



**"AN EMPIRICAL
ANALYSIS OF
TELEWORKING AND
ITS IMPACT ON WORK
ENGAGEMENT"**

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Abstract

The present study investigates the impact of Teleworking on Work Engagement in Greece. Given that Teleworking is a new field of study and a new reality in the times we are living in, it was an opportunity to study the existing literature and present it, as well as to create new data on how Teleworking really affects employees and Organizations. The research concentrates on the relationship between new ways of working -spatial and time flexibility-, Work Engagement, Transformational leadership, Trust in Management and in co-workers, Knowledge, Time Demands, Work Overload and Work-life balance. According to the research's findings, Teleworking is an innovative means of work which through Transformational leadership enhances the possibilities of leading to increased Work Engagement. Respectively, Transformational Leaders improve peoples' sense of trust, which will also lead to increased levels of Work Engagement. Last but not least, contemporary ways of working may also have a negative impact on people's lives -work overload and work life balance- which is the other important reason for this research.

Keywords: Teleworking, Work Engagement, Transformational leadership, Trust in Management and in co-workers, Knowledge, Time Demands, Work Overload and Work-life balance

1. Introduction

The present research aims to investigate new ways of working, specifically working from home under flexible circumstances, and their effects on employee Work Engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2002). This is a recently observed field of study given the fact that companies until today, did not have the need to provide employees with equipment at home to complete their working tasks remotely (Hamblin 1995; Bailey & Kurland, 2002). However, this has changed over the last decade significantly, introducing work from home to be the new reality. In some cases, people now have the opportunity to choose between working from the office and working from home, for which they can establish their own hours and the location they will work from (Perez et al., 2002; Baane et al., 2010). In other cases, working from home is the only option.

On one hand, having the opportunity to work from home can have a positive impact on employees, given that they have the flexibility to work at anytime from anywhere (Baane et al., 2010). On the other hand, even though Teleworking is a way to give employees flexibility and more independence, it is also shown that it can also have a potentially negative impact on themselves like for example social distance which can lead to self-isolation (Huws 1984). Therefore, it was in the best interest of the study to also determine the disadvantages Teleworking potentially causes.

It is important to note that Teleworking has only been in investigators' interest during the last decades. Therefore, the sources found for it were limited and the degree of impact of it on people and companies is still under investigation.

1.1. Structure of Thesis

This thesis is divided into separate sections, starting from the above introduction where the aim, the theme and the scope of this research are described. Following, comes the literature review in which all the variables considered in this research are thoroughly analysed. The variables are Teleworking which is divided into three factors -accessibility, environment and autonomy-, Work Engagement, Transformational leadership, Trust which is divided into two factors -trust in

management and trust in co-workers-, Knowledge and Work-Life imbalance, which is divided into two factors -time demands and work overload-. After that, there is the section of Methodology. The results of the statistical analysis are next, including Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis – the proposed model. Last but not least are the conclusions of the research.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Work Engagement

According to Maslach and Leiter (1997), work engagement is the exact opposite state of burnout, which is identified by stress and mental fatigue. More specifically, work engagement determines employees' well-being, the feeling of achievement and productivity in the working environment. (Maslach et. al. 2001). In other words, it could also be explained as the dedication and the amount of energy employees are willing to and are able to devote to their jobs, even if it takes a lot of effort. It is the feeling of fulfilment and motivation one has while completing work tasks (Schaufeli et al., 2002). As multiple research has already suggested, work engagement is split into and defined by three main terms, which thoroughly interpret its meaning -vigor, dedication and absorption-. Starting with vigor, a state in which employees are observed to be bursting with energy, and willing to actively participate and put in a big effort even though work can be demanding and challenging. Dedication "is characterized by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge" and finally, absorption is the state during which employees are able to deeply concentrate and be involved in their work, from which one does not easily disengage (Maslach et. al. 2001, Schaufeli & Bakker 2004, Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker & Lloret 2006).

