the office space was not designed (e.g., by not having enough flexible work desks or meeting areas) to support a considerable proportion of the workforce working from home or flexibly was associated with employees choosing not to go the office to work and continuing to work mostly from home instead. In other words, the workspace design may have contributed to employees utilising the homeworking practice more than they would have desired. Prior research has indicated that the new flexible working practices require a new workplace strategy for the physical space (V. Gibson, 2003). A new trend in the evolution of homeworking is the return to physical colocation to gain benefits such as culture alignment and teamwork, but with a difference: the old cubicles are replaced with more flexible and communal workspaces (Johns & Gratton, 2013). Action intervention research could further investigate the impact of a changing workspace at the office on the utilisation of homeworking, knowledge sharing, collaboration, organisational commitment and productivity.

This paper also found a positive association between the extended use of homeworking by a significant number of employees and the professional isolation of office-based co-workers. Although past research has found that homeworking may have negative effects on office-based co-workers, such as decreased co-worker satisfaction (Golden, 2007), there is little empirical evidence that links extensive homeworking with the professional isolation of office-based workers.

Another potential area for future enquiry could be exploring the organisational changes that an organisation such as AdviceCo would need to implement to address the identified negative outcomes. As the evidence from this paper seems to suggest that there may be a deliberate strategy of non intervention by management in some cases (perhaps due to cultural elements such as aversion to change), the first question is what is the tipping point that may trigger the need for change in an organisation with such a culture. Other questions that this case study raises that could lead to productive future research in the field of organisational change are: "What are the organisational changes required?" and "What are the management interventions that would bring the desired changes and how should they be implemented?"

6. CONCLUSION

6.1. Main findings and theoretical contribution

6.2. Wider contribution

6.3. Discussion

6.4. A peek into the future?

6.5. Temporality

6.6. Future research directions

6.7. Concluding thoughts

6. CONCLUSION

The three papers of this dissertation sought to contribute to the work-life literature by each pursuing a different line of investigation. The results and contribution of each paper were discussed separately in the previous 3 chapters. In this concluding chapter, I will bring the key findings together against the relevant theories, discuss the broader theoretical contributions and highlight directions for future research.

6.1. Main findings and theoretical contribution

First, this dissertation highlights the importance of considering work-life enrichment together with work-life conflict and a life-stage perspective when studying the work-life interface of individuals, contributing to the work-interface field. By integrating work-life conflict with enrichment (commonly researched separately) by life stage (a perspective infrequently taken in the work-life literature), the empirical evidence from this study suggests that, as expected, life stage may contribute to shape an individual's work-life balance. Contrary to expectations based on prior research into the work-life interface by life stage (Demerouti et al., 2012; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), findings from the quantitative analysis also revealed that employees in an early life stage may be more likely to experience a high level of work-life enrichment and low level of work-life conflict (beneficial work-life balance) than employees in the late life stage. This may denote that, based on work-life balance, employees in the early life stage are more likely to exhibit higher levels of positive work-related attitudes (such as job satisfaction) and behaviours than older employees. This also raises a question of whether it really is life stage that is important or whether it is life stage and psychological functioning that shape an individual's work-life balance.

Second, this dissertation contributes to the EOR and homeworking literature. It uses an employee-organisation relationship framework that incorporates the views of both employees and employer (again, an uncommon approach in the EOR literature) to further our understanding of the consequences of homeworking. The results of the qualitative analysis, triangulated with quantitative data, indicated that homeworking may affect the relationship between employee and employer. In some cases, employee and employer perceive homeworking differently, which leads to a difference in perceptions of their relationship. Employee and employer may differ in their view of the content exchanged (homeworking in this case) and the quality of their relationship. Differences in employee and employer perceptions may have consequences for organisations. For example, some expected benefits from homeworking (e.g., increased effort or OCB) may decline over time as homeworking may be perceived by the employee as a "right" rather than a privilege provided

by the employer. These findings have several implications for the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). First, it shows how an unbalanced EOR (such as perceived overinvestment by the employer) can foster other unbalanced EORs (such as perceived underinvestment by the employee) over time, fuelled by a sense of employee entitlement. Consistent with the norm of reciprocity, if homeworking is perceived as a right (rather than a privilege), the employee will be less likely to feel indebted to his/her employer and also less likely to reciprocate with socio-emotional resources (e.g., organisational commitment). Evidence from this study seems to indicate that this change in the EOR occurs gradually over time, after an adaptation period, rather than suddenly, like an alteration in social exchange triggered by an anchoring event (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). Second, evidence from this dissertation appears to indicate that an overinvestment management approach may be deliberate at AdviceCo. This seems to denote that, perhaps, the EOR may be a non-reciprocity based relationship in the view of some representatives of AdviceCo; it may be governed by altruism, where a party seeks provide a benefit to the other party in the relationship, without regard for what it would cost to him/her (Meeker, 1971).

Finally, this dissertation extends our knowledge of the relationship between organisational culture and climate and the organisational implications of homeworking. Making use of a multi-level theoretical model, it examines the role of homeworking in the alignment between organisational culture and climate based on the analysis of data from multiple sources. Taking a qualitative and quantitative approach, I found that the resulting climate for homeworking had some elements that were not consistent with the organisational culture. I also found indications of a weak climate for homeworking. These inconsistencies and lack of climate strength may have led to unfavourable outcomes in terms of collective attitudes and behaviours (e.g., organisational commitment) and organisational outcomes (e.g., organisational performance). The study also revealed that there were numerous contextual, cultural and management factors that may have significantly contributed to these identified outcomes. In some cases, homeworking was found to intensify or aggravate an already existing organisational issue (organisational succession). Overall, this paper found that moderate use of homeworking (two or three days a week), rather than working mostly from home or the office, brought most benefits to the employee and employer.

6.2. Wider contribution

The broader research gaps in the work-life literature that this thesis attempted to contribute to are as follows: integration of work-life constructs across disciplines, inclusion of context and bridging theory with practice.

An integrative approach

The contribution of this dissertation greatly relies on the integrative approach taken. Considering it in its entirety, this dissertation incorporates insights from a variety of theoretical frameworks (work-life conflict and enrichment, the employee-organisation relationship, organisational culture and climate) to improve our understanding of how work and life issues relate to each other and the consequences of one work-life practice, namely homeworking.

This thesis considers work-life balance as a combination of work-life conflict and enrichment with a life stage perspective. Studies involving both the positive and negative sides of the work-life interface are rare, and taking a life stage perspective on work-life balance is uncommon (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Huffman et al., 2013). Combining the positive (enrichment) and negative (conflict) sides of the work-life interface is pertinent, as it is the way individuals experience such an interface in practice that may result in different outcomes from those expected when conflict and enrichment are considered separately (Rantanen et al., 2011). Taking a life stage perspective is important as life and career stages may help to determine the resources and demands that an individual has in his/her work and private life domains and, consequently, influence work-life conflict and enrichment (Demerouti et al., 2012).

This dissertation also takes into account the perspectives of both parties involved in the EOR, which is unusual in the EOR literature (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). Including the employee's and employer's perspective has been identified as a research priority in order to better understand the interactions between both parties (Conway & Briner, 2009; Taylor & Tekleab, 2004). Studies addressing this gap in the EOR literature suggest that a shared understanding of the EOR between the employee and employer may have a significant impact on their respective interdependent objectives (Boxall, 2013; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Lee et al., 2011). As such, one could argue that it makes sense to consider both the employee and employer views when studying the EOR.

I also applied a multi-level framework to study the impact of homeworking on an organisation, while most management research uses a single level of analysis (Hitt et al., 2007). Research crossing levels, such as individual and organisational, addresses a gap in the organisational climate literature and the work-life literature (Kossek et al., 2010; Ostroff et al., 2012; Zohar & Luria, 2005). Paraphrasing Hitt and colleagues (Hitt et al., 2007), since most of management problems encompass multi-level social phenomena, a micro or macro approach alone provides an incomplete understanding of such phenomena.

Inclusion of context

Past research (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kossek & Lautsch, 2012; Kossek et al., 2010; Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013) has encouraged the inclusion of context in order to expand our understanding of work-life issues. This dissertation addresses this call for research. Based on the ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1994) and the Job Demands-Resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001), the hypotheses of Paper I proposed that life stage provides the context that shapes the employee's work-life interface. Each life stage brings a different combination of work-life resources and demands which, in turn, generate different combinations of work-life conflict and enrichment (Demerouti et al., 2012). As explained earlier, results support the idea that life stage may help to determine an individual's work-life balance. This dissertation also examines social processes in a "real" life context: it helps to understand how the organisational and environmental context influences social processes (Leenders et al., 2001). It provides an account of how external and internal contextual factors impact the congruence of organisational culture with climate for homeworking at AdviceCo. Results show that context can play a significant role in the identified inconsistencies between organisational culture and climate for homeworking.

Bridging theory with practice

Work-life research has been criticised for its lack of practical relevance in some instances, and researchers have appealed for more to be done in establishing and deepening links between theory and practice (Jones et al., 2006; Kelly et al., 2008). While I do not have any knowledge of AdviceCo taking forward the recommendations from this research, this dissertation by design provides relevant information to practitioners in such a way that they can actually translate it into practice. With its multi-level approach, it shows how organisational cultural aspects and management practices and style have contributed to inconsistencies between organisational culture, homeworking practice and the climate for homeworking. It also provides evidence of how these inconsistencies may lead to unfavourable consequences for the organisation.

Practitioners can adapt the multi-level framework developed by Ostroff and colleagues (2012) and used for the analysis in this dissertation to systematically assess work-life initiatives in their own organisations. As shown in this dissertation, this assessment should include the context or, in other words, the environment in which work-life initiatives are to be implemented or currently taking place, in order to better understand the underlying causes of potential issues. It is likely that this assessment will reveal areas of tension, just as this dissertation identified tensions between the organisational culture and the climate for

homeworking at AdviceCo. Such tensions might indicate a need for organisational change (Schein, 2000). Tensions (such as managers' resistance to non-traditional working practices or conflicting employees' and employer's needs) can be productive as they can generate learning (Kossek et al., 2010). Identifying areas of tension is a necessary first step to address them; it supports the organisation in designing an action plan (with specific objectives, activities/tasks, measures and timeline), such that employee and employer collaboratively address the identified areas of tension, find mutually beneficial solutions and drive the organisational changes required. The case study of AdviceCo explains how management practices (e.g., inappropriate screening of homeworkers) and style (e.g., "hands-off" approach) may generate tensions between organisational culture and climate for homeworking and weaken the climate, with subsequent negative consequences for organisational effectiveness. AdviceCo's case study may help managers to avoid similar problems in their organisations.

This dissertation identifies further areas for improvement potentially helpful to practitioners seeking to avoid similar problems in their own firms. For example, results suggested that employees in late adulthood are more likely to report a passive work-life balance (low conflict and enrichment), which is not the optimal balance type in terms of associated work-related outcomes (e.g., employee engagement, job satisfaction) and well-being (Rantanen et al., 2011). Practitioners (and, by extension, policy-makers) might benefit from understanding the needs of a population segment (individuals in late adulthood) which will become prevalent in the future (Leibold & Voelpel, 2006; Shultz & Adams, 2012), in order to design targeted policies and practices for such a population segment. If a significant proportion of older employees has a passive work-life balance, policies and practices that foster the acquisition and utilisation of resources (such as a flexible work schedule) would potentially increase work-life enrichment and, hence, positively impact work-related attitudes and behaviours, and well-being.

In another example, this dissertation finds differences in the perception of the relationship between employee and employer with regard to homeworking. It finds evidence of an excessive sense of entitlement to homeworking by some employees, such that this sense of entitlement is associated with employees not meeting employer expectations in terms of work-related attitudes and behaviours (such as discretionary citizenship behaviours). Consequently, it stresses the idea that homeworking practices need to be actively managed with clear and effective communications in order to minimise potential differences in perceptions of the EOR between employee and employer and to promote the perception of organisational support among employees.

6.3. Discussion

Paper III, a multi-level analysis of a broad range of individual and organisational variables, offers a good platform to further interpret the results of Paper I and Paper II. Aspects of AdviceCo's culture (e.g., "benevolent" culture) and management style (e.g., "hands off" approach) identified in Paper III are consistent with the overinvestment organisational approach used to manage employees identified in Paper II. The "rights based" culture found in Paper III fits with employees' sense of entitlement to homeworking, that is, understanding homeworking as a right rather than a benefit provided by the organisation, as demonstrated in Paper II.

Similarly, a "benevolent" type of culture in an organisation that values investing in its employees (as shown in Paper III) and that offers extensive access to flexible work practices (as shown in Paper II and Paper III) may help to explain why the vast majority of employees reported not experiencing work-life conflict, as found in Paper I. Perhaps employees feeling disengaged with the organisation and less motivated to exhibit OCB (as revealed in Paper II and Paper III), may also explain the significant proportion of employees with a passive work-life balance (as revealed in Paper I).

In summary, even though this dissertation illustrates the case of an organisation where the work-life interface of employees seems generally very positive, as the majority of employees reported having a beneficial work-life balance, it also supplies evidence of negative collective attitudes and behaviours and organisational performance issues that justify both employees and employer wanting to implement changes.

6.4. A peek into the future?

In a sense, this dissertation offers a glimpse into what could be the future for some organisations, a view of both potential benefits and drawbacks that could take place in the evolution of homeworking from a marginalised HR practice to a core or normalised one.

Kossek and colleagues (2010) claim that there is a need for organisations to offer work-life policies and practices in order to respond to societal (e.g., an increasing representation of women in the workforce and an ageing population), economic (global recession of 2008/09) and technological changes in a progressively competitive environment. They also note that since these work-life initiatives are usually marginalised in organisations, they are not as efficient as they could be. Reduced employee stress, increased talent attraction and retention, gender equality, and wider employment of human resources are some of the main benefits that mainstreamed work-life policies could yield (Kossek et al., 2010; Ryan &

Kossek, 2008).

Marginalised policies refer to those that are not fully integrated in an organisation. Several barriers might preclude work-life initiatives from being effectively implemented and used at the organisational, work group, supervisor and individual level (Thompson, 2008). At the organisational level, one of the main reasons these initiatives are marginalised is the lack of organisation cultural support, as they clash with basic assumptions about the masculinised "ideal" worker (whose primary priority is his/her work role over his/her non-work role) that are still prevalent in the workplace in developed countries (Kelly, Ammons, Chermack, & Moen, 2010; Kossek et al., 2010). Employees may choose not to utilise these practices, as they (particularly men) may fear that these practices will negatively impact their career prospects (Bailyn, 1993; Thompson, 2008; Williams, 1999). Another reason behind the marginalisation of work-life initiatives in organisations is the underlying organisational and societal assumption that progress is about economic (rather than social) success, an assumption that may explain tensions in the interests of different stakeholders such as employees, families, organisations and society (Bailyn, 2006; Kossek et al., 2010). As Bailyn (2006, p. IX) explains, "Despite talk about family values, and despite awareness of these problems [e.g. care of elders or one's own children], the integration of economic purpose with equity and care has not been made". Furthermore, Bailyn (2006) posits that, given the requirement of meeting economic organisational objectives and employee needs, if emphasis is put on meeting only one of these concerns, it will unavoidably undercut the other.

A negative consequence of marginalised work-life initiatives is the risk of stigmatisation, as the employees who make use of work-life practices are not perceived to conform to the "ideal" worker norm. Marginalised work-life initiatives are perceived to be privileged accommodations for those employees who use them. Marginalised work-life initiatives may also lead to managers handling work-life issues differently for users and non-users of those policies, potentially producing negative consequences for the non-users (Kossek et al., 2010). For example, Lautsch, Kossek, and Eaton (2009) found that homeworkers who are encouraged by their supervisors to create boundaries between the work and home domains (in order to reduce work-life conflict) may be less likely to engage in discretionary behaviours at work. This could result in higher workload and work-family conflict for office-based co-workers (Lautsch et al., 2009).

The organisational backdrop for this dissertation is the type of organisational setting that Kossek and colleagues (2010) claim to be the aim for the implementation of work-life practices. This dissertation studies the case when homeworking has become standard or mainstreamed in an organisation and explores the potential drawbacks that may develop in

this situation. AdviceCo is an organisation where homeworking is viewed as "business as usual". Requests for homeworking are usually granted and a large proportion of employees and managers are working from home on a regular basis.

Some of the benefits that Kossek and colleagues expected from mainstreamed work-life initiatives are apparent at AdviceCo. The absence of work-life conflict reported by the overwhelming majority of the employees seems to suggest that employee stress is very low. Employees who need the homeworking arrangement to better balance their work and life domains, may request and adopt this practice without being fearful that it will diminish their career advancement opportunities. The absence of work-life conflict is expected to provide multiple benefits in terms of health (Frone et al., 1997), life satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), work-related attitudes such as job satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998) and work-related behaviours such as job performance (Allen et al., 2000; Netemeyer et al., 2005)

However, the current study also calls into question the assumption that mainstreaming work-life initiatives may bring benefits that will positively impact organisational effectiveness. In the case of AdviceCo, employees' perception of homeworking as an entitlement rather than a privileged accommodation seemed to have brought some challenges to the organisation. It may have led to negative effects on employees' attitudes and behaviours such as decreased extra role behaviours. This negative effect supports previous work by Gajendran et al. (2015) where "normativeness" of homeworking was associated with homeworkers being less motivated to engage in discretionary citizenship behaviours.

Taking one step further, one also wonders about the benefits for organisations in a society where work-life practices are mainstreamed into the organisations. Benefits such as increased talent attraction and retention, and wider employment of human resources may be questionable in this scenario. If access to work-life practices is generalised amongst organisations, such practices would not be a source of competitive advantage for an organisation in terms of attracting and retaining employees or having access to a wider human resource pool than other organisations.

Given the current demographic trend of an ageing population (Leibold & Voelpel, 2006; Shultz & Adams, 2012), this dissertation also provides a view of the potential challenges of having a workforce where a significant number of employees is over 55 years old. This could be the future age distribution of the workforce for many organisations and suggests the need for increased attention to the work-life issues of older employees. In terms of work-life balance, Paper I seems to indicate that older employees are more likely to have a passive work-life balance (low conflict and enrichment) than younger employees. A passive work-life

balance is associated with lower employee engagement and satisfaction than those employees with an active work-life balance. In addition, Paper III explains the potential negative consequences of the combination of an ageing workforce with intensive use of homeworking and low career ambition (resulting from employees choosing homeworking over career progression) on organisational succession. Therefore, these issues present challenges that employees and organisations may need to address.

6.5. Temporality

A common thread that runs through each empirical study of this dissertation is temporality and it is the reason that temporal context is part of the title of this dissertation. Paper I takes the perspective of an individual's career span and explores differences in work-life balance by life stage. Paper II examines the effect of homeworking on the relationship between employee and employer in the medium to long term. Paper III explains how and why the climate for homeworking evolved over time to become incongruent with the organisational culture in some aspects and what the likely effect of this incongruence would be on the organisation. The dimension of time is relevant because it allows the three papers to reveal the importance of taking into account a dynamic view of the variables under study. After all, organisations are under continuous change. As Hernes (2007) explained, an organisation is a tangled mass and when we analyse it, all we can do is to attempt to identify different strands or processes and follow them "for some of their lengths which yields some insight into how they evolve and connect" (p. XVI).

6.6. Future research directions

In each of the papers of this dissertation, I discussed areas for future research that were derived from the findings. In this section, I consider broader directions for future investigation.

Papers I and II lead to several lines of enquiry related to psychological functioning, anchoring events and decision-making that could require further investigation to advance our understanding of the work-life interface. Future scholars could examine the role that psychological functioning can play in the relationship between life stages and work-life balance. Would individual differences in psychological functioning moderate the effects of life stage on work-life balance? Past theoretical and empirical research has suggested that psychological functioning influences the level of work-life enrichment and conflict reported by an employee (Byron, 2005; Frone et al., 1992a; Wayne et al., 2007). For example, Wayne and colleagues (2007) postulate that personal characteristics that foster positivity (such as positive affectivity or self-efficacy) may lead to individuals experiencing work-life enrichment. Similarly, a number of theoretical models and empirical studies have stressed how personal

characteristics such as self-esteem, coping style or locus of control affect an individual's perception of work-life conflict (Byron, 2005; Frone et al., 1992a; Rothbard et al., 2005). Despite this theoretical and empirical evidence, work-life research with a life stage perspective has largely neglected examining individual differences in values, attitudes, and orientations, and the potential effects of such differences on the work-life interface (Chi-Ching, 1995).