Even though burnout and work engagement are opposite factors (Maslach & Leiter, 1997), it seems that their relationship is a bit more complicated than this, meaning that they are associated with each other and share some common correlations. More specifically, work engagement is associated amongst others with working overtime and support from co-workers and beneficial job results (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Something important, worth mentioning, is the fact that even though it was also related to job demands, the outcome of employees' condition was a satisfactory psychological state (Schaufeli et al., 2008). According to Rothbard (2001) work engagement is characterized by attention and absorption.

The question is: when did the field of interest start changing, paying more attention to work engagement and positive employee attitude rather than the negative work-related aspects? Over the last years, there has been a change of focus regarding the

importance researchers give to employees' psychological state in the working environment for a better understanding of personnel's well-being and good health (Schaufeli & Bakker 2004). Initially, what was under research was how exhaustion was caused by working too many hours, physical exertion and more, as well as work disengagement which resulted from insufficient support, inadequate feedback, lack of participation in decision making and other (Demerouti et al., 2001). More specifically, the working environment and its effect on employees are now taken into serious consideration, aiming to improve the facilities and boost the final positive outcome and experience for them. Some of the most important effects an engaged employee would encounter are being full of energy and having a feeling of connection and active involvement with their job and being also capable of facing work challenges successfully (Schaufeli & Bakker 2004). What used to be important, as a matter of fact, were the negative effects work circumstances had on individuals, and especially what caused the result of being ineffective at work and emotionally worn out, which led to ineffectiveness and eventually to burnout (Maslach & Leiter 1997, Maslach et al, 2001). In particular, research has suggested that work engagement is associated with three opposing dimensions of burnout -exhaustion, cynicism and ineffectiveness-, which are energy, involvement and efficacy (Maslach & Leiter, 1997, Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002, Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter 2001). However, something that should also be taken into consideration is the fact that staff that are not exhausted does not undoubtedly mean they will be bursting with energy. Work engagement is distinguished for a considerable level of activation and joy while burnout is distinguished for non-considerable levels of activation and joy (Watson & Tellegen 1985). On the other hand, Gonzalez-Roma's et al (2006) empirical study showed that both energy and vigor as well as identification and cynicism are corresponding variables and "scalable on two underlying bipolar dimensions". This means that a great level of energy will also produce a great level of vigor, and similarly a great level of identification will also increase dedication. Inversely, a non-significant level of energy brings an increased exhaustion level as will a non-significant level of identification increase the cynicism level.

An important part of past research that should also be noted, are also the potential reasons why and how work engagement is amplified. According to Demerouti et al (2001) and Schaufeli & Bakker (2004), it comes as a consequence of "social support

from co-workers and superiors, performance feedback, coaching, job autonomy, task variety and training facilities". Studies have shown to be strongly dependent on these factors. "Organizational resources refers to the organizational aspects of a job that are functional in achieving work goals, could reduce job demands and their associated physiological and psychological costs, and, finally, could stimulate personal growth, learning, and development" (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001).

Apart from the reasons why work engagement is produced, it is also important to note the fact that the outcome of work engagement is positive for both the organization and the individuals themselves. Based on research, employees who are actively involved in their jobs and full of energy when going to work, are most likely to not only be satisfied with their work and the organization they work for and present high organizational commitment (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), but also as noted, they will introduce non-significant levels of absenteeism and be less likely to quit their job (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, Schaufeli, Martinez, et al., 2002; Schaufeli, Salanova, et al., 2002). Furthermore, their positive behaviour will also be impacted positively on the organization's performance as well (Demerouti et al., 2001, Salanova et al., 2003). Last but not least, engaged employees tend to handle their work environment in a more efficient way than those who are not engaged, and more specifically, they are capable of adjusting easily to evolving work circumstances. (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008)

Additionally, job resources, service climate and job performance are mediated by work engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Other than that, it has also been noticed that employees' positive attitudes are easily communicable and can spread between individuals and groups, as engagement does too (Bakker et al., 2003, Bakker et al., 2005). More specifically, people working in a team are expected to share feelings and experiences and also impart these attitudes between them and as a consequence indicate positive or even negative behaviors and attitudes (Gonzalez-Roma et al., 2000).

Something very interesting that was observed in the research of Salanova and Schaufeli (2008), is the mediating role of work engagement between job resources and proactive behaviour. Starting with job resources they are linked to important

levels of work engagement (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008). More analytically, feedback, support, autonomy and job variety are expected to be mediated by work engagement and will as a consequence lead to proactive work behaviour (Crant, 2000).

In addition, proactive behaviour refers to individuals who seek change, innovation and strive to actively impact their work environment by approaching their working behaviour in radical ways, and not just following the expected actions/guidelines (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008). Proactive people chase challenges and opt to successfully deal with them in such a way that they will bring results to both the individuals' performance and the organization's as a whole. Crant (2000) suggested that proactive behaviour is a result of both job resources and intrinsic motivation each person is characterized with which similarly are interdependent factors.

Last but not least, previous studies have demonstrated that Work engagement is positively related with job satisfaction, productivity, and profitability (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002), and negatively with employee turnover, all of which are organizational goals and promote business success.

2.2 Teleworking

Previous research was conducted in order to understand why people would choose to work remotely and which employees would prefer to work from home. In addition, up till today in many societies telecommuting would only play a partial role in employees' working life meaning that some hours would still be taken up by work at the office (Hamblin 1995; Bailey & Kurland, 2002). Overall, teleworking is a flexible way companies have chosen to provide the workforce with as a result of uncertain and quick change of circumstances (Sanchez et al., 2004). However, today, things have drastically changed at the workplace because of other external forces like the current crisis people are going through, the pandemic for example. Therefore, teleworking is not considered as an option, but as the only way to continue working.

As the world evolves and introduces new ways of working (NWW), it is worth digging deeply into these innovative methods, regarding their impact on employee

engagement and on their work performance (Peters et al., 2014). In combination with technological rapid evolution, teleworking becomes more like a luxury and something people and companies would prefer, given that their job can be completed faster and in a more flexible way (Moen 1996) since employees can choose the space they work in and the time they do it (Perez et al., 2002). Understanding these new methods of the work environment will give us the opportunity to adjust and to improve procedures which as a result will increase work engagement.

Teleworking and flexible work methods can be internal or external (Kalleberg, 2001). More specifically, the internal ones refer to time flexibility, to possibility to change schedules, to adjust it according to individual needs and also planned overtime or short time. Moreover, internal flexibility also combines functional flexibility which refers to, for example, multitasking. Multitasking means being given several tasks and being able to complete them all within a specific time frame using different tools (Sanchez et al., 2004). Apart from this type of flexibility, there is also the external one, which includes “numerical flexibility” which refers to the chance individuals have to alternate the number of working hours and “externalisation” giving the option to hire through subcontract and informal ways (Grenier et al., 1997). According to Sullivan (2003), teleworking is the opportunity to work from home because of the luxury to have access to information and communication technologies which allow employees and other stakeholders to work remotely.

However, there is still not enough research on whether teleworking is fruitful or “harmful”. For the purpose of NWW, the questionnaire of Gerards et al., (2018) was used which was divided into five facets: time and location, independent work, management of output, free accessibility and use of knowledge and ideas, flexibility in working relations and freely accessible open workplace.

There has already been research on the NWW, some of which divided them into 3 facets regarding flexibility, working at home and working together at a distance (De Leede & Kraijenbrink, 2014), also another version was the one of Peters et al., (2014) who suggested that new ways of working regards teleworking, worker autonomy and management of output. Last but not least, Baane et al., (2010) created their perspective regarding NWW, which was split into one less facet than the one that was

used for this research: time-location independent work, management of output, access to organizational knowledge and flexibility in working relations, without including freely accessible open workplace (Gerards et al., 2018).