Another potential area of interest for future research is the examination of how "anchoring events" can shape work-life balance. Using memory and emotion constructs, Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) explain how an employee-organisation relationship could be changed by a significant event (known as an "anchoring event"). Equally, one could argue that a significant event can change an individual's perception of work-life conflict and enrichment or an individual's management of his/her work-life interface. Future research could examine the effect of negative and positive anchoring events on the perception of work-life conflict and enrichment. For example, the death of a close relative (a negative anchoring event) may strengthen an individual's perception of the resources they still have (such as family support) and increase the level of work-life enrichment experienced. Such a negative event could also alter an individual's work-life priorities and place more importance on his/her private life over work. This could result in the individual experiencing greater work-to-life interference, at least in the short term. The decision-process theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Poelmans, 2005) could be used to explain individuals making work-life decisions following anchoring events over the course of their lives. For example, following the death of a close relative, an individual may decide to reduce time spent at work and dedicate more time to his/her family.

Another fruitful avenue for future research could consider the effects of mainstreamed work-life practices on organisations. In support of past studies (Gajendran et al., 2015), the current study challenges prior research on the consequences of work-life initiatives for individuals and organisations (Gajendran et al., 2015; Kelliher & Anderson, 2009) by studying the effects of a normalised homeworking practice. Future studies could examine the long term effects of work-life initiatives when they are part of the employer's core policies and practices. Rather than taking a micro or macro approach alone, they should take a multi-level approach in order to provide a comprehensive explanation of those effects (Hitt et al., 2007). By researching such effects across levels (instead of with a single level analysis), future scholars will also help to address an existing gap in the work-life literature regarding level of analysis (Kossek et al., 2010).

6.7. Concluding thoughts

Mintzberg (2005) posits that developing theory is not about testing existing theory, but about inventing. He also referred to the pressure for PhD theses to be methodologically rigorous, with little room for speculation or invention, and raised the issue that sometimes "methodological rigour comes in the way of relevance" (Mintzberg, 2005, p. 357). Although my dissertation is constrained by the established academic or scholarly requirements, I attempted to make the reader ponder or wonder about relevant management issues while I was addressing the research questions. I hope this dissertation contributes to the development of theory by making future scholars a) consider a life stage approach to consolidate theoretical and empirical literature on the work-life interface and b) wonder about the point of view of both parties when studying the relationship between employee and employer, c) make more use of context and multi-level analysis to interpret connections between multiple and dynamic variables in organisations and d) speculate about the long term effects of work-life practices on the different stakeholders such as individuals, families, co-workers, organisations and society.

7. REFERENCES

- Allen. (2001). Family-supportive work environments: The role of organizational perceptions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58(3), 414-435.
- Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton. (2000). Consequences associated with work-to-family conflict: a review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5(2), 278-308.
- Almerm, Cohen, & Single. (2004). Is it the kids or the schedule?: The incremental effect of families and flexible scheduling on perceived career success. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 54(1), 51-65.
- Alvesson, & Sköldberg. (2009). *Reflexive methodology: New vistas for qualitative research*: Sage.
- Anderson, & Kelliher. (2009). Flexible working and engagement: the importance of choice. *Strategic HR Review*, 8(2), 13-18.
- Anderson, & Kelliher. (2011). Spatial Aspects of Professionals' Work-Life Integration. In S. Kaiser, M. J. Ringlstetter, D. R. Eikhof, & M. Pina e Cunha (Eds.), *Creating Balance? International Perspectives on the Work-Life Integration of Professionals* (pp. 303-315). New York: Springer.
- Ang. (2013). *Banning Telecommuting at Yahoo!* SMU-13-0020, Singapore: Singapore Management University.
- Arnett. (2000). Emerging adulthood: A theory of development from the late teens through the twenties. *American Psychologist*, 55(5), 469-480.
- Arora. (2012). *Does Workplace Isolation Matter? Examining the Impact of Workplace Isolation on Telecommuter Work Engagement*. Melbourne, FL: Florida Institute of Technology.
- Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan. (2005). Rhythms of life: antecedents and outcomes of work-family balance in employed parents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(1), 132-146.

- Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate. (2000). All in a day's work: Boundaries and micro role transitions. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(3), 472-491.
- Bailey, & Kurland. (2002). A review of telework research: Findings, new directions, and lessons for the study of modern work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(4), 383-400.
- Bailyn. (1993). *Breaking the mold: Women, men, and time in the new corporate world*. New York: Free Press.
- Bailyn. (2006). *Breaking the mold: Redesigning work for productive and satisfying lives*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Bakker. (2011). An evidence-based model of work engagement. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 20(4), 265-269.
- Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter. (2011). Key questions regarding work engagement. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 20(1), 4-28.
- Bakker, & Demerouti. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(3), 309-328.
- Ballinger, & Rockmann. (2010). Chutes versus ladders: Anchoring events and a punctuated-equilibrium perspective on social exchange relationships. *Academy of Management Review*, 35(3), 373-391.
- Baral, & Bhargava. (2010). Work-family enrichment as a mediator between organizational interventions for work-life balance and job outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25(3), 274-300.
- Barbera. (2014). *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Climate and Culture*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Barbosa. (2014). *Return on investment of a work-family intervention: evidence from the work, family, and health network*. Paper presented at the The 36th Annual Meeting of the Society for Medical Decision Making, Miami, FL.

- Barnett. (1998). Toward a review and reconceptualization of the work/family literature. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs*, 124, 125-182.
- Bartel, Wrzesniewski, & Wiesenfeld. (2012). Knowing where you stand: Physical isolation, perceived respect, and organizational identification among virtual employees. *Organization Science*, 23(3), 743-757.
- Baruch. (2000). Teleworking: benefits and pitfalls as perceived by professionals and managers. *New Technology, Work and Employment*, 15(1), 34-49.
- Baruch. (2001). The autistic society. *Information & Management*, 38(3), 129-136.
- Baruch, & Nicholson. (1997). Home, sweet work: requirements for effective home working. *Journal of General Management*, 23, 15-30.
- BBC. (2013). Ryanair's O'Leary to end 'abrupt culture'. from <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/business-24177834>
- Beauregard, & Henry. (2009). Making the link between work-life balance practices and organizational performance. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(1), 9-22.
- Beckers, van der Linden, Smulders, Kompier, van Veldhoven, & van Yperen. (2004). Working overtime hours: relations with fatigue, work motivation, and the quality of work. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 46(12), 1282-1289.
- Berger. (2015). Now I see it, now I don't: Researcher's position and reflexivity in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, 15(2), 219-234.
- Bianchi, & Milkie. (2010). Work and family research in the first decade of the 21st century. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 72(3), 705-725.
- Biddle. (1986). Recent development in role theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 67-92.
- Bies, & Tripp. (1996). Beyond distrust: "Getting even" and the need for revenge. In R. M. K. T. R. Tyler (Ed.), *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 246-260). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Blau. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: Wiley.

Blau. (1986). Job involvement and organizational commitment as interactive predictors of tardiness and absenteeism. *Journal of Management*, 12(4), 577-584.

Blau, & Boal. (1989). Using job involvement and organizational commitment interactively to predict turnover. *Journal of Management*, 15(1), 115-127.

Bloom, Liang, Roberts, & Ying. (2013). Does working from home work? Evidence from a Chinese experiment No. w18871: National Bureau of Economic Research.

Bornay-Barrachina, la Rosa-Navarro, López-Cabrales, & Valle-Cabrera. (2012). Employment relationships and firm innovation: the double role of human capital. *British Journal of Management*, 23(2), 223-240.

Bowen, & Ostroff. (2004). Understanding HRM–firm performance linkages: The role of the “strength” of the HRM system. *Academy of Management Review*, 29(2), 203-221.

Bowes, & Poelmans. (2005). Emphasizing the family in work-family research: A review of current research and recommendations for future directions. In S. A. Y. Poelmans (Ed.), *Work and family: An international research perspective* (pp. 415-438). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Boxall. (2013). Mutuality in the management of human resources: assessing the quality of alignment in employment relationships. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 23(1), 3-17.

Boyar, Maertz Jr, Pearson, & Keough. (2003). Work-family conflict: A model of linkages between work and family domain variables and turnover intentions. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 15, 175-190.

Brannen. (2005). Mixing methods: The entry of qualitative and quantitative approaches into the research process. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 8(3), 173-184.

Brewer. (2000). Work design for flexible work scheduling: Barriers and gender implications. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 7(1), 33-44.

Brewer, Reis, & Judd. (2000). Research design and issues of validity. *Handbook of research methods in social and personality psychology*, 3-16.

Brignall, & Modell. (2000). An institutional perspective on performance measurement and management in the 'new public sector'. *Management Accounting Research*, 11(3), 281-306.

Bronfenbrenner. (1994). Ecological models of human development. In T. Husten & T. N. Postlethwaite (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of education* (Vol. 3, pp. 1643-1647). New York: Elsevier Science.

Brown, & Leigh. (1996). A new look at psychological climate and its relationship to job involvement, effort, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(4), 358.

Butler, Aasheim, & Williams. (2007). Does telecommuting improve productivity? *Communications of the ACM*, 50(4), 101-103.

Buurman, Delfgaauw, Dur, & Van den Bossche. (2012). Public sector employees: Risk averse and altruistic? *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 83(3), 279-291.

Byron. (2005). A meta-analytic review of work–family conflict and its antecedents. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67(2), 169-198.

Carlson, & Frone. (2003). Relation of behavioral and psychological involvement to a new four-factor conceptualization of work-family interference. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 17(4), 515-535.

Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz. (2006). Measuring the positive side of the work–family interface: Development and validation of a work–family enrichment scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68(1), 131-164.

Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams. (2000). Construction and initial validation of a multidimensional measure of work–family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56(2), 249-276.

Cascio. (2000). Managing a virtual workplace. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 14(3), 81-90.

Chan. (1998). Functional relations among constructs in the same content domain at different levels of analysis: A typology of composition models. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(2), 234.

Chang. (2008). Work role stressors and turnover intentions: A study of IT personnel in South Korea. *Zeitschrift für Personalforschung/German Journal of Research in Human Resource Management*, 22(3), 272-290.

Charles, & Harris. (2007). Continuity and change in work–life balance choices. *The British Journal of Sociology*, 58(2), 277-295.

Chi-Ching. (1995). The effects of career salience and life-cycle variables on perceptions of work-family interfaces. *Human Relations*, 48(3), 265-284.

Chow, & Liu. (2009). The effect of aligning organizational culture and business strategy with HR systems on firm performance in Chinese enterprises. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(11), 2292-2310.

Clark. (2000). Work/family border theory: A new theory of work/family balance. *Human Relations*, 53(6), 747-770.

Conway, & Briner. (2009). Fifty years of psychological contract research: What do we know and what are the main challenges. *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*, 24(71), 71-131.

Conway, & Coyle - Shapiro. (2012). The reciprocal relationship between psychological contract fulfilment and employee performance and the moderating role of perceived organizational support and tenure. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 85(2), 277-299.

Cooper, & Kurland. (2002). Telecommuting, professional isolation, and employee development in public and private organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(4), 511-532.

Cortina. (1993). What is coefficient alpha? An examination of theory and applications. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(1), 98-104.

Coyle-Shapiro, & Conway. (2004). *The employment relationship through the lens of social exchange*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Coyle-Shapiro, & Shore. (2007). The employee–organization relationship: Where do we go from here? *Human Resource Management Review*, 17(2), 166-179.

Crawford, LePine, & Rich. (2010). Linking job demands and resources to employee engagement and burnout: a theoretical extension and meta-analytic test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(5), 834-848.

Cropanzano, & Mitchell. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874-900.

Dabos, & Rousseau. (2004). Mutuality and reciprocity in the psychological contracts of employees and employers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(1), 52-72.

Davis, & Cates. (2013). The Dark Side of Working in a Virtual World: An Investigation of the Relationship between Workplace Isolation and Engagement among Teleworkers. *Journal of Human Resource and Sustainability Studies*, 1(2), 9-13.

De Lange, Taris, Jansen, Kompier, Houtman, & Bongers. (2010). On the relationships among work characteristics and learning - related behavior: Does age matter? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(7), 925-950.

Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 499-512.

Demerouti, Peeters, & van der Heijden. (2012). Work–family interface from a life and career stage perspective: The role of demands and resources. *International Journal of Psychology*, 47(4), 241-258.

Denison. (1996). What is the difference between organizational culture and organizational climate? A native's point of view on a decade of paradigm wars. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(3), 619-654.

Denzin. (1973). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*: Transaction publishers.

Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin, & Lord. (2002). Examining the roles of job involvement and work centrality in predicting organizational citizenship behaviors and job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(1), 93-108.

Diener, Lucas, & Scollon. (2006). Beyond the hedonic treadmill: revising the adaptation theory of well-being. *American Psychologist*, 61(4), 305-314.

Dijkers, van Engen, & Vinkenburgh. (2010). Flexible work: ambitious parents' recipe for career success in The Netherlands. *Career Development International*, 15(6), 562-582.

Dombrowski, Kim, Desouza, Braganza, Papagari, Baloh, & Jha. (2007). Elements of innovative cultures. *Knowledge and Process Management*, 14(3), 190-202.

Duxbury, & Higgins. (1991). Gender differences in work-family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(1), 60-74.

Eagle, Miles, & Icenogle. (1997). Interrole conflicts and the permeability of work and family domains: Are there gender differences? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 50(2), 168-184.

Eagly, & Wood. (2011). Social role theory. In P. van Lange, A. Kruglanski, & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Handbook of theories of social psychology* (pp. 458-476). London: Sage.

Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley. (2005). Work and family research in IO/OB: Content analysis and review of the literature (1980–2002). *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66(1), 124-197.

Ehrhart, Schneider, & Macey. (2013). *Organizational climate and culture: an introduction to theory, research, and practice*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Eisenberger, Huntington, & Sowa. (1986). Perceived Organisational Support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 500-507.

Emerson. (1976). Social exchange theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 2, 335-362.

Erickson, Martinengo, & Hill. (2010). Putting work and family experiences in context: Differences by family life stage. *Human Relations*, 63(7), 955-979.

Erikson. (1968). *Identity: Youth and crisis*. New York, NY: W. W. Norton

Feldman, & Gainey. (1998). Patterns of telecommuting and their consequences: Framing the research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 7(4), 369-388.

Felstead, Jewson, Phizacklea, & Walters. (2002). Opportunities to work at home in the context of work - life balance. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 12(1), 54-76.

Fisk. (2010). "I want it all and I want it now!" An examination of the etiology, expression, and escalation of excessive employee entitlement. *Human Resource Management Review*, 20(2), 102-114.

Flynn, & Schaumberg. (2012). When feeling bad leads to feeling good: Guilt-proneness and affective organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(1), 124-133.

Fonner, & Roloff. (2010). Why teleworkers are more satisfied with their jobs than are office-based workers: When less contact is beneficial. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 38(4), 336-361.

Frone. (2003). Work-family balance. In J. C. Quick & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), *Handbook of occupational health psychology*. (pp. 143-162). Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association.

Frone, Russell, & Cooper. (1992a). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict: testing a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77(1), 65-78.

Frone, Russell, & Cooper. (1992b). Prevalence of work-family conflict: Are work and family boundaries asymmetrically permeable? *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 13(7), 723-729.

Frone, Russell, & Cooper. (1997). Relation of work-family conflict to health outcomes: A four - year longitudinal study of employed parents. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 70(4), 325-335.

Fu, & Shaffer. (2001). The tug of work and family: Direct and indirect domain-specific determinants of work-family conflict. *Personnel Review*, 30(5), 502-522.

Gajendran, & Harrison. (2007). The good, the bad, and the unknown about telecommuting: meta-analysis of psychological mediators and individual consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(6), 1524-1541.

Gajendran, Harrison, & Delaney - Klinger. (2015). Are Telecommuters Remotely Good Citizens? Unpacking Telecommuting's Effects on Performance Via I - Deals and Job Resources. *Personnel Psychology*, 68(2), 353-393.

Geertz. (1994). Thick description: Toward an interpretive theory of culture. In M. Martin & L. C. McIntyre (Eds.), *Readings in the philosophy of social science* (pp. 213-231). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Gibbs. (2008). *Analysing qualitative data*. London: Sage.

Gibson. (2003). Flexible working needs flexible space? Towards an alternative workplace strategy. *Journal of Property Investment & Finance*, 21(1), 12-22.

Gibson, Blackwell, Dominicus, & Demerath. (2002). Telecommuting in the 21st century: Benefits, issues, and a leadership model which will work. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 8(4), 75-86.

Giele, & Elder. (1998). Life course research: Development of a field. In J. Z. Giele & G. H. Elder (Eds.), *Methods of life course research: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (pp. 5-27). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Golafshani. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The qualitative report*, 8(4), 597-606.

Golden. (2006). The role of relationships in understanding telecommuter satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27(3), 319-340.

Golden. (2007). Co-workers who telework and the impact on those in the office: Understanding the implications of virtual work for co-worker satisfaction and turnover intentions. *Human Relations*, 60(11), 1641-1667.

Golden, Veiga, & Dino. (2008). The impact of professional isolation on teleworker job performance and turnover intentions: Does time spent teleworking, interacting face-to-face,

or having access to communication-enhancing technology matter? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(6), 1412-1421.

Golden, Veiga, & Simsek. (2006). Telecommuting's differential impact on work-family conflict: Is there no place like home? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(6), 1340-1350.

Goode. (1960). A theory of role strain. *American Sociological Review*, 483-496.

Gouldner. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review*, 25(2), 161-178.

Greenberg, & Cohen. (2014). *Equity and justice in social behavior*. New York: Academic press.

Greene, Caracelli, & Graham. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational evaluation and policy analysis*, 11(3), 255-274.

Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder. (1987). Work experiences, job performance, and feelings of personal and family well-being. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 31(2), 200-215.

Greenhaus, & Beutell. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10(1), 76-88.

Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw. (2003). The relation between work-family balance and quality of life. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 63(3), 510-531.

Greenhaus, & Powell. (2006). When work and family are allies: A theory of work-family enrichment. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(1), 72-92.

Greenhaus, & Powell. (2012). The family-relatedness of work decisions: A framework and agenda for theory and research. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(2), 246-255.

Greenhaus, Ten Brummelhuis, Major, & Burke. (2013). Models and frameworks underlying work-life research. In D.A. Major & R. J. Burke (Eds.), *Handbook of work-life integration among professionals: Challenge and opportunities* (pp. 14-34). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

- Greve, & Staudinger. (2006). Resilience in later adulthood and old age: Resources and potentials for successful aging. In D. Cicchetti & A. Cohen (Eds.), *Developmental psychopathology* (pp. 796–840). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Grzywacz, Almeida, & McDonald. (2002). Work–Family Spillover and Daily Reports of Work and Family Stress in the Adult Labor Force*. *Family Relations*, 51(1), 28-36.
- Grzywacz, & Carlson. (2007). Conceptualizing work—family balance: Implications for practice and research. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 9(4), 455-471.
- Grzywacz, & Marks. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work–family interface: An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5(1), 111.
- Guba, & Lincoln. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. *Handbook of Qualitative research*, 2(163-194).
- Haddock, Zimmerman, Lyness, & Ziemba. (2006). Practices of dual earner couples successfully balancing work and family. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 27(2), 207-234.
- Hall, Kossek, Briscoe, Pichler, & Lee. (2013). Nonwork orientations relative to career: A multidimensional measure. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83(3), 539-550.
- Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner, & Zimmerman. (2011). Clarifying work–family intervention processes: The roles of work–family conflict and family-supportive supervisor behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(1), 134.
- Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson. (2008). Development and validation of a multidimensional measure of family supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB). *Journal of Management*, 35(4), 837-856.
- Hammer, & Zimmerman. (2011). Quality of work life. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *American Psychological Association Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (pp. 399–431). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Harker Martin, & MacDonnell. (2012). Is telework effective for organizations? A meta-analysis of empirical research on perceptions of telework and organizational outcomes. *Management Research Review*, 35(7), 602-616.