Gerards et al. (2018), evoke the four facets of Baane et al., (2010) adding one extra facet to the list, freely accessible open workplace. Starting from the first facet, time and location, this gives the option to employees to work from whichever place they prefer and to complete their working tasks at whatever time is more convenient for them (Baane et al., 2010). The second facet, management of output, refers to the opportunity employees have to choose the way they work (Gerards et al., 2018). Access to organizational knowledge and flexibility in working relations is the third facet of NWW, which explains the permission and possibility employees have to freely and quickly reach managers and also any workers' benefits and tools on their own work equipment. Next worth mentioning is the fourth facet which refers to flexibility in working relations. Last but not least, the workplace and the physical conditions under which employees have to work, meaning how easily accessible the workplace is. This fifth facet refers to employees who still work with physical presence at the premises apart from remotely (Gerards et al., 2018).

The results of previous research, however, regarding productivity and job satisfaction levels of teleworkers might show that they increased but still there are other factors which are interfering and cannot provide clear positive outcomes. Therefore, the results of teleworking should be addressed in regards to the reasons why people work from home (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). In addition, they also depend on the resources companies provide them with (Sanchez et al., 2004). According to the same research (Sanchez et al., 2004), teleworking increases employees' autonomy in contrast to others, given that they are trusted to work remotely, without having the need to inspect them during their work tasks as they would in a normal work environment.

On the one hand, it seems that teleworking has positive effects on both individuals and organizations as a whole. More specifically, among the benefits of remote work is the better work life balance due to the less time work takes from family members, the increased flexibility which is a result of time and space adjustment, reduction in commuting which prevents employees from developing stress, and they also save

money and time (Mann & Holdsworth, 2003). On the other hand, working remotely might also have a negative impact on people, causing them to self-isolate, increase stress and unstable mental health. One of the most significant negative effects of teleworking is social distance, given that employees do not anymore work in an environment where social interaction with colleagues is necessary, but the current work environment is a personal space where they work alone with no physical interaction (Huws 1984). Although it is implied that telecommuting can lead to self-isolation, there has not been such proof that it does (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). Hence, and based on the preceding paragraphs, we propose the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: ‘Teleworking’ is a significant predictor for ‘Work Engagement’.

Hypothesis 2a: From the above said, it is expected that the more “Accessibility” increases, the more “Teleworking” is positively affected and increases as well.

Hypothesis 2b: In addition, it is expected that the more “Environment” flexibility increases, the more “Teleworking” is positively affected and increases.

Hypothesis 2c: Last but not least, it is expected that the more “Autonomy” provided to employees, the more “Teleworking” is positively affected and increases.

2.3 Transformational leadership

Even though research is limited regarding how leadership influences performance, it is important to note that it has been found that leaders play an important role in organizational performance as well as in individual performance. Based on some studies it has been found that transformational leadership in particular can exert influence on the above (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Transformational leaders are mostly observed in innovative environments, where change and risk is always taken into consideration. They motivate, they inspire, they create insight, and they are full of energy and also compassionate where others’ feelings and needs are concerned. They sincerely indicate employees’ correct and incorrect behaviour and performance, in order for the employees to be aware and if

necessary adapt in the most productive way and align with the organization's guidelines/culture (Bass & Avolio, 1993). In addition, these kinds of leaders tend to empower their followers and aim to encourage them to perform their best and get the most out of them regarding their abilities and skills (Yukl, 1989).

A transformational leader has the ability to change individuals' self-focus to group focus (Yorges et al., 1999). They are positive people who look at the future with anticipation and productivity and have a great impact on followers (Tims et al., 2011). Apart from that, they always support individuals and aim to boost their development through coaching, and in-person motivating conversations depending on each individual's specific needs (Avolio & Bass, 1995). Using their feedback and giving an optimistic point of view to employees, leaders manage to increase individuals' self-efficacy and faith in their own capabilities (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). However, the most important result of the research was that leaders driven by a transformational culture manage to alternate the way individuals face challenging situations in a more productive way and give them the urge to perform their best for the good of the organization. More specifically, work engagement is boosted by leaders' optimism (Tims M. et al, 2011). As a result, transformational leadership is expected to influence employees' work engagement and impact their attitude and performance positively (Tims et al., 2011, Xanthopoulou et al. 2007).