Harpaz. (2002). Advantages and disadvantages of telecommuting for the individual, organization and society. *Work Study*, 51(2), 74-80.

Harrington, & Ruppel. (1999). Telecommuting: A test of trust, competing values, and relative advantage. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, 42(4), 223-239.

Hauke, & Kossowski. (2011). Comparison of values of Pearson's and Spearman's correlation coefficients on the same sets of data. *Quaestiones geographicae*, 30(2), 87-93.

Heatherman, & O'Rourke. (2014). Yahoo!: A Female CEO and New Mother Forbids Working from Home. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Education*, 7, 65-78.

Hernes. (2007). *Understanding organization as process: Theory for a tangled world*. New York: Routledge.

Hertel, Huffman, Culbertson, Henning, & Goh. (2013). Work-family conflict across the lifespan. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28(7/8), 761-780.

Hill. (2005). Work-family facilitation and conflict, working fathers and mothers, work-family stressors and support. *Journal of Family Issues*, 26(6), 793-819.

Hill, Ferris, & Mårtinson. (2003). Does it matter where you work? A comparison of how three work venues (traditional office, virtual office, and home office) influence aspects of work and personal/family life. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 63(2), 220-241.

Hill, Hawkins, & Miller. (1996). Work and family in the virtual office: Perceived influences of mobile telework. *Family Relations*, 45(3), 293-301.

Hitt, Beamish, Jackson, & Mathieu. (2007). Building theoretical and empirical bridges across levels: Multilevel research in management. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(6), 1385-1399.

- Hobfoll. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44(3), 513.
- Homans. (1961). *Social behavior: Its elementary forms*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World.
- Huffman, Culbertson, Henning, & Goh. (2013). Work-family conflict across the lifespan. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28(7/8), 761-780.
- Hyman, & Summers. (2004). Lacking balance? Work-life employment practices in the modern economy. *Personnel Review*, 33(4), 418-429.
- Ilies, Wilson, & Wagner. (2009). The spillover of daily job satisfaction onto employees' family lives: The facilitating role of work-family integration. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(1), 87-102.
- Jacobs, & Gerson. (2001). Overworked individuals or overworked families? Explaining trends in work, leisure, and family time. *Work and occupations*, 28(1), 40-63.
- Jeffrey Hill, Jacob, Shannon, Brennan, Blanchard, & Martinengo. (2008). Exploring the relationship of workplace flexibility, gender, and life stage to family-to-work conflict, and stress and burnout. *Community, Work and Family*, 11(2), 165-181.
- Jia, Shaw, Tsui, & Park. (2014). A Social–Structural Perspective on Employee–Organization Relationships and Team Creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(3), 869-891.
- Jick. (1979). Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: Triangulation in action. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 602-611.
- Johns, & Gratton. (2013). The third wave of virtual work. *Harvard Business Review*, 91(1), 66-73.
- Johnson, & Onwuegbuzie. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational researcher*, 33(7), 14-26.
- Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of mixed methods research*, 1(2), 112-133.

Jones, Burke, Westman, Jones, Burke, & Westman. (2006). Work and life: the road ahead. *Work-Life Balance: A Psychological Perspective*, 290-296.

Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz. (1994). Job and life attitudes of male executives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(5), 767.

Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton. (2001). The job satisfaction–job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 127(3), 376-407.

Kanter. (1977). *Work and family in the United States: A critical review and agenda for research and policy*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Keene, & Quadagno. (2004). Predictors of perceived work-family balance: Gender difference or gender similarity? *Sociological Perspectives*, 47(1), 1-23.

Kelliher, & Anderson. (2009). Doing more with less? Flexible working practices and the intensification of work. *Human Relations*, 63(1), 83-106.

Kelly, Ammons, Chermack, & Moen. (2010). Gendered challenge, gendered response confronting the ideal worker norm in a white-collar organization. *Gender & Society*, 24(3), 281-303.

Kelly, Kossek, Hammer, Durham, Bray, Chermack, . . . Kaskubar. (2008). Getting There from Here: Research on the Effects of Work–Family Initiatives on Work–Family Conflict and Business Outcomes. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2(1), 305-349.

King, Cassell, & Symon. (2004). Using templates in the thematic analysis of texts. In C. C & S. G (Eds.), *Essential Guide to Qualitative Methods in Organizational research* (pp. 256-270). London: Sage.

Kolm. (2006). Reciprocity: its scope, rationales, and consequences. In S. C. Kolm, G.-V. L. A., & M. Y. J. (Eds.), *Handbook of the economics of giving, altruism and reciprocity* (pp. 371-541). Burlington: Elsevier Science.

Konradt, Hertel, & Schmook. (2003). Quality of management by objectives, task-related stressors, and non-task-related stressors as predictors of stress and job satisfaction among teleworkers. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 12(1), 61-79.

Kossek, & Friede. (2006). The business case: Managerial perspectives on work and the family. In M. Pitt-Catsouphes, E. E. Kossek, & S. Sweet (Eds.), *The Work-Family Handbook: Multi-Disciplinary Perspectives and Approaches*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Kossek, & Lautsch. (2012). Work–family boundary management styles in organizations A cross-level model. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 2(2), 152-171.

Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton. (2006). Telecommuting, control, and boundary management: Correlates of policy use and practice, job control, and work–family effectiveness. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68(2), 347-367.

Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton. (2009). “Good Teleworking”: Under What Conditions Does Teleworking Enhance Employees’ Well-being? In Y. Amichai-Hamburger (Ed.), *Technology and Psychological Well-being* (pp. 148-173). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kossek, Lewis, & Hammer. (2010). Work–life initiatives and organizational change: Overcoming mixed messages to move from the margin to the mainstream. *Human Relations*, 63(1), 3-19.

Kossek, & Michel. (2010). Flexible work schedules. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (Vol. 1, pp. 535-572). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Kossek, & Ozeki. (1998). Work–family conflict, policies, and the job–life satisfaction relationship: A review and directions for organizational behavior–human resources research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(2), 139-149.

Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep. (2009). Balancing borders and bridges: Negotiating the work-home interface via boundary work tactics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(4), 704-730.

Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Buffardi, Stewart, & Adis. (2015). Perceived Organizational Support A Meta-Analytic Evaluation of Organizational Support Theory. *Journal of Management*, DOI:10.1177/0149206315575554.

Lambert, Edwards, & Cable. (2003). Breach and fulfillment of the psychological contract: A comparison of traditional and expanded views. *Personnel Psychology*, 56(4), 895-934.

- Lautsch, Kossek, & Eaton. (2009). Supervisory approaches and paradoxes in managing telecommuting implementation. *Human Relations*, 62(6), 795-827.
- Lee, Liu, Rousseau, Hui, & Chen. (2011). Inducements, contributions, and fulfillment in new employee psychological contracts. *Human Resource Management*, 50(2), 201.
- Leenders, Mauffette-Leenders, & Erskine. (2001). *Writing cases*. London, Ont: Ivey Publishing, Richard Ivey School of Business.
- Leibold, & Voelpel. (2006). *Managing the aging workforce: Challenges and solutions*. New York: John Wiley.
- Levinson. (1986). A conception of adult development. *American Psychologist*, 41(1), 3-13.
- Lewis. (2009). *Work-family balance, gender and policy*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Lewis, & Smithson. (2001). Sense of entitlement to support for the reconciliation of employment and family life. *Human Relations*, 54(11), 1455-1481.
- Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba. (2011). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, revisited. *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*, 4, 97-128.
- Loughlin, & Barling. (2001). Young workers' work values, attitudes, and behaviours. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74(4), 543-558.
- Lowry, Roberts, Romano, Cheney, & Hightower. (2006). The Impact of Group Size and Social Presence on Small-Group Communication Does Computer-Mediated Communication Make a Difference? *Small Group Research*, 37(6), 631-661.
- Lupton, & Haynes. (2000). Teleworking-the perception-reality gap. *Facilities*, 18(7/8), 323-328.
- Major, Germano, Jones, Burke, & Westman. (2006). The changing nature of work and its impact on the work-home interface. In F. Jones, R. J. Burke, & M. Westman (Eds.), *Work-Life Balance: A Psychological Perspective* (pp. 13-38). New York: Psychology.

Mann, Varey, & Button. (2000). An exploration of the emotional impact of tele-working via computer-mediated communication. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 15(7), 668-690.

Manochehri, & Pinkerton. (2003). Managing telecommuters: Opportunities and challenges. *American Business Review*, 21(1), 9-16.

March, & Simon. (1958). *Organizations*. New York: Wiley.

Martinengo, Jacob, & Hill. (2010). Gender and the work-family interface: Exploring differences across the family life course. *Journal of Family Issues*, 31(10), 1363-1390.

Matthews, Barnes-Farrell, & Bulger. (2010). Advancing measurement of work and family domain boundary characteristics. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 77(3), 447-460.

Matthews, Bulger, & Barnes-Farrell. (2010). Work social supports, role stressors, and work-family conflict: The moderating effect of age. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 76(1), 78-90.

Mays, & Pope. (2000). Assessing quality in qualitative research. *British medical journal*, 320(7226), 50.

McCloskey, & Igbaria. (2003). Does "out of sight" mean "out of mind"? An empirical investigation of the career advancement prospects of telecommuters. *Information Resources Management Journal*, 16(2), 19-34.

McDonald, Brown, & Bradley. (2005). Explanations for the provision-utilisation gap in work-life policy. *Women in Management Review*, 20(1), 37-55.

McDonald, & Hite. (2008). The next generation of career success: Implications for HRD. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 10(1), 86-103.

McMillan, Morris, & Atchley. (2011). Constructs of the work/life interface: A synthesis of the literature and introduction of the concept of work/life harmony. *Human Resource Development Review*, 10(1), 6-25.

McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda. (2010). A meta-analytic review of the consequences associated with work-family enrichment. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25(3), 381-396.

Meeker. (1971). Decisions and exchange. *American Sociological Review*, 36(3), 485-495.

Meyer, Mukerjee, & Sestero. (2001). Work-family benefits: which ones maximize profits? *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 13(1), 28-46.

Mintzberg. (2005). Developing theory about the development of theory. In K. G. Smith & M. A. Hitt (Eds.), *Great minds in management: The process of theory development* (pp. 355-372). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Montes, & Irving. (2008). Disentangling the effects of promised and delivered inducements: relational and transactional contract elements and the mediating role of trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(6), 1367-1381.

Morgan. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of mixed methods research*, 1(1), 48-76.

Morrison, & Robinson. (1997). When employees feel betrayed: A model of how psychological contract violation develops. *Academy of Management Review*, 22(1), 226-256.

Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers. (2002). Verification strategies for establishing reliability and validity in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 1(2), 13-22.

Nardi, & Whittaker. (2002). The place of face-to-face communication in distributed work. In P. Hinds & S. Kiesler (Eds.), *Distributed work* (pp. 83-110). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman. (2002). The use of the concept "entitlement" in management literature: A historical review, synthesis, and discussion of compensation policy implications. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12(1), 145-166.

Netemeyer, Maxham III, & Pullig. (2005). Conflicts in the work-family interface: Links to job stress, customer service employee performance, and customer purchase intent. *Journal of Marketing*, 69(2), 130-143.

Netz, Wu, Becker, & Tenenbaum. (2005). Physical activity and psychological well-being in advanced age: a meta-analysis of intervention studies. *Psychology and Aging*, 20(2), 272-284.

Ng, & Feldman. (2008). The relationship of age to ten dimensions of job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(2), 392-423.

Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons. (2010). New generation, great expectations: A field study of the millennial generation. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25(2), 281-292.

Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider. (2008). Employee attributions of the “why” of HR practices: Their effects on employee attitudes and behaviors, and customer satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 61(3), 503-545.

Nordenmark. (2004). Multiple social roles and well-being a longitudinal test of the role stress theory and the role expansion theory. *Acta Sociologica*, 47(2), 115-126.

Nowak, & Sigmund. (2005). Evolution of indirect reciprocity. *Nature*, 437, 1291-1298.

O'Driscoll, Ilgen, & Hildreth. (1992). Time devoted to job and off-job activities, interrole conflict, and affective experiences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77(3), 272-279.

Ollier-Malaterre, Valcour, Den Dulk, & Kossek. (2013). Theorizing national context to develop comparative work–life research: A review and research agenda. *European Management Journal*, 31(5), 433-447.

Onwuegbuzie, Johnson, & Collins. (2009). Call for mixed analysis: A philosophical framework for combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. *International journal of multiple research approaches*, 3(2), 114-139.

Organ, & Ryan. (1995). A meta - analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(4), 775-802.

Ostroff, Kinicki, & Muhammad. (2012). Organizational Culture and Climate *Handbook of Psychology* (pp. 643-676). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins. (2003). Organizational culture and climate. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology: Industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 12, pp. 565–593). London: Wiley.

Ostroff, & Schmitt. (1993). Configurations of organizational effectiveness and efficiency. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(6), 1345-1361.

Pahl. (1984). *Divisions of labour*. Oxford: Blackwel.

Pearce, & Gregersen. (1991). Task interdependence and extrarole behavior: A test of the mediating effects of felt responsibility. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(6), 838-844.

Perlow. (1998). Boundary control: The social ordering of work and family time in a high-tech corporation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 43(2), 328-357.

Pinquart, & Sörensen. (2000). Influences of socioeconomic status, social network, and competence on subjective well-being in later life: a meta-analysis. *Psychology and Aging*, 15(2), 187-224.

Pinsonneault, & Boisvert. (2001). The impacts of telecommuting on organizations and individuals: A review of the litterature. In N. J. Johnson (Ed.), *Telecommuting and virtual offices: Issues and opportunities* (pp. 163–185). Hershey, PA: Idea Group Publishing.

Piotrkowski, Rapoport, & Rapoport. (1987). Families and work. In M. B. Sussman & S. K. Steinmetz (Eds.), *Handbook of Marriage and the Family* (pp. 251-283). Dordrecht: Springer.

Pleck. (1977). The work-family role system. *Social Problems*, 24(4), 417-427.

Poelmans. (2005). The decision process theory of work and family. In E. E. Kossek & S. J. Lambert (Eds.), *Work and life integration: Organizational, cultural, and individual perspectives*. (pp. 263-285). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Poelmans, & Beham. (2008). Reviewing policies for harmonizing work, family, and personal life. In S. Poelmans & P. Caligiuri (Eds.), *Harmonizing work, family, and personal life: From policy to practice* (pp. 39-77). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Poelmans, & Caligiuri. (2008). *Harmonizing work, family, and personal life: From policy to practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Powell, Francesco, & Ling. (2009). Toward culture - sensitive theories of the work-family interface. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(5), 597-616.

Powell, & Greenhaus. (2012). When family considerations influence work decisions: Decision-making processes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 81(3), 322-329.

Raghuram, & Wiesenfeld. (2004). Work - nonwork conflict and job stress among virtual workers. *Human Resource Management*, 43(2 - 3), 259-277.

Ragin. (1994). The process of social research: ideas and evidence. *Constructing social research*, 55-76.

Rantanen, Kinnunen, Mauno, & Tillemann. (2011). Introducing theoretical approaches to work-life balance and testing a new typology among professionals. In S. Kaiser, M. Ringlstetter, D. R. Eikhof, & M. Pina e Cunha (Eds.), *Creating balance? International perspectives on the work-life integration of professionals* (pp. 27-46). Berlin: Springer.

Rhoades, & Eisenberger. (2002). Perceived organizational support: a review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 698.

Rice, Frone, & McFarlin. (1992). Work—nonwork conflict and the perceived quality of life. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13(2), 155-168.

Rich, Lepine, & Crawford. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(3), 617-635.

Riordan, Vandenberg, & Richardson. (2005). Employee involvement climate and organizational effectiveness. *Human Resource Management*, 44(4), 471-488.

Robbins, Campbell, & Judge. (2010). *Organizational behavior*. Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Robson. (2011). *Real world research*. Chichester, UK: Wiley.

Rogier, & Padgett. (2004). The impact of utilizing a flexible work schedule on the perceived career advancement potential of women. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 15(1), 89-106.

Roth, & BeVier. (1998). Response rates in HRM/OB survey research: Norms and correlates, 1990-1994. *Journal of Management*, 24(1), 97-117.

Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas. (2005). Managing multiple roles: Work-family policies and individuals' desires for segmentation. *Organization Science*, 16(3), 243-258.

Rousseau. (1989). Psychological and implied contracts in organizations. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 2(2), 121-139.

Rousseau. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rousseau, & Wade—Benzoni. (1994). Employee and Customer. *Human Resource Management*, 33(3), 463-489.

Russo, & Buonocore. (2012). The relationship between work-family enrichment and nurse turnover. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 27(3), 216-236.

Ryan, & Kossek. (2008). Work - life policy implementation: Breaking down or creating barriers to inclusiveness? *Human Resource Management*, 47(2), 295-310.

Sackmann. (2011). Culture and performance. In N. Ashkanasy, C. Wilderon, & M. Peterson (Eds.), *The handbook of organizational culture and climate* (Vol. 2, pp. 188-224). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Sale, Lohfeld, & Brazil. (2002). Revisiting the quantitative-qualitative debate: Implications for mixed-methods research. *Quality and quantity*, 36(1), 43-53.

Sardeshmukh, Sharma, & Golden. (2012). Impact of telework on exhaustion and job engagement: A job demands and job resources model. *New Technology, Work and Employment*, 27(3), 193-207.

Scandura, & Lankau. (1997). Relationships of gender, family responsibility and flexible work hours to organizational commitment and job satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18(4), 377-391.

Schafer, & Graham. (2002). Missing data: our view of the state of the art. *Psychological methods*, 7(2), 147.

Schaufeli, & Bakker. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(3), 293-315.

Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova. (2006). The measurement of work engagement with a short questionnaire a cross-national study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 66(4), 701-716.

Schein. (1996). Culture: The missing concept in organization studies. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41(2), 229-240.

Schein. (2000). Sense and nonsense about culture and climate. In N. M. Ashkanasy, C. P. M. Wilderom, & M. F. Peterson (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational culture and climate* (pp. xxiii-xxx). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Schein. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership* (4th ed. ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schneider, Brief, & Guzzo. (1996). Creating a climate and culture for sustainable organizational change. *Organizational Dynamics*, 24(4), 7-19.

Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey. (2013). Organizational climate and culture. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 64, 361-388.

Schwartz, & Davis. (1981). Matching corporate culture and business strategy. *Organizational Dynamics*, 10(1), 30-48.

Seinen, & Schram. (2006). Social status and group norms: Indirect reciprocity in a repeated helping experiment. *European Economic Review*, 50(3), 581-602.

- Sheldon, & Kasser. (2001). Getting older, getting better? Personal strivings and psychological maturity across the life span. *Developmental Psychology*, 37(4), 491.
- Shook, & Margolis. (2008). *A companion to pragmatism*: John Wiley & Sons.
- Shore, & Coyle - Shapiro. (2003). New developments in the employee-organization relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(5), 443-450.
- Shore, Coyle - Shapiro, Chen, & Tetrick. (2009). Social exchange in work settings: Content, process, and mixed models. *Management and Organization Review*, 5(3), 289-302.
- Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale. (2006). Social and economic exchange: Construct development and validation. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 36(4), 837-867.
- Shore, Tetrick, Taylor, Coyle-Shapiro, Liden, McLean, . . . Roehling. (2004). The employee-organizational relationship: a timely concept in a period of transition. In J. Martocchio (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 23, pp. 291-370). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Shultz, & Adams. (2012). *Aging and work in the 21st century*. New York, NY: Psychology Press.
- Simons. (2009). *Case study research in practice*: SAGE publications.
- Siu, Spector, Cooper, & Donald. (2001). Age differences in coping and locus of control: A study of managerial stress in Hong Kong. *Psychology and Aging*, 16(4), 707-710.
- Song, Tsui, & Law. (2008). Unpacking employee responses to organizational exchange mechanisms: The role of social and economic exchange perceptions. *Journal of Management*, 35(1), 56-93.
- Spector, Cooper, Poelmans, Allen, O'DRISCOLL, Sanchez, . . . Lu. (2004). A cross - national comparative study of work - family stressors, working hours, and well - being: China and Latin America versus the Anglo world. *Personnel Psychology*, 57(1), 119-142.

Standen, Daniels, & Lamond. (1999). The home as a workplace: Work–family interaction and psychological well-being in telework. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 4(4), 368-381.

Sterns, & Huyck. (2001). The role of work in midlife. In M. E. Lackman (Ed.), *Handbook of midlife development* (pp. 447-486). New York: Wiley.

Sullivan, & Lewis. (2001). Home - based telework, gender, and the synchronization of work and family: perspectives of teleworkers and their co - residents. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 8(2), 123-145.

Super. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 16(3), 282-298.

Taskin, & Bridoux. (2010). Telework: a challenge to knowledge transfer in organizations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(13), 2503-2520.

Taylor, & Tekleab. (2004). Taking stock of psychological contract research: Assessing progress, addressing troublesome issues, and setting research priorities. In J. A.-M. Coyle-Shapiro, L. M. Shore, M. S. Taylor, & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), *The employment relationship: Examining psychological and contextual perspectives* (pp. 253-283). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Telework Research Network. (2015). The State of Telework in the U.S., from <http://globalworkplaceanalytics.com>

Thatcher, & Zhu. (2006). Changing identities in a changing workplace: Identification, identity enactment, self-verification, and telecommuting. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(4), 1076-1088.

Thomas, & Ganster. (1995). Impact of family-supportive work variables on work-family conflict and strain: a control perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80(1), 6-15.

Thompson. (2008). Barriers to the implementation and usage of work–life policies. In S. Poelmans & P. Caligiuri (Eds.), *Harmonizing Work, Family, and Personal Life. From Policy to Practice* (pp. 209-234). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness. (1999). When work–family benefits are not enough: The influence of work–family culture on benefit utilization, organizational attachment, and work–family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54(3), 392-415.

Thomson. (2008). The business benefits of flexible working. *Strategic HR Review*, 7(2), 17-22.

Tiedje, Wortman, Downey, Emmons, Biernat, & Lang. (1990). Women with multiple roles: Role-compatibility perceptions, satisfaction, and mental health. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 52(1), 63-72.

Tietze, & Musson. (2005). Recasting the home-work relationship: A case of mutual adjustment? *Organization Studies*, 26(9), 1331-1352.

Tietze, & Nadin. (2011). The psychological contract and the transition from office - based to home - based work. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 21(3), 318-334.

Tomlinson. (2013). An integrative model of entitlement beliefs. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 25(2), 67-87.

Tracy. (2010). Qualitative quality: Eight “big-tent” criteria for excellent qualitative research. *Qualitative inquiry*, 16(10), 837-851.

Trompenaars, & Hampden-Turner. (2012). *Riding the waves of culture : understanding diversity in global business* (Rev. and updated 3rd ed. / Fons Trompenaars and Charles Hampden-Turner. ed.). London: Nicholas Brealey.

Tsang. (2014a). Case studies and generalization in information systems research: A critical realist perspective. *The Journal of Strategic Information Systems*, 23(2), 174-186.

Tsang. (2014b). Generalizing from Research Findings: The Merits of Case Studies. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 16(4), 369-383. doi: 10.1111/ijmr.12024

Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli. (1997). Alternative approaches to the employee-organization relationship: does investment in employees pay off? *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(5), 1089-1121.

Tsui, & Wang. (2002). Employment relationships from the employer's perspective: Current research and future directions. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 77-114). Chichester, UK: Wiley.

Tsui, & Wu. (2005). The new employment relationship versus the mutual investment approach: Implications for human resource management. *Human Resource Management*, 44(2), 115-121.

Turillo, Folger, Lavelle, Umphress, & Gee. (2002). Is virtue its own reward? Self-sacrificial decisions for the sake of fairness. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 89(1), 839-865.

Valcour, & Hunter. (2005). Technology, organizations, and work-life integration. In E. E. Kossek & S. J. Lambert (Eds.), *Work and Life Integration: Organizational, Cultural, and Individual Perspectives* (pp. 57-80). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

van der Heijden, Schalk, van Veldhoven, van der Heijden, Schalk, & van Veldhoven. (2008). Ageing and careers: European research on long-term career development and early retirement. *Career Development International*, 13(2), 85-94.

van der Meulen, van Baalen, & van Heck. (2014). No Place Like Home: The Effect of Telework Gains on Knowledge Worker Productivity. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 2014(1), 15944.

van Steenbergen, Ellemers, & Mooijaart. (2007). How work and family can facilitate each other: distinct types of work-family facilitation and outcomes for women and men. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12(3), 279-300.

Vaughan-Whitehead. (2013). *Public sector shock: the impact of policy retrenchment in Europe*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Verbeke, Schulz, Greidanus, & Hambley. (2008). *Growing the virtual workplace: the integrative value proposition for telework*. Northampton: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Voydanoff. (2002). Linkages between the work-family interface and work, family, and individual outcomes An integrative model. *Journal of Family Issues*, 23(1), 138-164.

- Voydanoff. (2005). Toward a conceptualization of perceived work - family fit and balance: a demands and resources approach. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67(4), 822-836.
- Wallach. (1983). Individuals and organizations: The cultural match. *Training & Development Journal*, 37(2), 28-35.
- Wang, Tsui, Zhang, & Ma. (2003). Employment relationships and firm performance: Evidence from an emerging economy. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(5), 511-535.
- Warr. (1987). *Work, unemployment, and mental health*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar. (2007). Work-family facilitation: A theoretical explanation and model of primary antecedents and consequences. *Human Resource Management Review*, 17(1), 63-76.
- Wayne, Randel, & Stevens. (2006). The role of identity and work-family support in work-family enrichment and its work-related consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69(3), 445-461.
- Wilkie. (1981). The trend toward delayed parenthood. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 43(3), 583-591.
- Williams. (1999). *Unbending gender: Why family and work conflict and what to do about it*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- . Workplace Employment Relations Survey: Cross-Section. (2005). Colchester: The Data Archive [distributor]: Department of Trade and Industry.
- Yin. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Zal. (1992). *The sandwich generation: Caught between growing children and aging parents*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Zhang, Tsui, Song, Li, & Jia. (2008). How do I trust thee? The employee - organization relationship, supervisory support, and middle manager trust in the organization. *Human Resource Management*, 47(1), 111-132.

Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo. (2007). The impact of psychological contract breach on work - related outcomes: a meta - analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 60(3), 647-680.

Zohar. (2000). A group-level model of safety climate: testing the effect of group climate on microaccidents in manufacturing jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(4), 587-596.

Zohar, & Luria. (2005). A multilevel model of safety climate: cross-level relationships between organization and group-level climates. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(4), 616-628.

APPENDIX I: Survey instrument

AdviceCo Baseline - Full Baseline

Welcome to the AdviceCo Staff Survey on Homeworking. We greatly appreciate your assistance with this important research. The survey should take you approximately 25 minutes to complete. If you need to stop the survey at any time, simply close your browser. When you return to the survey, simply click on the original link in your email and it will bring you to where you left off in the survey. If you encounter any difficulties or have questions during the survey, please contact us via email (K.A.Basile@lse.ac.uk)

Q1 First, we'd like to ask for some general information about your role at AdviceCo. How long have you worked at AdviceCo? Please indicate number of years. If you have worked for AdviceCo for less than one year, please enter '0'; in the box provided next to 'Years'; and enter number of months in the box below.

_____ Years (1)

_____ Months (if less than one year) (2)

Q2 Which part of AdviceCo do you work in?

- ☐ Birmingham (01)
- ☐ Bristol (02)
- ☐ Bury St Edmunds (03)
- ☐ Cardiff (04)
- ☐ Fleet (05)
- ☐ Glasgow (06)
- ☐ Leeds (07)
- ☐ Liverpool (08)
- ☐ Manchester (09)
- ☐ Newcastle (10)
- ☐ Nottingham (11)
- ☐ London (12)
- ☐ AdviceCo National (13)

Q3 Which AdviceCo business area do you work in? (If you have a split role, please select each role that applies.)

- ☐ Administration (01)
- ☐ Senior Advisor (02)
- ☐ Advisor (II) (03)
- ☐ Advisor (I) (04)
- ☐ Helpline (05)
- ☐ Regional and Area Management (i.e. Area Directors, Regional Directors)(06)
- ☐ Delivery Directorate (07)
- ☐ Finance Directorate (08)
- ☐ HR and Estates Directorate (09)
- ☐ IT Directorate (10)
- ☐ Strategy Directorate (11)
- ☐ CAC and Cert Office (12)

Q4 What is your grade?

- ☐ SMT (grade 1) (01)
- ☐ Grade 2 (02)
- ☐ Grade 3 (03)
- ☐ Grade 4 (04)
- ☐ Grade 5 (05)

Q5 Do you work...

- ☐ Full-time (01)
- ☐ Part-time (02)
- ☐ Job share (03)

Q6 Which of the following best describes your employment status?

- ☐ Permanent contract (01)
- ☐ Fixed term/temporary contract (02)
- ☐ On loan to AdviceCo from another organisation in the Public Sector (03)
- ☐ Temporary worker (employed and paid through an employment agency) (04)
- ☐ Contract or freelance worker (your employer invoices AdviceCo directly) (05)
- ☐ On secondment to AdviceCo from an organisation outside of the Public Sector (06)

Q7 How many hours per week are you contracted to work for AdviceCo? (Standard full-time = 36/37 hours per week) (excluding paid lunch breaks)
_____ hours / week (1)

Q8 On average, how many hours per week do you typically spend working?
_____ hours / week (1)

Q9 On average, how long does it take you to travel from home to your nearest AdviceCo office?
_____ Hours (1)
_____ Minutes (2)

Q10 Do you line manage others at AdviceCo?

- ☐ Yes (01)
- ☐ No (02)

Q11 Next, we'd like to know more about your working pattern at AdviceCo. First, what is your official working arrangement with AdviceCo?

- ☐ Office-based worker (01)
- ☐ Flexible homeworker (02)
- ☐ Designated homeworker (03)
- ☐ Don't know (97)

Q12 In general, would you say that ...

- ☐ you work mainly at home (01)
- ☐ you work mainly at an AdviceCo office (02)
- ☐ you work mainly on the road / travelling (03)
- ☐ your time is evenly split between home and an AdviceCo office (04)
- ☐ your time is evenly split between home and on the road / traveling (05)
- ☐ your time is evenly split between an AdviceCo office and on the road / travelling (06)

Q13 On average, in a typical week, what percentage of your working time do you spend ...

- _____ Working at home? (1)
- _____ Working at an AdviceCo office? (2)
- _____ Working on the road or travelling? (3)

Q16 In the last 12 months, have you made use of any of the following arrangements? If not, are they available to you if you need them?

	I have used this arrangement (01)	Available to me but I do not use (02)	Not available to me (03)	Don't know if this option is available to me (97)
Flexi-time (1)				
Job sharing (sharing a full-time job with someone) (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The chance to reduce your working hours (e.g. full time to part time) (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Working the same number of hours per week across fewer days (e.g. 37 hours in four days instead of five) (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Working at or from home in normal working hours (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Working only during school term times (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Paid leave to care for dependents in an emergency (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q17 Now, we would like to ask about your job satisfaction. How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the following aspects of your job?

	Very satisfied (05)	Satisfied (04)	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (03)	Dissatisfied (02)	Very dissatisfied (01)
The volume of work (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The variety in the work (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The opportunity to use my abilities (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My promotion prospects (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Support from my line manager (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The sense of achievement I get from my work (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My pay (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The balance between the time I spend on my paid work and the time I spend on other aspects of my life (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My current working patterns (i.e. balance between time spent working at home, working in office, working whilst travelling etc.) (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job overall (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q18 Next, we would like to know more about how you feel when you're working. Thinking of the past few weeks, how often has your job made you feel the following?

	All of the time (05)	Most of the time (04)	Some of the time (03)	Occasionally (02)	Never (01)
Tense (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Calm (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Relaxed (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Worried (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Uneasy (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Content (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q19 Thinking of the past few weeks, how often have you felt the following about your job?

	All of the time (05)	Most of the time (04)	Some of the time (03)	Occasionally (02)	Never (01)
At work, I feel that I am bursting with energy (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
On the job, I feel strong and vigorous (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am enthusiastic about my job (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job inspires me (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel happy when I am working intensely (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud of the work that I do (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am immersed in my work (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get carried away when I'm working (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q20 Thinking of the past few weeks, how often have you felt the following about your job?

	All of the time (05)	Most of the time (04)	Some of the time (03)	Occasionally (02)	Never (01)
I feel worn out from work. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel used up at the end of my workday. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel emotionally drained from my work. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q21 Next, we would like you to think about how much influence you feel that you have over certain aspects of your work. For each of the following, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree.

	Strongly agree (05)	Agree (04)	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree (02)	Strongly disagree (01)
My job allows me to make my own decisions about how to schedule my work. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job allows me to decide on the order in which things are done on the job. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job allows me to plan how I do my work. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job gives me a chance to use my own initiative or judgment in carrying out the work. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job provides me with significant autonomy in making decisions. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job allows me to make decisions about what methods I use to complete my work. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job allows me to decide on my own how to go about doing my work. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q22 Now we would like to ask some questions about how you work with others at AdviceCo. For each of the following, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree.

	Strongly agree (05)	Agree (04)	Neither agree nor disagree (03)	Disagree (02)	Strongly disagree (01)
I need to work closely with others in AdviceCo to do my work. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I frequently must coordinate my efforts with others in AdviceCo to do my job. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My own performance is dependent on receiving accurate information from others in AdviceCo. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The way I perform my job has a significant impact on others in AdviceCo. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am able to work fairly independently of others in AdviceCo in my work. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I rarely have to obtain information from others in AdviceCo to complete my work. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q23 Next, we would like to know more about your communications with other people at AdviceCo. For each of the following, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree.

	Strongly agree (05)	Agree (04)	Neither agree nor disagree (03)	Disagree (02)	Strongly disagree (01)
In my team we discuss work-related problems and solutions. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can easily contact those who can help me with job-related problems when I need them. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In my team, we share our experiences of work-related success and failure. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can get solutions to job-related problems from people who work from other locations. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel comfortable seeking help for job-related problems from people in my team. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am able to share information with my colleagues in a timely way. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My colleagues share information with me in a timely way. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The information I share with colleagues is useful for their work. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The information my colleagues share with me is useful for my work. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q24 How often do you have the following types of communication with your colleagues (other than your manager) at AdviceCo?

	Most days (05)	Once or twice per week (04)	2-4 times per month (03)	Once a month (02)	Less than once per month (01)	Not applicable (96)
Formal / planned face-to-face discussion with an office-based colleague (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Formal / planned face-to-face discussion with a homeworking colleague (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Informal / ad hoc face-to-face discussion with an office-based colleague (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Informal / ad hoc face-to-face discussion with a homeworking colleague (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Formal / planned telephone discussion with an office-based colleague (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Formal / planned telephone discussion with a homeworking colleague (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Informal / ad hoc telephone discussion with an office-based colleague (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Informal / ad hoc telephone discussion with a homeworking colleague (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q24b In general, would you say that your line manager ...

- ☐ works mainly at home (01)
- ☐ works mainly at my local AdviceCo office (02)
- ☐ works mainly at another AdviceCo office (03)
- ☐ a combination of the above (04)
- ☐ Don't know (97)

Q25 On average, how often do you communicate with your line manager?

- ☐ Most days (05)
- ☐ Once or twice per week (04)
- ☐ 2-4 times per month (03)
- ☐ Once a month (02)
- ☐ Less than once per month (01)

Q27 On average, how often do you communicate with your line manager on the following subjects?

	Most days (05)	Once or twice per week (04)	2-4 times per month (03)	Once a month (02)	Less than once per month (01)
Feedback on your performance (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Working arrangements (i.e. working from home, schedule, etc.) (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sharing information that would be helpful for your job (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Social / personal interaction (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q26 What are the primary methods you use to communicate with your line manager? Please select up to three in order of frequency and drag and drop them into the box provided at the right of the screen. (i.e. select the method used most often first).

Communication methods	
-	Formal / Planned Face-to-face discussion (1)
-	Informal / Ad Hoc Face-to-face discussion (2)
-	Formal / Planned telephone discussion (3)
-	Informal / Ad Hoc telephone discussion (4)
-	Email (5)
-	Other (please specify) (6)

Q28 During the course of a typical day

	Very frequently (05)	Frequently (04)	Occasionally (03)	Infrequently (02)	Very infrequently (01)
How often do you have formal, planned conversations with colleagues to share information? (e.g. scheduled meetings or phone calls) (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often do you have informal conversations with colleagues to share information? (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often do you e-mail colleagues to share information? (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q29 Next, we'd like to know how you feel about technology at AdviceCo. You indicated earlier in the survey that {q://QID10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}. For each of the following IT and telephony services, how satisfied are you with the equipment AdviceCo provides to you in allowing you to work effectively in that working arrangement?

	Very satisfied (05)	Satisfied (04)	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (03)	Dissatisfied (02)	Very dissatisfied (01)
The IT equipment I need to do my job (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The software programmes I need to do my job (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Telephone equipment (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teleconferencing facilities (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Videoconferencing facilities (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Service Desk support (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reliable telephone line (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reliable internet connections (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reliable connection to the AdviceCo network (shared drives, email, etc.) (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q30 For each of the following, please indicate if you use it for personal use, professionally or both.

	Currently use for ...		
	Personal use (01)	Professional use (02)	Don't use (3)
*Grouptext / Instant messaging (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Social Networking (eg. Linked In, Facebook or Twitter) (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Skype / 1-2-1- videoconferencing (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Group videoconferencing (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q30x *Grouptext is a technology feature that allows you to send texts or emails to groups of respondents (such as a work group). *Instant messaging is a technology feature that instantly transmits messages between a sender and receiver over the internet allowing for a real-time conversation using written messages.

Q30b Would you like to use the following technology features professionally?

	Like to use professionally?	
	Yes (01)	No (02)
Grouptext / Instant messaging (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Social Networking (eg. Linked In, Facebook or Twitter) (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Skype / 1-2-1- videoconferencing (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Group videoconferencing (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q31 Are there any technology resources that aren't available to you at the moment that would be useful to you in your job? (Please describe.)

Q32 What aspect of AdviceCo technology could be improved to make working from home easier? (Please describe.)

Q33 Next, we'd like to ask some questions specifically about homeworking. How long have you been working at or from home?

_____ Years (1)

_____ Months (If less than one year, please indicate number of months) (2)

Q34 What were the main reasons you started working at or from home? Please tick all that apply.

- ☐ To balance my home/family and work commitments (01)
- ☐ My manager asked me to (02)
- ☐ The office I was working in closed (03)
- ☐ The job I am / was doing was better suited to homeworking (04)
- ☐ When I took my job, it was a homeworking role (05)
- ☐ To avoid commuting (11)
- ☐ To help manage a long-term illness, health problem or disability that I had (12)
- ☐ To reduce my financial costs (e.g. childcare, travel) (13)
- ☐ Other (please specify) (94) _
- ☐ Don't remember (97)

Q35 What are the main reasons you still continue to work at or from home? Please tick all that apply.

- ☐ To balance my home/family and work commitments (01)
- ☐ My manager wants me to (02)
- ☐ I live too far away from the nearest AdviceCo office (03)
- ☐ The job I am doing is better suited to homeworking (04)
- ☐ To avoid commuting (05)
- ☐ To help manage a long-term illness, health problem or disability that I have (06)
- ☐ To reduce my financial costs (e.g. childcare, travel) (07)
- ☐ Other (please specify) (94) _

Q36 Which of the following interactions happened when you began homeworking at AdviceCo? Please tick all that apply.

- ☐ General discussion about homeworking with your line manager (01)
- ☐ Evaluation of your home environment for suitability of homeworking (02)
- ☐ Visit from IT to set up telephone and computer equipment (03)
- ☐ A discussion about how often visits to the office will be required (04)
- ☐ A full health and safety assessment (05)
- ☐ Provision of furniture (06)
- ☐ None (00)

Q37 How satisfied were you with the support that you received from your line manager when you began working from home?

- ☐ Very satisfied (05)
- ☐ Satisfied (04)
- ☐ Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (03)
- ☐ Dissatisfied (02)
- ☐ Very dissatisfied (01)

Q38 How satisfied were you with the IT support that you received when you began working from home?