In addition, as proven by research, transformational leadership is connected with psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety and psychological availability, which also impacts positively on work engagement (Avolio et al., 1999). These leaders are caring and concerned about individuals' well-being and development (Dvir & Shamir, 2003). In a way, these leaders are able to alternate the way employees face work challenges in order for them to feel capable of dealing with them in a more productive and successful way (Zhu et al., 2009). They motivate them in a way that they feel engaged and thus, they aim to give their best performance (Bass, 1998). However, according to Tims et al. (2011), transformational leadership is prone to change depending on the daily external circumstances leaders deal with.

The degree of effect transformational leaders have on “followers” also depends on specific individuals’ characteristics (Zhu et al., 2009). More precisely, people who are known for their need for autonomy and innovation and also their willingness to take risks and improve themselves have more chances of being positively influenced by transformational leaders. They are not just receiving transformational leadership but they are actively and effectively changing in a good and productive way and as a result they are further engaged with their work, which is in a great way due to their leader’s behaviour (Zhu et al., 2009). As known, the more people invest in themselves, the better these people feel and crave to perform to their fullest.

As stated, by a measure Carless et al. (2000) developed, transformational leadership can be divided into 7 factors which all sum up to the result of this leadership style. Starting with the first one which is vision, it is highly important for leaders to set expectations about a specific vision they have about the future, and also talk it through to their followers (Bass, 1990). Second factor, staff development, is the ability leaders have to comprehend each individual’s needs and through in-person communication to provide them with support and chances to evolve. Another important characteristic of transformational leaders is the fact that they recognize accomplishment and provide positive and supportive feedback. Leaders of this kind tend to also empower their subordinates to take part in decision making. They build an environment fostered by trust, respect, open communication and cooperation (Riechmann, 1992). The fifth factor that transformational leaders are characterised by is innovativeness in the way they think and face challenges (Bass, 1985). In addition, leaders clearly set expectations regarding their values and vision to employees aiming to involve them actively (Bass, 1985). Lastly but most significantly, they are charismatic -trustworthy, highly competent and worthy of respect- (Avolio & Bass, 1990, Bass, 1992, Carless et al., 2000).

Charisma was initially characterized by the Greeks as the ability one has to foresee the future and provide prophecies (Conger & Kanungo, 1994). In terms of leadership, charisma is determined as the ability to engage with followers and to inspire a sense of commitment and the urge to improve one another and to learn from each other, by transforming both leaders and followers (Burn, 1978).

Bass (1985) divided transformational leadership into four categories: Charisma, Inspirational leadership, Intellectual Stimulation and Individualized Consideration.

To start, charismatic leadership is the most important aspect of transformational leaders (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Leadership charisma is their personality through which leaders are able to inspire a feeling of confidence and trust, and also their potential to easily and in an effective way communicate their vision and their goals (Humphreys, 2002). Other than that, charismatic leaders tend to devote their full attention to each individual separately by providing feedback and personal coaching, approaching each individual's needs in such a personalised way, which inspires and motivates employees to constantly improve (Waldman et al., 1990). As a result, they manage to alter the way challenges are addressed (Humphreys, 2002). Furthermore, they increase the interests of their subordinates, which as a consequence will also gain higher levels of motivation and performance (Seltzer et al., 1990). This study has shown that transformational leadership has a big impact on the effectiveness and the satisfaction of followers through initiation and consideration.