- ☐ Very satisfied (05)
- ☐ Satisfied (04)
- ☐ Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (03)
- ☐ Dissatisfied (02)
- ☐ Very dissatisfied (01)

Q39 How often do you come in to an AdviceCo office to work? m

Three or more times per week (04)

☐ One or two times per week (03)

☐ Two to four times per month (02)

☐ Less than once per month (01)

Q40 Please indicate how important each of the following reasons are in your decisions to come in to an AdviceCo office to work.

	Very important (05)	Important (04)	Neither important nor unimportant (03)	Unimportant (02)	Very unimportant (01)
To attend an area meeting (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To meet with my line manager (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To meet with clients / parties in a dispute (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To catch up socially with AdviceCo colleagues (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To find out more about what is going on at the organisation (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To gain / share work-related information with colleagues (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q41 Which of the following issues might prevent you from coming in to an AdviceCo office to work? Please tick all that apply:

☐ Finding a space to sit (01)

☐ Accessing the necessary technology to do my work in the office (02)

☐ Noise / distractions (03)

☐ Accessing the information I need to do my job (04)

☐ Time commuting (05)

☐ Cost of travelling (06)

☐ Rearranging my non-work commitments (e.g. to meet household/family responsibilities) (07)

☐ I can't get as much work done from an AdviceCo office as I do when I work from home. (08)

☐ Other (Please specify) (94) _

☐ None (00)

Q42 Please indicate how frequently you experience the following with regard to your work:

	Very frequent-ly (05)	Frequent-ly (04)	Occasion-ally (03)	Infre-quently (02)	Very infer-quently (01)
I miss out on activities and meetings that could enhance my career (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I miss out on opportunities to be mentored (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel out of the loop (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I miss face-to-face contact with coworkers (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel isolated (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I miss the emotional support of coworkers (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I miss informal interaction with others (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q43 The next few questions relate to homeworking and your career at AdviceCo. Do you feel that working from home has a positive impact, negative impact, or has no impact at all on your opportunity to advance in your career at AdviceCo?

- ☐ Positive impact (03)
- ☐ No impact at all (02)
- ☐ Negative impact (01)

Q44 Why?

Q45 How willing would you be to take up an office-based position in the near future if it meant greater opportunity for career progression at AdviceCo?

- ☐ Very willing (03)
- ☐ Somewhat willing (02)
- ☐ Not at all willing (01)

Q46 Why not? Please select as many reasons as apply in order of importance and drag and drop them into the box provided at the right of the screen.

Reasons:	
-	It would be difficult to manage my home / family commitments if I were to stop homeworking (01)
-	My commute would be too long (02)
-	My commute would be too expensive (03)
-	I like the job that I have (04)
-	I do not like the jobs that are available in the office (05)
-	I do not feel qualified to do another job (06)
-	I do not like the office environment (07)
-	I am not interested in career progression at AdviceCo (08)
-	Other (please specify) (97)

Q47 If your personal situation was to change in the future, would you consider returning to an office-based position?

- ☐ Yes (01)
- ☐ No (02)

Q48a Why?Q48b

Why not?

Q49 What challenges have you faced as a homeworker? Please describe. Q50

What benefits do you gain from homeworking? Please describe.

Q50a How do you feel that AdviceCo benefits from having homeworkers? Please describe.

Q51

You have indicated that you manage others in your role. We'd like to know more about your communications with your staff. Do you currently manage employees who work mainly from the office, mainly from home or a mix of both?

- ☐ I manage employees who work mainly from the office (01)
- ☐ I manage employees who work mainly from home (02)
- ☐ I manage both office and home-based employees (03)

Q52 On average, how often do you communicate with your office-based employees?

- ☐ Most days (05)
- ☐ Once or twice per week(04)
- ☐ 2-4 times per month (03)
- ☐ Once a month (02)
- ☐ Less than once per month (01)

Q53 On average, how often do you communicate with your homeworking employees? m Most days (05)

- ☐ Once or twice per week(04)
- ☐ 2-4 times per month (03)
- ☐ Once a month (02)
- ☐ Less than once per month (01)

Q54 What are the primary methods you use to communicate with your office-based employees? Please select up to three in order of frequency (i.e. select the method used most often first).

Communication Methods	
-	Formal / Planned Face-to-face discussion (01)
-	Informal / Ad Hoc Face-to-face discussion (02)
-	Formal / Planned telephone discussion (03)
-	Informal / Ad Hoc telephone discussion (04)
-	Email (05)
-	Other (please specify) (06)

Q55 What are the primary methods you use to communicate with your home-based employees? Please select up to three in order of frequency and drag and drop them into the box provided at the right of the screen. (i.e. select the method used most often first).

Communication Methods	
-	Formal / Planned Face-to-face discussion (01)
-	Informal / Ad Hoc Face-to-face discussion (02)
-	Formal / Planned telephone discussion (03)
-	Informal / Ad Hoc telephone discussion (04)
-	Email (05)
-	Other (please specify) (06)

Q56 On average, how often do you communicate with your employees on the following subjects?

	Most days (05)	Once or twice per week (04)	2-4 times per month (03)	Once a month (02)	Less than once per month (01)
Feedback on their performance (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Working arrangements (i.e. working from home, schedule, etc.) (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sharing work-related information (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Social / personal interaction (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q57 For each of the following, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Agree (05)	Agree (04)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (03)	Disagree (02)	Strongly Disagree (01)
Managing homeworkers is more difficult than managing office-based staff. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I could manage homeworking staff more effectively if they had a more frequent presence in the office. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is easy for me to manage the working hours of the homeworkers I manage. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is easy for me to monitor the work quality of the homeworkers I manage. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is easy for me to monitor the amount of work completed by homeworkers I manage. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q58 Next, we'd like to ask some questions related to the attitudes you hold about yourself. For each of the following, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Agree (05)	Agree (04)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (03)	Disagree (02)	Strongly Disagree (01)
I have the ambition to reach a higher position in my line of work or organisation. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have the ability to reach a higher position in my line of work. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like to be challenged in my work. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having a career is important to my sense of identity. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I want to achieve the highest possible position in my line of work. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My career is not a priority in my life. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The major satisfactions in my life come from my life outside of work. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The most important things that happen to me involve my life outside of work. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The major satisfactions in my life come from my job. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The most important things that happen to me involve my job. (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q59a Now we'd like to ask about some ways in which your work and your personal life might influence one another. For each of the following, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Agree (05)	Agree (04)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (03)	Disagree (02)	Strongly Disagree (01)
I have to miss family, social or leisure activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am often so emotionally drained at the end of a workday that it prevents me from engaging with my family or friends. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The behaviours I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent, spouse, or friend. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities or personal commitments. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities or personal commitments, I have a hard time concentrating on my work. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q59b For each of the following, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Agree (05)	Agree (04)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (03)	Disagree (02)	Strongly Disagree (01)
Behaviour that is effective and necessary for me in my personal life is counterproductive at work. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having a good day on the job makes me happier in my personal life. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel more confident personally when I feel that I am being successful professionally. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having a good day in my personal life makes me more effective in my professional role. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel more confident professionally when I feel that I am being successful in my personal life. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q60 Next, we have some questions about the boundaries that exist between your work and your personal life. For each of the following, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Agree (05)	Agree (04)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (03)	Disagree (02)	Strongly Disagree (01)
Responsibilities in my family and personal life would prevent me from working an extra day (i.e., on the weekend) in order to meet work responsibilities. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
From a family and personal life standpoint, there is no reason why I cannot rearrange my schedule to meet the demands of my work. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I am not working, I do not mind stopping what I am doing to complete a work related task. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am willing to cancel plans with my friends and family to deal with work related responsibilities. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If the need arose, I could stop working early to attend to (non-emergency) family/household related issues. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
While I am working, I can stop what I am doing for a short period of time to meet responsibilities related to my family and personal life. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am willing to take an extended lunch break so that I can deal with responsibilities relating to my family and personal life. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am willing to take time off from work to deal with my family and personal life responsibilities. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q61 Nearly there now! Please indicate how frequently you experience the following:

	Very fre- quentl y (05)	Fre- quentl y (04)	Occa- sionall y (03)	Infre- quentl y (02)	Very infe- quentl y (01)
Have work-related items (i.e. documents, files) in areas of my home that are not designated for working. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Think about work-related concerns during my personal time. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speak to colleagues about work matters during my personal time, outside of work hours. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stop in the middle of my personal activities to address a work concern. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Take care of work-related business during my personal time. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Receive personal calls while I am working. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have personal items (i.e. personal documents, personal phone, personal calendar) in my work area. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Think about personal concerns when I am working. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stop in the middle of my work to address a personal concern. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Take care of personal business while I am at work. (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q62 All in all, do you currently see yourself as someone who keeps work and personal roles separated most of the time, or someone who keeps them integrated?

- ☐ Keeps work and personal roles separated (01)
☐ Keeps work and personal roles integrated (02)

Q63 When you are working from home, where do you sit with your computer to do your work? Do you . . .

- ☐ Sit in a separate room or office that is used only for work? (01)
☐ Sit in a room that you or your family use at other times of the day? (02)
☐ Move around to different areas with a laptop? (03)

Q64a Now we'd like to know more about the general impressions you have of AdviceCo as an employer. For each of the following, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Agree (05)	Agree (04)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (03)	Disagree (02)	Strongly Disagree (01)
My relationship with AdviceCo is strictly an economic one - I work and they pay me. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not care what AdviceCo does for me in the long run, only what it does right now. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I only want to do more for AdviceCo when I see that they will do more for me. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I watch very carefully what I get from AdviceCo, relative to what I contribute. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
All I really expect from AdviceCo is that I be paid for my work effort. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The most accurate way to describe my work situation is to say that I give a fair day's work for a fair day's pay. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My relationship with AdviceCo is impersonal, I have little emotional involvement at work. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
AdviceCo has made a significant investment in me. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q64b For each of the following, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Agree (05)	Agree (04)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (03)	Disagree (02)	Strongly Disagree (01)
The things I do on the job today will benefit my standing in AdviceCo in the long run. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is a lot of give and take in my relationship with AdviceCo. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I worry that all my efforts on behalf of AdviceCo will never be recognised. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't mind working hard today – I know I will eventually be recognised by my organisation. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My relationship with AdviceCo is based on mutual trust. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I try to look out for the best interests of the organisation because I can rely on AdviceCo to take care of me. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even though I may not always receive the recognition from AdviceCo I deserve, I know my efforts will be recognised in the future. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q65 For each of the following, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Agree (05)	Agree (04)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (03)	Disagree (02)	Strongly Disagree (01)
I share many of AdviceCo' values. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel loyal to AdviceCo. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud to tell people who I work for. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q66a Next, we'd like you to think about the role your family and friends play in how you manage your work responsibilities and personal commitments. Do you tend to discuss your work with friends and family?

- ☐ Yes (01)
☐ No (02)

Q66b For each of the following, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Agree (05)	Agree (04)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (03)	Disagree (02)	Strongly Disagree (01)
My friends and family are interested in my job. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I am frustrated by work, a friend or family member tries to understand. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I have a problem at work, my friends and family express concern. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My friends and family are sympathetic when I am upset about my work. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My friends and family are proud when something good happens at work (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q67 Finally, please help us to analyse the results of the survey by providing some general information about yourself. The information you provide will be completely confidential. Are you male or female?

- ☐ Male (01)
☐ Female (02)

Q68 Marital status:

- ☐ Single / Divorced / Widowed (01)
☐ Married or live with a partner in a similar relationship (02)
☐ Married or in a similar relationship but do not live with partner (03)

Q69 Is your partner:

- ☐ Working full-time (01)
- ☐ Working part-time (02)
- ☐ At home / Not currently working (03)

Q70 Would you describe yourself as the main earner in your household at present?

- ☐ Yes (01)
- ☐ No (02)
- ☐ Refused (98)

Q71 Please tell us who else lives in your household. Please tick all that apply:

- ☐ Child(ren) age 18 or younger (01)
- ☐ Children over age 18 (02)
- ☐ Non-family member / friend (03)
- ☐ My parent(s) / My partner's parent(s) (04)
- ☐ Other family (i.e. aunts, uncles, cousins) (05)
- ☐ None of the above (6)

Q71b What are the ages of your children under 18 living in your household? For children less than 1 year of age, please enter "0" in the box provided.

- _____ Child 1 (years) (1)
- _____ Child 2 (years) (2)
- _____ Child 3 (years) (3)
- _____ Child 4 (years) (4)
- _____ Child 5 (years) (5)
- _____ Child 6 (years) (6)
- _____ Child 7 (years) (7)
- _____ Child 8 (years) (8)

Q71a How many children over age 18 are living in your household?

- ☐ 1 (1)
- ☐ 2 (2)
- ☐ 3 (3)
- ☐ 4 (4)
- ☐ 5 (5)
- ☐ 6 (6)
- ☐ 7 (7)
- ☐ 8 (8)
- ☐ More than 8 (9)

Q71c How many non-family members / friends are living in your household?

- ☐ 1 (1)
- ☐ 2 (2)
- ☐ 3 (3)
- ☐ 4 (4)
- ☐ 5 (5)
- ☐ 6 (6)
- ☐ 7 (7)
- ☐ 8 (8)
- ☐ More than 8 (9)

Q71d How many parents are living in your household?

- ☐ 1 (1)
- ☐ 2 (2)
- ☐ 3 (3)
- ☐ 4 (4)
- ☐ More than 4 (5)

Q71e How many other family members (i.e. aunts, uncles, cousins) are living in your household?

- ☐ 1 (1)
- ☐ 2 (2)
- ☐ 3 (3)
- ☐ 4 (4)
- ☐ 5 (5)
- ☐ 6 (6)
- ☐ 7 (7)
- ☐ 8 (8)
- ☐ More than 8 (9)

Q72 (Aside from dependent children) Do you have caring responsibilities for anyone due to age, illness, or disability?

- ☐ Yes (01)
- ☐ No (02)

Q73 How old are you? (years)

Q74 To which of these groups do you consider yourself to belong?

- ☐ White / White British (01)
- ☐ Asian / Asian British (02)
- ☐ Any mixed background (03)
- ☐ Any other non-white background (04)

Q75 Do you have any long-term illness, health problem or disability? By long-term, we mean that it can be expected to last for more than one year.

- ☐ Yes (01)
- ☐ No (02)

Q76 There is one last phase to our Homeworking Research. This involves a Daily Event Survey that will take place over a two-week period. Your participation in this part of the research is essential for us to truly understand the day-to-day factors that impact your experiences relating to homeworking. The daily event survey will be online and should take no more than 5 to 7 minutes per day to complete. We ask that you complete it at the end of the day to accurately reflect both your home and work experiences for the day.

You will receive an email with the link to each day's survey every afternoon. We do appreciate that you are busy and your participation is of course voluntary; however, we hope that you can find time to support this final phase of the research. Many thanks in advance for your assistance with this research.

For queries on this research, please contact Kelly Basile at K.A.Basile@LSE.AC.UK. To register for the Daily Event Survey, please click on the following link. This link will provide you with further details on the study as well as allow you to select a start date for your participation.

mRegister to participate in daily event study (1)

mContinue without registering (2)

Q77 Many thanks for agreeing to participate in the Daily Event Study. Please enter your email address in the box below. The research team will be in touch with you by email over the next few days to provide instructions for participation.

Q78 Many thanks for your participation in the Staff Survey on homeworking!

mSubmit completed survey (1)

APPENDIX II: Interview guide (Group 1)

Introduction and General Information

I want to thank you for taking the time to participate in this research. The purpose of these interviews is to help us understand key factors associated with homeworking from the perspectives of homeworkers, flexible workers and office-based workers.

If you don't mind, I would like to record our interview. This will not be shared with anyone, but will help me to avoid taking notes during our talk. It will also help me to be more accurate when I go back and listen to the interview and create notes after our session. Do I have your agreement?

Anything that you tell me during this interview will be kept confidential and will not be shared with other research participants. When the final report is written up, your identity will be kept anonymous, and anything you say that could identify you won't be included.

This interview will take approximately 60 minutes. You can refuse to answer any question you are not comfortable with and if you would like to stop the interview at any point, please let me know. Do you have any questions before we begin?

General Employee Information:

1.) How long have you been working at AdviceCo?

- a. Have you changed jobs/role during that time? (e.g., Telephone Services to Advisor)

2.) I'd like to know a bit about your working arrangements at AdviceCo:

- a. What is your official designation (homeworker, flexible worker or office-based worker)?
- b. What are your typical working patterns (probe for specifics on hours, office vs. "at home" vs. "from home", amount of time travelling or on the road, evening and weekends)?
- c. (If time spent "on the road") How often do you work on trains?
- d. What type of access do you have to work outside of the office (full homeworking set-up, remote log-in, laptop, smartphone)?

3.) In your role, do you manage others?

- a. If Yes, how many and what role do they have?
- b. Are they office, flexible or homeworkers?

4.) Do you get feedback about your work from the people that you work with?

- a. Do you agree with this feedback?
- b. How successfully do you feel that you perform your role at AdviceCo?

Homeworking Issues and Benefits:

(For Flexible Workers and Homeworkers Only)

1.) Have you always been a homeworker / flexible worker at AdviceCo, or did you used to be office-based? (probe for job changes / advancement since becoming a homeworker)

2.) [If applicable]Please tell me a little bit about your decision to become a homeworker / flexible worker and the transition process.

- a. Was your line manager involved with this decision?
- b. What were your primary work-related concerns about homeworking / flexible working at that time?
- c. What, if any, concerns did you have about how homeworking / flexible working would impact your personal life?
- d. Were there certain aspects of homeworking / flexible working that you were not prepared for?
- e. How well did AdviceCo support your transition to becoming a homeworker / flexible worker?

3.) What challenges have you faced as a homeworker? Please describe.

4.) What benefits do you recognize from homeworking? Please describe.

- 5.) As a homeworker, how do you create a separation between your work and private life? Are you able to “switch off” from work during evenings and weekends? (probe for answering the phone, checking emails, etc.)
- 6.) What tactics do you use to maintain this separation? (probe for designated working areas, household rules, time of day, etc.)
- 7.) Are these tactics successful? What happens when these tactics are not successful?
- 8.) What happens when you are sick on days you are working from home? Do you carry on working or do you take sick leave?
- 9.) Have the demands of your job changed since you have begun homeworking / flexible working?
 - a. Increase or decrease? Why?
- 10.) Do you have regular contact with other homeworkers / flexible workers? Is this for work-related or non-work related reasons?
- 11.) Would you ever be interested in returning to an office-based position? Why or why not? (probe for career development / promotion)
- 12.) How often do you work from the office?
 - a. How it is decided when you will be at home and when you will be in the office? Do you plan your own schedule or does your manager intervene?
 - b. When you work in the office, do you have a designated space? Equipment?
 - c. Do you enjoy your days in the office? Why?
 - d. How do days in the office differ from days working from home (e.g. are they spent entirely in meetings?)
 - e. How often do you attend team or office-based meetings? What, if any, difficulties do you experience with attending team meetings?
- 13.) (For Individual Conciliators Only) How often do you have face to face meetings with one or both parties in a dispute?

- a. What factors impact the likelihood of having a face to face meeting?
- b. What are the expectations of your line manager regarding having face to face meetings with your clients? Do you agree with these expectations?

(For Office-Based Workers Only)

- 1.) Do you feel that you or others in your office benefit from having flexible or homeworking colleagues (peers/managers)? If so, please describe.
- 2.) Do you feel that there are challenges in collaborating with peers/managers who are flexible workers or homeworkers? If so, please describe.
- 3.) Is flexible working or homeworking a working arrangement you might consider using yourself in the future? Why / Why not? (probe for role constraints, home environment, segmentation preferences, concerns about social isolation, career concerns)

(For Managers of Homeworkers / Flexible Workers Only)

How often do you communicate with your employees who are homeworkers? How do you keep in touch with them? (probe for formal and ad hoc communications, regular calls, meetings, emails, etc.)

- 1.) How do you monitor the performance of employees who work from home? Do you have a different strategy for monitoring homeworkers versus office-based workers?
 - a. What types of measures and controls do you use (probe for behaviour vs. output based)?
- 2.) Are there specific challenges or concerns that you have with managing homeworkers?

(Ask all) Internal Communications:

- 1.) How often do you communicate with your line manager, and how do you do so (probe for formal vs. ad hoc communication)?
 - a. Do you think this is enough, too often or too little?
 - b. (For Flexible Workers and Homeworkers Only) Do you ever communicate with your manager specifically about homeworking / flexible working?

- c. Is your line manager a homeworker?
- 2.) (For Flexible Workers and Homeworkers Only) On an average day while working from home, how often are you communicating with colleagues or clients? By phone or online? Meetings?

Information Technology:

- 1.) (For Flexible Workers and Homeworkers Only) How satisfied are you with the technological resources made available to you to work from home?
 - a. How well do these resources allow you to do your job?
 - b. How well do these resources allow you to communicate with others?
- 2.) (For Flexible Workers and Homeworkers Only) Are there technology resources that you wish you had that aren't available to you at the moment?
- 3.) (Ask All) (If their office is already on the [Name] system) Has the roll-out of the Phoenix system had any impact on your work?
- 4.) (Ask All) Do you use social media such as Facebook, Twitter or instant messaging to communicate with anyone at work or outside of work? (probe on reasons for use)
 - a. If yes, do you think that social media would be useful for communicating with professional colleagues? If so, please describe.
 - b. Do you ever use Skype as a means of communicating with clients or colleagues? If not, is this something that you feel would be useful? Why / why not?

(For IT Support Providers Only)

- 1.) Does your role change when assisting homeworkers and flexible workers vs. office-based workers? If so, how?
- 2.) What do you see as being the biggest challenge to homeworkers from a technology perspective?
- 3.) What enhancements to IT technology would you recommend in order to make homeworking more effective?

4.) (For Cardiff & Leeds only) What are your impressions of the [Name] system? How has this impacted homeworking at AdviceCo?

5.) (For London only) What impact do you think the [Name] system will have on homeworking at AdviceCo?

(Ask All)

Workload and Responsibilities:

1.) How would you describe your workload?

a. Do you experience stress or pressure related to the demands of your job?

b. Where does that pressure come from? (probe for deadlines, different groups demand different things, etc.)

2.) Are you able to take breaks from work when you need them? (examples are a good probe here)

Non-Work Responsibilities:

1.) When you're not working, how do you spend your spare time?

a. Do you have a partner / children at home?

b. What outside activities do you participate in (community, sporting, religious, political, hobbies, etc)?

Work Life Conflict:

1. How satisfied are you with your work-life balance?

a. Does your work ever interfere with your ability to get things done in your personal life?

b. Does your personal life ever interfere with your ability to get things done on the job?

Work Life Enrichment:

- 1.) Do you think you get anything out of your job that's useful to you in your personal life?
Pay would be an obvious example, but other examples might be, skills that you learned at work that you can use at home, or social support, for instance...
- 2.) What about the other way around? Are there any ways in which your personal life helps you to perform your work role?

Autonomy and Control:

- 1.) In general, how much control do you feel you have over how you do your work?
(probe for control over schedule and making decisions)

Task Interdependence:

- 1.) How closely do you need to work or coordinate with others at AdviceCo to do your job?

(prompt for how much their work impacts their colleagues and how much they rely on information from their colleagues)
- 2.) What helps you to coordinate with others in your team? (probe for factors relating to coordination and knowledge sharing, as well as differences relating to homeworking)
(also probe for formal and informal systems that support this coordination)
- 3.) Is there anything that sometimes makes it difficult for you to coordinate with your team members? (probe for factors relating to homeworking)

Support:

- 1.) How would you describe your relationships with your co-workers? (Probe on office-based versus homeworkers)
- 2.) How would you describe your relationship with your line manager?
- 3.) How supportive are your friends and family of the demands you have from work? Are they satisfied with how you manage your home and work demands? (if flexible or homeworkers, probe for issues relating to working from home)

Boundaries and Preferences:

1. How flexible is your job in terms of allowing you to meet demands from outside of work? For example, are you able to schedule time away from work to deal with family issues or events happening in your personal life?
2. [IF previous response indicates flexibility:] How willing are you to change your working patterns to meet family or personal needs? For example, are you willing to leave early to accommodate a family request?
 - a. (How do you feel when you are interrupted at work to deal with personal or family matters?
3. How flexible is your personal life in terms of allowing you to meet work demands? For example, if you suddenly needed to stay late at work, do your responsibilities outside of work allow you to do this?
4. [IF previous response indicates flexibility:] How willing are you to change your personal plans / routines to deal with work issues? For example, are you willing to cancel plans with friends in order to take on a new assignment?
 - a. How do you feel when you are interrupted by work during time when you feel you not are 'on duty' to AdviceCo?
5. In general, do you prefer to have separate blocks of time for work and non-work activities, or do you like having the ability to switch back and forth between work and non-work tasks during the day?
 - a. Do you find it difficult to switch back and forth between work tasks and non-work-related tasks or activities?

Organizational Commitment and Career Development:

- 1.) What is more important to you – working for AdviceCo as an organization, or doing the actual type of work that you do?
- 2.) Do you see yourself working for AdviceCo for a long time? Why or why not?

- 3.) What are your career aspirations within AdviceCo? What positions would you be interested in seeking in the future? (probe for motivations related to career progression, particularly for homeworkers)
- 4.) Have you participated in any type of training while working at AdviceCo? Please describe. (probe for courses, secondments, shadowing, etc)
- a. When was this? (probe for career development activities since becoming a homeworker)
 - b. What did you hope to gain from participating in the training?

Closing

If you were tasked with improving homeworking at AdviceCo, what recommendations would you have?

Is there anything else related to homeworking that we haven't yet discussed that you feel it is important for me to know?

Thank you for your participation in this research.

APPENDIX III: Paper I results

Table 11: Main differential characteristics of life stages

Variable	Life-stage	N	Mean	S.D.
Age (years)	Early adulthood	45	26.96	2.94
	Middle adulthood	167	38.86	4.32
	Late adulthood	295	53.35	5.29
	TOTAL	507	46.23	10.18
Having children 18 years old or younger living at home (0=No, 1=Yes)	Early adulthood	45	0.13	0.34
	Middle adulthood	167	0.56	0.50
	Late adulthood	295	0.27	0.45
	TOTAL	507	0.35	0.48
Age of youngest child (years)	Early adulthood	6	3.33	2.34
	Middle adulthood	86	5.31	4.92
	Late adulthood	75	10.52	5.58
	TOTAL	167	7.58	5.80
Caring for dependents (aside from children) (0=No, 1=Yes)	Early adulthood	45	0.13	0.34
	Middle adulthood	164	0.15	0.36
	Late adulthood	293	0.31	0.46
	TOTAL	502	0.24	0.43
Marital status (1=Single / Divorced / Widowed) (2= Married or living with a partner in a similar relationship) (3= Married or in a similar relationship but not living with partner)	Early adulthood	44	1.66	0.53
	Middle adulthood	167	1.81	0.47
	Late adulthood	291	1.84	0.48
	TOTAL	502	1.81	0.48
Managerial level (1 to 5, 1 being the highest level and 5 being the lowest level)	Early adulthood	45	3.76	0.83
	Middle adulthood	167	3.34	0.83
	Late adulthood	295	2.94	0.97
	TOTAL	507	3.14	0.95

APPENDIX IV: Paper II illustrative quotes

Theme	Subtheme	Illustrative quote
Perception of homeworking	Reasons for homeworking	'We all moved to [name of geographical area] and that closed 18 months later because of budgetary constraints and we were all made to be home workers' - Samuel, homeworker, 23 years of organisational tenure.
	Value for the employee	'I wanted a job where I could be around for the children and that was reasonably flexible...[...] Other benefits, well the obvious thing about travel and you save time and you can get more done.' - Ewan, homeworker, 16 years of organisational tenure.
		'I think you are more focused when you are working from home because you don't have the same distractions as you do in the office. It's easier to concentrate.' - Domina, homeworker, 22 years of organisational tenure.
		'...the most straightforward one [benefit] as an illustrative [illustration] of that is the role I've got at the moment which if we didn't support flexible working I wouldn't have been able to do. There are not that many roles. There is only one role at this grade in the [name of geographical area] when I started.' - Duke, manager and flexible worker, 12 years of organisational tenure.
		'...I chose to move out to [geographical area] and I needed to be home based there because there wasn't an office nearby.' - Fay, manager and flexible worker (former homeworker), 20 years of organisational tenure.
		'...they [homeworkers] do benefit by getting the work life balance. They can stretch their day or they can work at weekends as long as the work is done.' - Wendall, manager and flexible worker, 13 years of organisational tenure.
		'I think homeworking is seen [by AdviceCo] as a convenient and cheap option.' - Fay, manager and flexible worker, 20 years of organisational tenure.
		'I can see the obvious benefits to the individuals, some of them have long distances to travel or domestic commitments like taking kids to school which means they can work around that and work more flexibly. - Joseph, office-based worker, 22 years of organisational tenure.
		'There is a benefit in that ... there is more office space for us.' - Lana, office-based worker, 8 years of organisational tenure.

	Employer's support	'I suppose you are always very reliant on the technology that the phone works and the computer works whereas if you're in the office and your phone breaks you just go to another desk and use that phone or another computer. When you are at home you are at the mercy of the technology.' - Corbin, homeworker, 16 years of organisational tenure.
		'Initially the hassle of getting the technology sorted out which was a real pain and it was far more complicated than it should have been getting the phone and computer sorted out and support for that, IT backup support for that.' - Ewan, homeworker, 16 years of organisational tenure.
		'In terms of physical provision of equipment and that at the time, [it was] fine.' - Fay, manager and flexible worker (former homeworker), 20 years of organisational tenure.
		<p>'So far as any kind of training or discussion we didn't get any. It was more or less, here's your files here, here's your files there. They gave us a phone and a desk and chair and other bits and pieces, furniture bits but there was no different support given. It was more or less get on with it, it's your house.</p> <p>There were things like risk assessments and things like that where they came round and checked the wiring, checked that I actually lived where I said I lived I imagine and things like but nothing really what I would say concrete helping the individual to adapt to working from home.' - Fotis, homeworker, 16 years of organisational tenure.</p>
		'I think that we could put some more structured arrangements in place to ensure that people are supported rather than just hoping for the best. I think we rely on the homeworker's or flexible worker's own initiative and the goodwill of the teams in general rather than actually having the mechanics to make sure it is working for them' - Duke, manager and flexible worker, 12 years of organisational tenure.
		'I think that there could be more [emotional support] and maybe that is what this is partly about, a better understanding of the emotional cost of homeworking and more support and awareness raising among managers and amongst staff of the issues with homeworking...' - Fay, manager and flexible worker, 20 years of organisational tenure.
Employee's contribution	Expected employee contribution	'I do like coming in the office. I feel it is important. I come in for meetings such as today, I have a team meeting unless I am on leave or I am physically unable to come in and sometimes I just come in with files to say hi to people. It is probably, say, three times a month I come in.' - Rose, homeworker, 8 years of organisational tenure.
		'I think I am like lots of people, part of the problem once you become a homeworker, well it's not a problem, it's a situation, once you become a homeworker sometimes you resent having to come in to the

		office because you are used to your daily routine at home more or less now.' - Fotis, homeworker, 16 years of organisational tenure.
		'So there is a problem that sometimes that is noticed that you are rarely at [meetings]. So that can become a problem.' - Ewan, homeworker, 16 years of organisational tenure.
		'At the moment the requirement [to come into the office] for home based advisors, effectively, is half a day a month and we find that some of them complain about that. In fairness to them it is because they feel as if they are letting their customers down and they would spend that time better dealing with cases but they are missing the point that they need to stay engaged with the organisation.' - Ralf, manager and flexible worker, 6 years of organisational tenure.
		'I think it's reasonable to expect people to come in some times. You need to give them notice if it's about child care obviously but it sometimes seems like a bridge too far asking staff to come in to a meeting once a month.' - Duke, manager and flexible worker, 12 years of organisational tenure.
		'The one thing that really annoys me is that people don't get in on time. There's an allowance made by the fact that people work from home so we don't have meetings at nine o'clock. We have to wait until half past ten and I find that really irritating.' - Fay, manager and flexible worker, 20 years of organisational tenure.
		'So that is a real challenge I think with a mobile workforce is actually getting people together. I think the only time we ever manage it is the Christmas lunch.' - George, manager and flexible worker, 5 years of organisational tenure.
		'We also have concerns that when a flexible person is based more at home they become set and comfortable with doing the job role and managing it in their own way whereas the organisational demands can change and evolve and it is harder to change the flexible workers to do what you think the new job role requires.' - Wendall, manager and flexible worker, 13 years of organisational tenure.
		'I don't think that sending people to work from home encourages that knowledge transfer because the physical, seeing what happens in that job role and how people go about things and the opportunity to go with them and listen in and everything else, I think one of the biggest impacts of working at home, flexible working is that lack of understanding of what goes on in the other parts of the business within the local office. I think that is a very significant drain on resource.' - Duke, manager and flexible worker, 12 years of organisational tenure.
		'I don't find that I generally have to do that but there is an expectation in AdviceCo of homeworkers and

		other homeworkers that sometimes if a matter is urgent and it needs to be sorted out that we will, for some reason, stay and do it but like everyone else I have other commitments so if I need to be somewhere else I think I am more inclined to say to people, I'm sorry I am not staying. I need to go at five o'clock or four o'clock or six o'clock.' - Corbin, homeworker, 16 years of organisational tenure.
		'This constant demanding of flexible working arrangements for them but never being flexible with the organisation or constant, especially childcare cover to be funded and requests that I thought were not really appropriate.' - George, manager and flexible worker, 5 years of organisational tenure.
		'I think we [flexible workers] do operate a very fair, flexible type of arrangement. I think there is an expectation that you will deal with things but I think there is an equal or equivalent amount of flexibility in terms of if you need to take a bit of time back. I think it is very fair the way that we run it, certainly in my experience.' - Duke, manager and flexible worker, 12 years of organisational tenure.
	Perceived employee contribution	'I think we are working with ever decreasing resources overall, so trying to do more for less. It is probably more about that than the extra demands that any flexible arrangement places on you.' - Duke, manager and flexible worker, 12 years of organisational tenure.
		'At the time [of starting homeworking], well actually probably a little bit now, this one thing and that is proving your worth because you are not seen I think we make a little bit more effort and perhaps do put in a little bit more in to the job in terms of the hours that we work.' - Rose, homeworker, 8 years of organisational tenure.
		'So I think you relax a little bit after you've been a homeworker a while...When you come in to the office you might be standing at the tea point chatting about football or something. You would think, ah if I was doing this at home I'd feel really guilty. So I think you get used to it and you relax a bit... I think yes, you can take tea breaks and whatever you want.' - Ewan, homeworker, 16 years of organisational tenure.
		'... you tend to spend longer just doing [AdviceCo] work because it is there and you've got the equipment in your home. So you tend to not to just finish at five or whatever when the office closes.' - Mycroft, homeworker, 20 years of organisational tenure.
		'Yes. I think that is definitely the case. There are sometimes, say you've got a bit of a sore throat or you just don't feel very well and you think perhaps in the past, well actually I probably would have still come in but it is less likely that I would have come in to work, I would have just taken the day off. When you are at home you think, well I am here anyway. Unless I feel really, really rough I will always work through it, yeah.' - Fotis, homeworker, 16 years of organisational tenure.

		'It has been proven that flexible and homeworkers have less sick leave or take less sick leave than office based workers. I think that is mainly because they can carry on putting in a little bit of work here, there and everywhere as opposed to office based workers who sometimes can't face the thought of coming in to the office but have to carry on in or report themselves sick.' - Annabelle, manager and office-based worker, 4 years of organisational tenure.
EOR	Quasi-spot contract	'So it kinda works both ways I think to some extent and it probably suits AdviceCo in as much as they can reduce their costs and accommodation and for other people, some employees, it is helpful to them if they've got caring responsibilities.' - Mycroft, homeworker, 20 years of organisational tenure.
	Mutual investment	'I do find that flexible workers do put in the time required to complete the task and then they gain the time back elsewhere. Well I try and encourage them to gain the time back elsewhere, sometimes they do, like a lot of people these days, they extend their working week.' - Wendall, manager and flexible worker, 13 years of organisational culture.
	Under investment	'I am sure that AdviceCo actually gets a pretty good deal out of me to be honest with you. I do claw some of it back but I suspect that AdviceCo is probably the winner.' - Rose, homeworker, 8 years of organisational tenure.
		<p>'I mean the pros for the office are that they don't pay rent. They were paying £80,000 - £90,000 a year for an office and that's gone. There is no heating, there is no gas, there's no electric, there's no rates, there's no excess fares. I pay that. What I get back now from the revenue is £3 a week in my tax.</p> <p>Yes, the house wouldn't be heated if I wasn't there during the winter. Yes, I would be perhaps driving but as my wife explained to me, you could be two miles down the road and you walk to work. So the organisation gains financially hand over fist and I don't think the contribution and the effort that homeworkers make is fully appreciated. Lip service may be paid but I don't think that's genuine, personally.' - Samuel, homeworker, 23 years of organisational tenure.</p>
		'I guess it was so standard that people did do homeworking so once they knew you were interested you just did it. There was a process where they came and checked and made sure that things were safe and that they were happy with the accommodation that you had but it was pretty much rubber stamped. [...] It was almost like a given. I would have been really shocked if they had not agreed [to employee's request for homeworking].' - Lisa, homeworker, 12 years of organisational tenure.
	Over investment	'I think there is a risk and I think AdviceCo is vulnerable to this where we become so flexible that the person's individual personal interests outweigh the interests of the organisation professionally.' - Ralf,

		manager and flexible worker, 5 years of organisational tenure.
		'... there are benefits [from homeworking for those who use the practice] but I think there are lots of downsides to the organisation and the other people that work in the office.' - Joseph, office-based worker, 22 years of organisational tenure.
		'I think what I am saying from my point of view is that I think a number of our staff think that the organisation should always accommodate to their needs and seem unwilling to show a reciprocal flexibility [...] I know there are other people who share my view of that.' - Ralf, manager and flexible worker, 5 years of organisational tenure.
		'I think of the number of times, [homeworkers ask] oh can I just go out and do this, can I just go out and do that. Then if you ask them [homeworkers] to come in for an extra time, they only come in once a month but if you ask them to come in for an additional time there is a huge resistance to that. Well I've got to be back for this, to pick up the kids and for this and to do this, that and the other. I think the balance of getting the work life balance right has switched more to home than work rather than being in balance with each other and coming in to the office is very clearly a nuisance.' - Naomi, manager and flexible worker, 16 years of organisational tenure.
		'I think one of my concerns about people working from home is that it can become almost a fur lined rut. So that people are not motivated to push and do a bit more or do something new or something extra particularly if they build their domestic and child care and other arrangements around the working pattern that working flexibly facilitates.' - Duke, manager and flexible worker, 12 years of organisational tenure.
		'This constant demanding of flexible working arrangements for them [employees] but never being flexible with the organisation ... So there is a culture of entitlement that has crept in which is common in the public sector...' - George, manager and flexible worker, 5 years of organisational tenure.
		'It's a difficult balance to strike... I think it is about reasonable compromise and I think sometimes the pendulum in AdviceCo swings too far the other way although I accept there are lots of employers where the pendulum will swing totally the opposite way where your personal needs are of absolutely no interest whatsoever to an employer. I would never, ever want AdviceCo to be like that. In fact I never, ever want to work for anyone like that because that is just as unreasonable.' - Ralf, manager and flexible worker, 5 years of organisational tenure.
		'...it is noticeable with [geographical area] based homeworkers that their behaviours seem to be linked to just achieving the specific job outcomes rather than a wider commitment to the organisation.' - Wendall,

		manager and flexible worker, 13 years of organisational tenure.
		'I think they [homeworkers] become disassociated with the organisation. I don't think they feel they belong to AdviceCo. They are associates of AdviceCo. We just feed them the work and they do it. So they are like piece workers in that respect just that they get their regular money for doing it.' - Wendall, manager and flexible worker, 13 years of organisational tenure.

APPENDIX V: Illustrative quotes per theme (Paper III)

Theme	Subtheme	Illustrative quote
Context	External contextual factors	'...AdviceCo had just gone through a massive voluntary redundancy programme in 2006.' - George, manager and flexible worker, 6 years of organisational tenure.
		'... my salary is frozen and has been for the last four years.' - George, manager and flexible worker, 6 years of organisational tenure.
		'...I think everybody's workload has increased in the last five or six years across the public sector. There are fewer staff but the demand for the service is not necessarily any less than it was. So everybody is experiencing more pressure of work.' - Ralf, manager and flexible worker, 8 years of organisational tenure.
	Internal contextual factors	'They [employees] stay at AdviceCo.' - Hugh, manager and flexible worker, 25 years of organisational tenure.
		'I work for AdviceCo primarily because I've always been a civil servant.' - Lana, office-based worker, 8 years of organisational tenure.
		'We are a very ageing population.' - Hugh, manager and flexible worker, 25 years of organisational tenure.
Culture	Trust in employees	'So we should become an organisation that is proud of our flexible work arrangements. Well I think we are because we are proud of the flexibility that we give people.' - Grace, office-based manager, 19 years of organisational tenure.
	Supportive of flexible working practices	'I think the interesting thing is that AdviceCo, as an organisation, is hugely sympathetic to the idea of flexible doing of your job. There is no clock watching. There is no clocking in. There is none of that. People come and go, apart from the telephone Helpline, people come and go as they please and work largely wherever is convenient to them.' - Alfred, manager and flexible worker, 18 years of organisational tenure.
	Supportive of employees' autonomy	'I've been with AdviceCo for a good period of time. I've worked in public and private sectors. I think in so far as the culture of the organisation, generally speaking, the autonomy that managers enjoy, generally speaking, I think it's positive.' - Reginald, manager and office-based worker, 19 of organisational tenure.

	Rights awareness	'...we are a very strongly collective organisation, everyone is very aware of their individual and collective rights and we do, as a workforce, work to defend those rights if we think they are being breached in any way.' - Priya, manager and flexible worker, 7 years of organisational tenure.
		'John Smith used to be our [external] advisor and he described the culture here as "rights based." You can't do that because it is a right I have... That is the kind of environment which we are dealing with. It is like children in the playground on many occasions.' - Gibson, manager and office worker, 30 years of organisational tenure.
	Benevolence	'The one taboo in AdviceCo would be for me to say to you, when you are complaining about your lot as some people do, if I said to you perhaps you should leave and find somewhere else to work, that would be viewed by my senior managers, what a terrible thing to say. That is appalling and there would be statements and derision. How could you possibly say that? Almost as if I had stabbed you or something like that as opposed to saying well, hold on, that is a very valid point.' - Hugh, manager and flexible worker, 25 years of organisational tenure.
	Aversion to change	'We are a very conservative organisation about a lot of things. We tend to be very slow to change and to take baby steps and often go backwards.' - Priya, manager and flexible worker, 7 years of organisational tenure.
Creation of climate	Organisational structure	'...if you look at the way the organisation is structured we have a very few number of admin staff. We have roughly 200 people doing Helpline activities, roughly 350 people doing [advisory services] and then it funnels back in to around 80 or 90 staff doing [senior advisory services] and that is the next step on the career ladder.' - Gibson, manager and office worker, 30 years of organisational tenure.
	Management practices	'We take on people who are Grade 3's. The Grade 3 job description, the job evaluation, will say you should run network groups for managers, you should be able to deliver talks, you should be able to deal with [complex advisory services] ... That is what the grade says and yet we take on people who will actually say I don't do any of that. We don't recruit other people who do that and then when we need someone from this silo to do that they quite rightly say no, I didn't join AdviceCo to do that.' - Hugh, manager and flexible worker, 25 years of organisational tenure.
		'What tends to happen is the major change I've seen over the years in the Civil Service is as and when jobs do become available they've got a habit of just having temporary promotion in them rather than permanent which means that once the money runs out for that job it just disappears and then you revert back to the original grade.' - Mycroft, homeworker, 20 years of organisational tenure.
	Management style	'...you take the attitude that so long as you deliver the output I don't mind when you do it. What I do know

		is if I see you shopping in Asda on a Thursday afternoon it wouldn't worry me one iota. It would worry me if your outputs were lower than everybody else's. From that point of view if I said you're, in essence, a self-managing unit I trust you to deliver because I look upon you as an employee shareholder or a co-owner of the company. I trust you to give of your best and I hope I've recruited people who want to give of their best. If you just want to be a shelf packer doing what we tell you to do, hopefully our recruitment will sift you out and hopefully peer group pressure would say to you, you are letting everybody down, clear off. I trust you.' - Hugh, manager and flexible worker, 25 years of organisational tenure.
		'...if a manager wants a homeworker to do something that is unusual, like come to the office or go and visit somebody to talk about something, he is much more likely to select an office-based member of staff to do that than he is a homeworker... If the alternative was to ring up a homeworker and say, can you do this please, he knows that he is likely to get some pushback from that so he doesn't bother. I think that is a cultural thing that we have to accept and deal with quite frankly.' - Gibson, manager and office worker, 30 years of organisational tenure.
	Information exchange and knowledge exchange	
	Type of work	
	Homeworking policy	'Yes, [managers] they've been frightened by a homeworker. Probably it seems to me. I mean from my perspective whether somebody is an office-based worker, flexible worker, homeworker, they are a member of a team and they need to work as a member of the team, simple as that.' - Gibson, manager and office worker, 30 years of organisational tenure.
	Physical workspace	'Well we lack, I mean the building design is poor. It was dated even when it was done. [...] You come in and the air conditioning is not great. It's a nice view but the environment isn't wonderful so why would you come all this way to the office and be stuck here. Sometimes when I've been here I've been on my own all day virtually up there and you begin to feel stir crazy by the end of the day. So then people will start whingeing about AdviceCo. So a bit more thought about the design of the place and the feel would help I think.' - George, senior manager and flexible worker, 6 years of organisational tenure.
		'We don't have any offices that are so full that they couldn't absorb hugely increased amounts of occasional office working amongst flexible homeworkers. So that is not a problem.' - Alfred, manager and flexible worker, 18 years of organisational tenure.
Climate for	Climate for	'We are supposed to screen but I think you can probably count on the fingers of one hand the number of

homeworking	homeworking	people who have been told they couldn't be a homeworker in most cases. I think it is more of, well see how they get on and if it doesn't all end in tears let them continue, type of approach which isn't probably the best way.' - Elian, manager and flexible worker, 20 years of organisational tenure.
		'I think the policy is fine. The practice? The practice is different. The practice is the problem. The practice, there's a tendency for some of our homeworkers to get overwhelmed and it not to be identified until it's too far gone by which time I feel that you have us more senior managers isolating individuals and making judgements about them, unnecessary judgements without having ever met them.' - Lazarus, manager and flexible worker, 18 years of organisational tenure.
Outcomes of climate	Professional isolation	'...do we keep people in the loop knowledge wise? The answer is no. In fairness I don't think we do. In the office everybody is siloed anyway so we've siloed in advance of homeworking just by the very job nature.' - Hugh, manager and flexible worker, 25 years of organisational tenure.
		'...if you go from being in a busy office where you've got lots of colleagues that you could talk to about different issues and then when you're on your own at home you can become quite isolated I think. So that was probably my biggest concern [when starting homeworking].' - Domina, homeworker, 22 years of organisational tenure.
	Career ambition	'I used to be a homeworker but when you get promoted you give up your homeworking status which is obviously one of the bars and why some people say they are not interested because I used to be a homeworker and I am now flexible.' - Hugh, manager and flexible worker, 25 years of organisational tenure.
		'It [tax changes] has made it [promotion] less attractive from a financial perspective as well even if you are going to improve your earnings capacity. [...] It is not necessarily that they became a homeworker and then lost all their ambition. I think it is the other factors that lead to a lot of that.' - Elian, manager and flexible worker, 20 years of organisational tenure.
	Relationship with the organisation	'I think it [homeworking] can and has created a culture whereby people are disengaged and don't feel an allegiance to AdviceCo...' - Fay, manager and flexible worker, 20 years of organisational tenure.
		'...the place feels very bland, very corporate. I am not surprised people are disengaged.' - George, manager and flexible worker, 6 years of organisational tenure.
		'You do extra and I do extra but there comes a point where you've been doing extra for so many years and at the end of the month you've got nothing left in your bank account and you think this is a bit of a one sided relationship here. So I can't find a better paid job but what I will do is I will compensate for that by taking more flexibility and I will develop interests outside work and I will spend more time with my

		family, more time with my friends and you end up retreating in to private life and the work you just keep ticking over. I think that process is very common in AdviceCo. I don't think people articulate it quite that way but I see it everywhere and I see myself doing it now increasingly.' - George, manager and flexible worker, 6 years of organisational tenure.
	Organisational citizenship behaviour	'The greater emphasis on measuring of outcomes, tangible outcomes which I am not a great supporter of but when you combine that with patterns of work, like homeworking, the increased demand that everybody is trying to deal with then people can retreat behind just dealing with the immediate "what do I need to get done today".' - Ralf, manager and flexible worker, 8 years of organisational tenure.
		'So what did the advisors do? Not interested in [specific non core task]. It's not on my objective. It's not part of my job. We got this system where we said to people, can you come and give us a hand on this? No. Can you do a talk? No. I'm just an advisor. So there were problems. [...] They [flexible workers] are the sorts of people who say I don't want to be an outsider. I will do anything. I like everything we do. I want to do a bit of this and a bit of that.' - Hugh, manager and flexible worker, 25 years of organisational tenure.
	Individual performance	'I am very aware of what is involved in ... this new advisory service. How is that experience for homeworkers? How do they evolve? How do they develop? That is where I think they are professionally isolated. Are they actually engaged enough to understand and develop their skills? Are they absolutely, through no fault of their own, ever getting in to poor practices and not realising it and they are isolated in doing that?' - Grace, office-based manager, 19 years of organisational tenure.
		'So I think it [lack of job opportunities] encourages them [homeworkers] to stay in jobs long past their sell by date which is not healthy.' - Fay, manager and flexible worker, 20 years of organisational tenure.
	Organisational performance	'They are perfectly happy doing what they do but from an organisational perspective we are losing significant opportunities for different parts of the business to feed off and to each other. You know, knowledge with potential business leads in particular. Some of it happens but it is patchy, it's ad hoc and homeworking contributes to that problem.' - Ralf, manager and flexible worker, 8 years of organisational tenure.
		'[Advisors who work mostly from home are] one step removed from mainstream AdviceCo and when we want to bring in change as we are doing now, that one step removed makes it more difficult than it otherwise would be if they were all in the office and we can say, oh I see we have ten of the 12 people in today, let's have a meeting. You can't do that when you have a large group of homeworkers.' - Gibson, manager and office worker, 30 years of organisational tenure.
	Organisational	'Then with the ageing workforce that we've got how are we going to maintain that level of expertise? I

	succession	mean AdviceCo has got a succession planning problem per se...' - Grace, office-based manager, 19 years of organisational tenure.
		'...the organisational issues that if you've got a group of staff who are feeling out of the loop or have lost career ambition, and we do have an ageing workforce, which in a time when there are strict limits on recruitment [...] We don't have people in any significant numbers aspiring to those roles then at some point in the next five to ten years we could have a serious problem of not being able to fill vacancies internally which is not a disaster because there is the rest of the world from which you can recruit. That is perhaps what I am alluding to is that we may actually have to completely shift our thinking about how we recruit people over the next five to ten years because we are not developing enough of the right talent internally and the way we manage homeworking has contributed to that. So, yes, succession is perhaps the medium to long term issue. Short term I think this is part of the reason why we have certain perennial issues. One of those issues is silo working. The silos are always reinforced by geographically where people literally sit in the organisation.' - Ralf, manager and flexible worker, 8 years of organisational tenure.

APPENDIX VI: Paper III results

Figure 20: Employee's age distribution

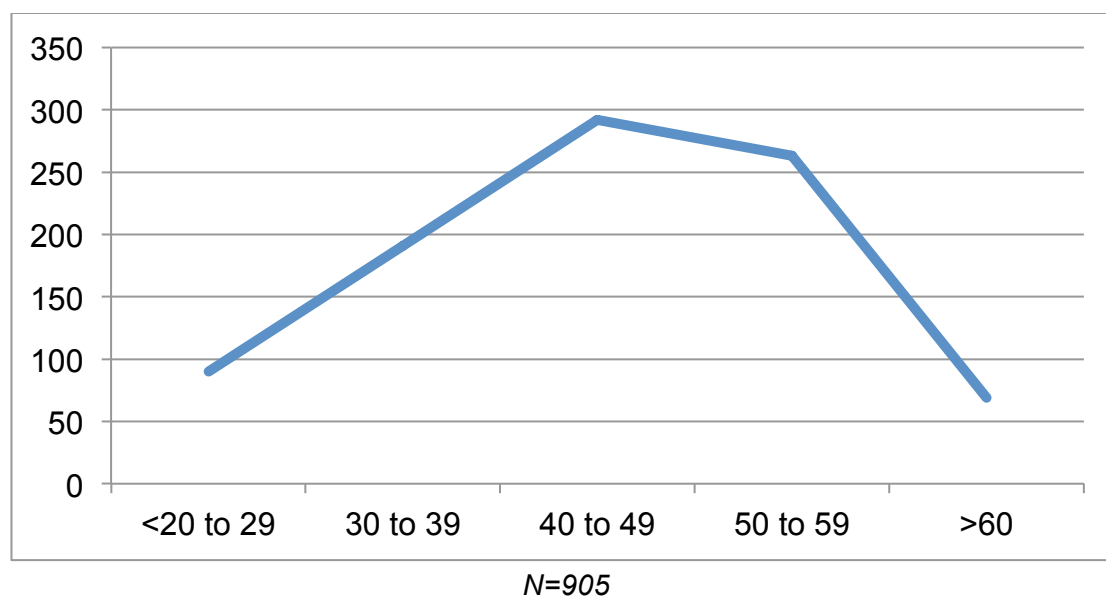
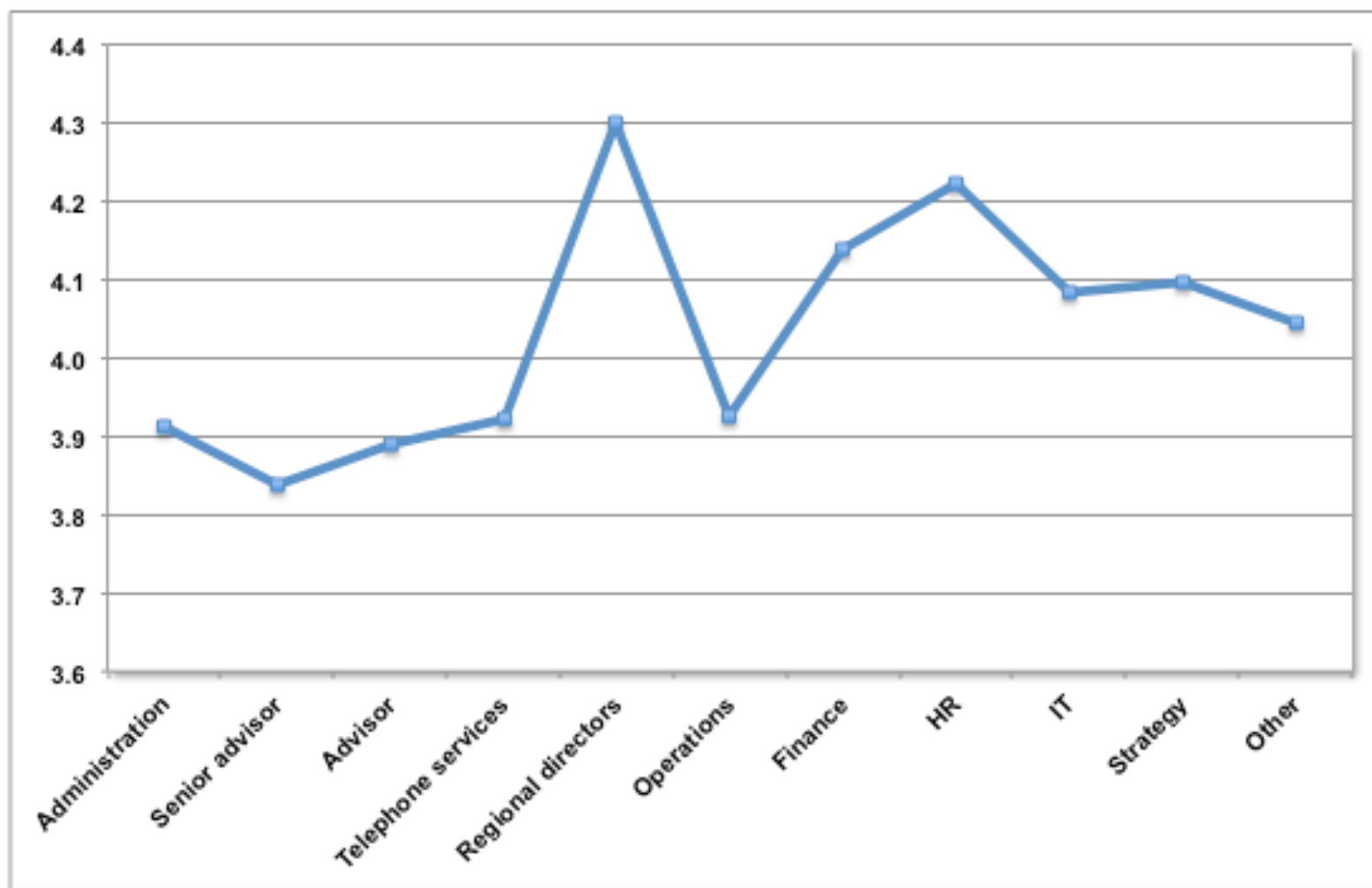
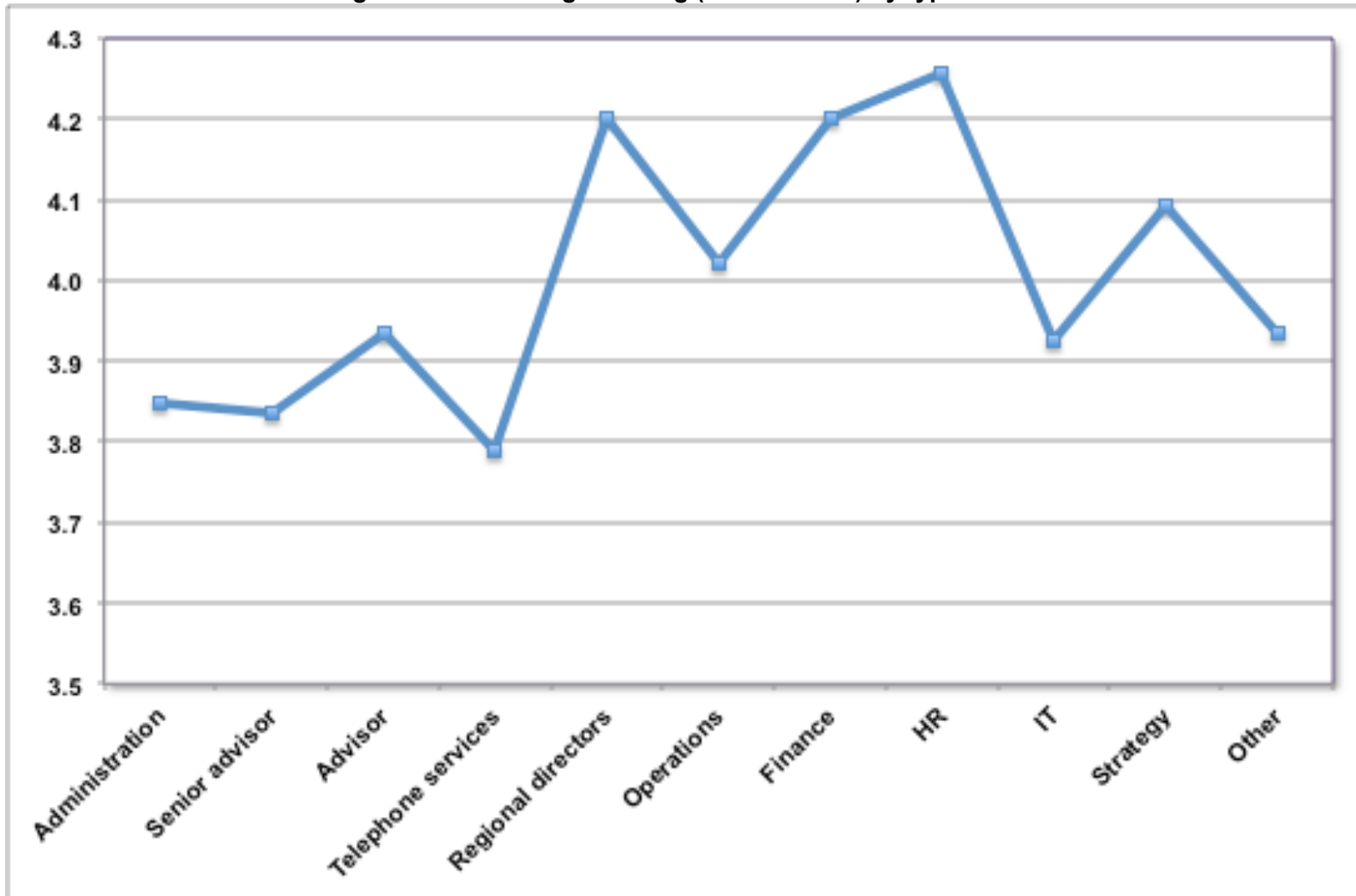


Figure 21: Information exchange (mean values) by type of role



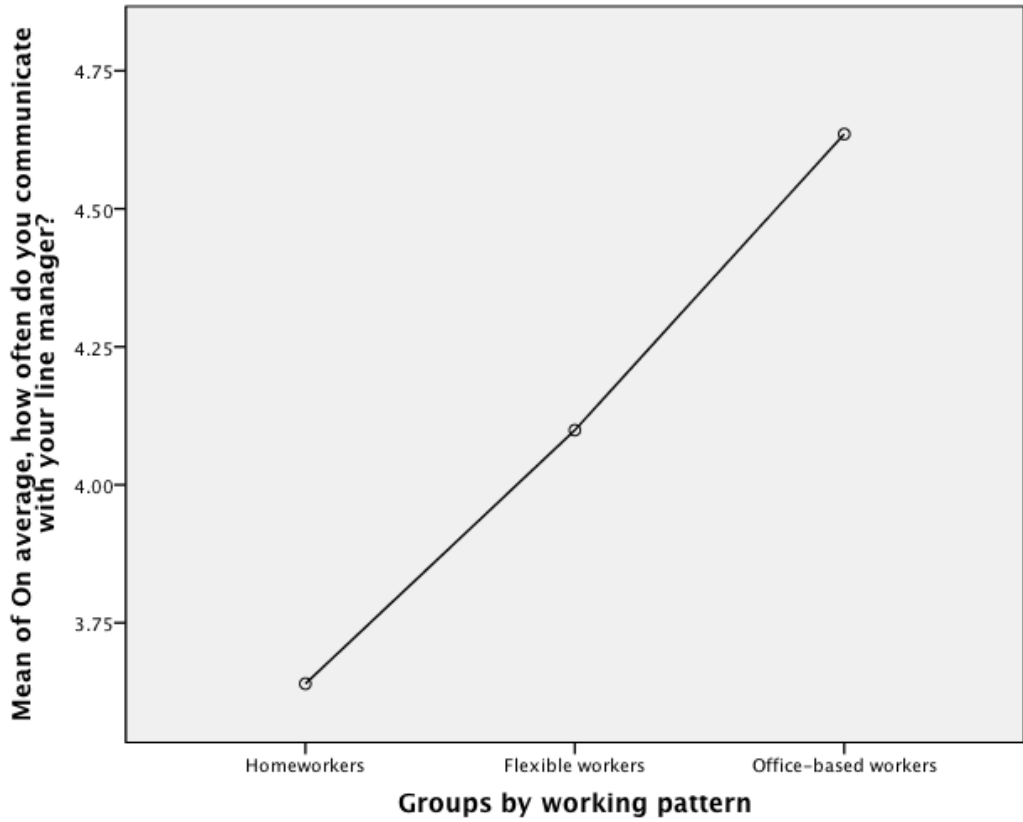
Note. Information exchange values: from 1 being the lowest level to 5 being the highest level. N=514

Figure 22: Knowledge sharing (mean values) by type of role



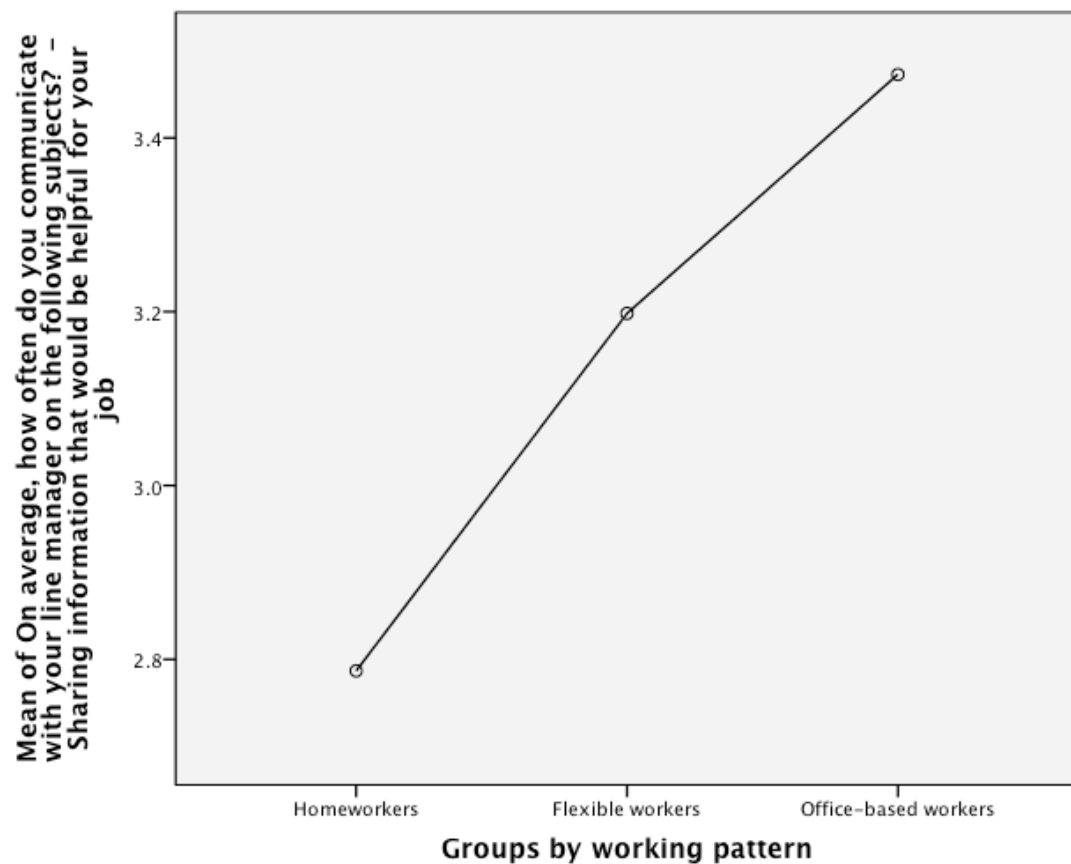
Note. Knowledge sharing values: from 1 being the lowest level to 5 being the highest level. N=514

Figure 23: Frequency of employee's communication with their line manager by working pattern



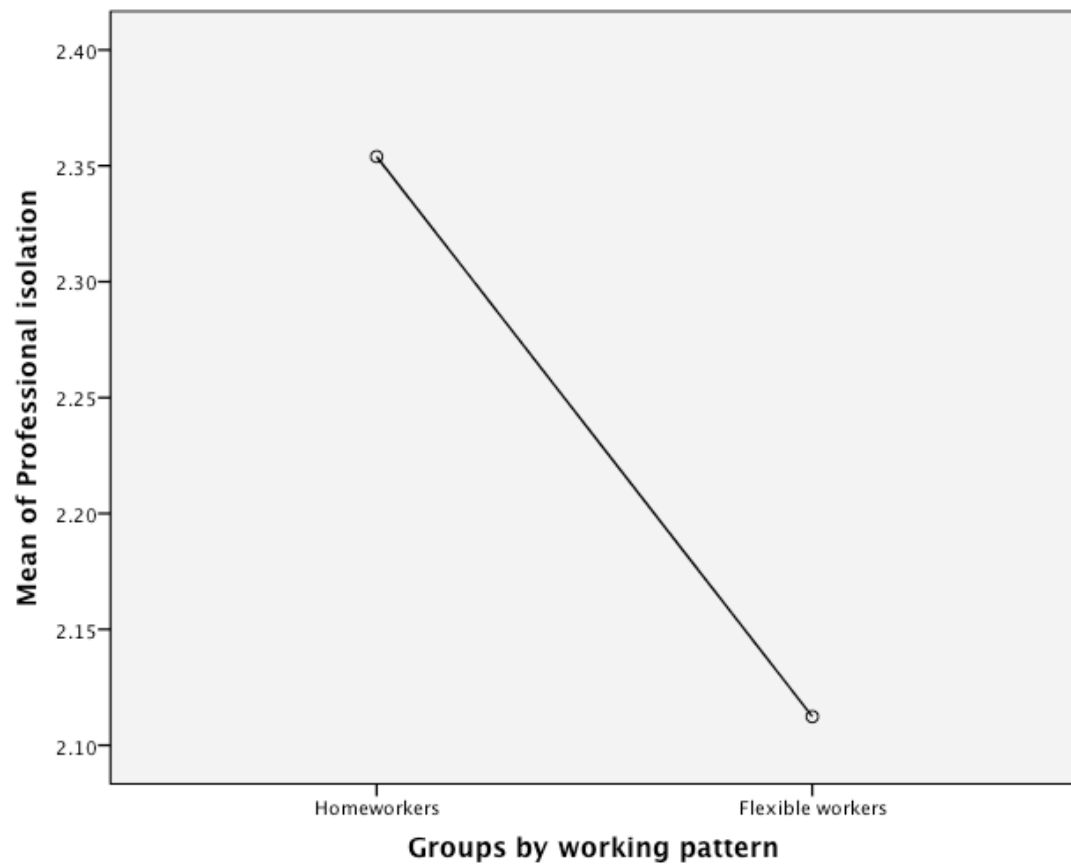
Note. Frequency of communication values: from 1='Less than once per month' to 5='Most days'. N=514.

Figure 24: Responses to "On average, how often do you communicate with your line manager on the following subjects? - Sharing information that would be helpful for your job"



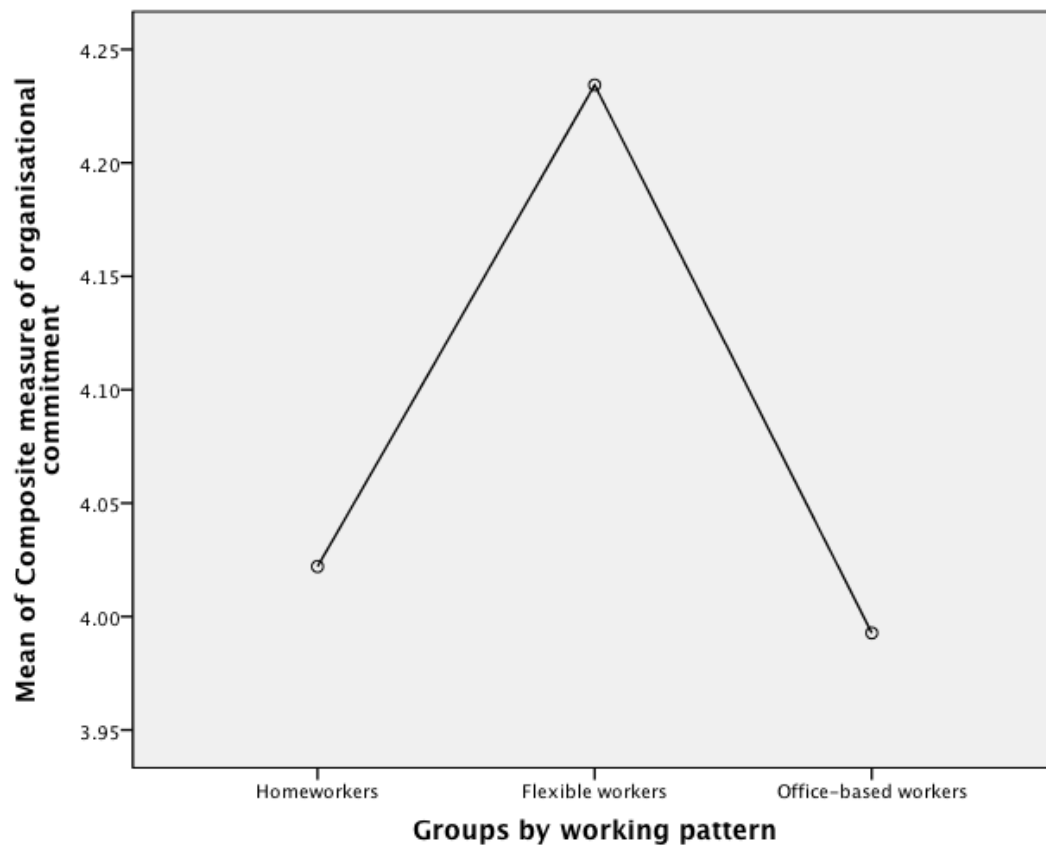
Note. Frequency of communication values: from 1='Less than once per month' to 5='Most days'. N=514.

Figure 25: Professional isolation by working pattern



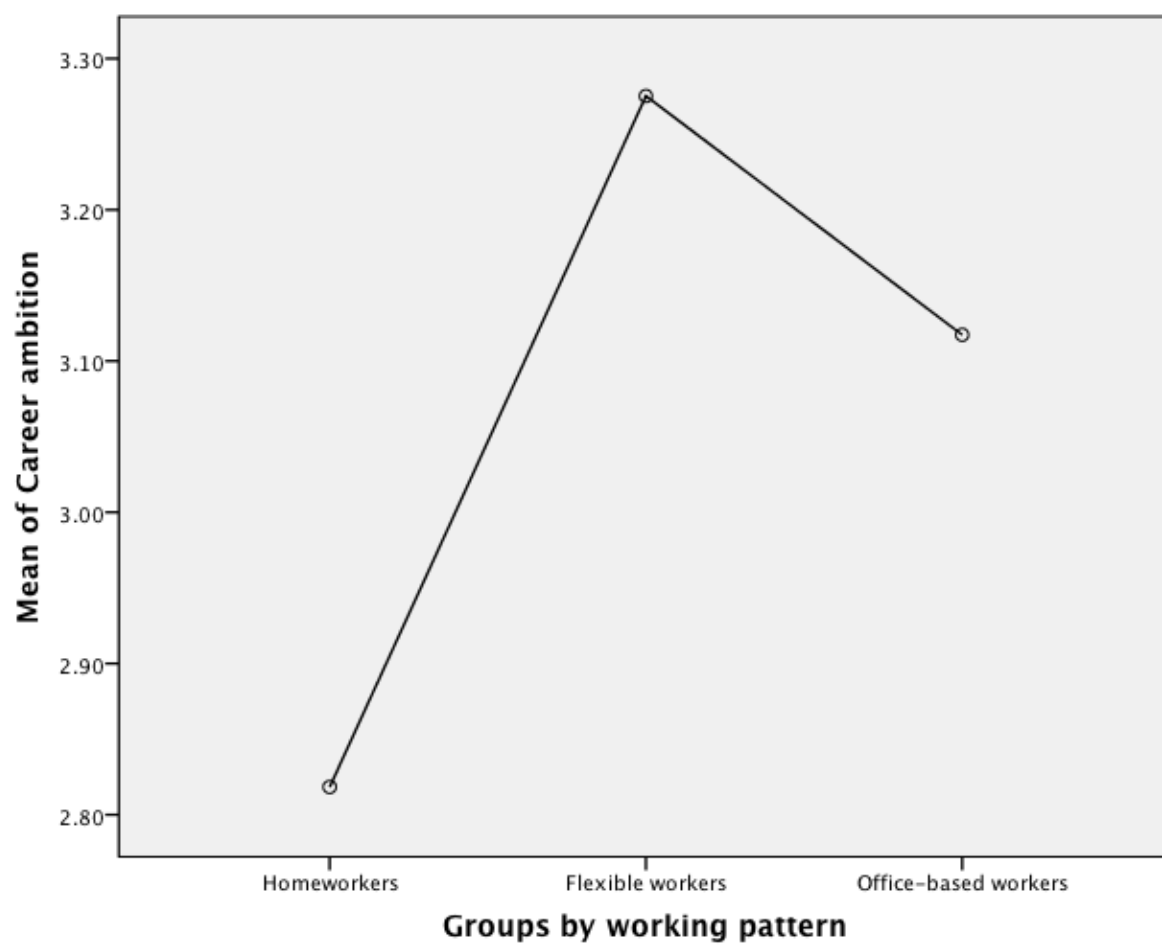
Note. Professional isolation values: from 1 being the lowest level to 5 being the highest level of professional isolation. N=211.

Figure 26: Organisational commitment by working pattern



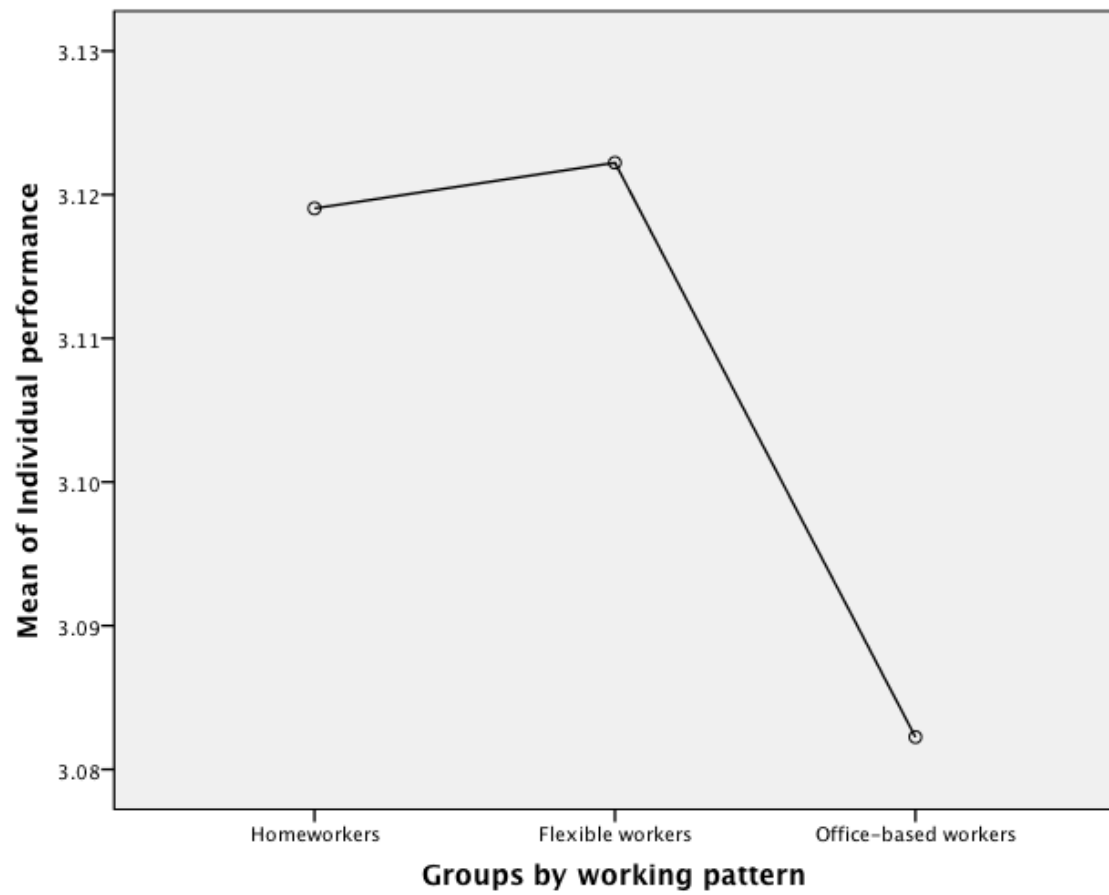
N=514 (136 Homeworkers, 101 Flexible workers, 277 Office-based workers)

Figure 27: Career ambition variable by working pattern



N=514 (136 Homeworkers, 101 Flexible workers, 277 Office-based workers)

Figure 28: Differences in individual performance by working pattern



N = 447