Inspirational leadership is driven by emotional qualities, bonding with the followers in a non-intellectual way, but rather in a more human way and also communicating a vision among followers and inspiring them, which as a result generates trust in the leader and increases individual's motivation and performance. As far as individualized consideration is concerned, leaders show interest and devotion to each person individually, by providing them with one-to-one feedback, mentoring or coaching driven by empathy (Bass, 1985). This more personalized interaction leads as expected to followers heightened feelings of autonomy, effectiveness and also trust. As a result, this kind of culture regarding caring of individuals, "promotes individual interest of management and employees and satisfaction" (Akdere & Egan, 2020)

Last but not least, intellectual stimulation is the process under which transformational leaders guide followers to face challenges through a different perspective, through their own personal one, and also empower them to accept their own way of thinking and encourage them to develop themselves. They also host an environment where taking risks is accepted. In this way, they manage to overcome outdated values,

beliefs and expectations, and adapt to a more personalized and effective way of thinking and perform better results (Bass, 1985).

According to Avolio and Bass (1987), transformational leaders differ from other leadership styles, in such a way that they set expectations for their followers, reinforce individuals' autonomy and empower them to evolve in the organization. In addition, they strengthen their followers so that they are able to face challenges and resolve them in their own creative and effective ways. Other than that, they create a sense of team culture, reinforcing a culture of team goals and collective interests (Akdere & Egan, 2020). Furthermore, Transformational Leaders create an environment where different perspectives and opinions are accepted and reinforced, involving not only plain work but also bonding between them (leaders and followers), emotions and values and also learning from each other is one important facet of this relationship (Bass, 1990).

2.4 Trust in Management

Trust is one of the foundational features of management, based on which employee relationships are fostered (Lipman V., 2013). The goal of every company is to increase their organizational performance. One of the ways to achieve this is through employee commitment and satisfaction which will have a positive impact on the overall company's performance (Boxall & Macky, 2014). High commitment according to Boxall & Macky (2009) can be created through a culture of trust, feedback oriented work environment and employee security. Trust and, more specifically, interpersonal trust is first of all measured by faith and belief in others' intentions and second by the confidence in other individuals' abilities and capabilities to accomplish their goals in a successful way (Deutsch, 1960; Cook & Wall, 1980; Boxall & Macky, 2014). As Cook & Wall (1980) state, trust is the quality which can result in the organization's long lasting stability and employees' well-being. In this research, interpersonal trust has been divided into peers trust and management trust.

Another approach to what trust means, is Rosen & Jerdee's (1977), who suggest that it can be defined by the eagerness of people in high authority positions to motivate

people with less power to be highly and actively included in any decisions taken related to the work environment. Trust can also be defined as the “employees’ willingness to be vulnerable to their leaders” (Mayer et al., 1995)

Regarding previous research, trust in leadership is positively correlated with team performance (Burke et al., 2007). Trust is divided into two types of trust, one being the affect-based trust and the other being the cognition-based trust (McAllister, 1995). The first one refers to the psychological bonds colleagues build between themselves through caring and showing empathy and understanding each other, and the second one refers to a more competence-based relationship individuals foster, through which individuals trust one another’s work performance and capabilities in completing work related tasks, which as a consequence will then lead to emotional attachments as well between them. Moreover, cognitive-based trust is empowered by the dependability and the responsibility people inspire to others, which in turn lead to increased trust levels (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). In regards to affect-based trust, it seems that people who work in a trustworthy environment where one cares about another's well-being, not only the individual’s but also the team’s performance improve (Edmondson, 1999).

Mayer et al., (1995) have suggested that trustworthiness is defined by three factors: integrity, ability and benevolence. Employee relationships are also defined by the extent to which one can trust the others. Starting from the first factor -ability- it refers to the knowledge and competence someone has to have in order for them to perform specific work related duties, in such a way that they inspire enough security to others to be able to trust them. Second characteristic of trustworthiness is benevolence, which in turn refers to the good intentions of each party respectively, trustee and trustor -trustee being the leader and trustor the followers- towards the other party, demonstrating concern and care for one another (Caldwell & Hayes, 2007). Last but not least, integrity not only indicates the willingness of the trustee to cohere with the trustors’ rules, but also the trustor’s perception that the guidelines set by the leaders are ethically acceptable (Mayer et al., 1995).

Trust in management is stated to impact employees’ performance and work as a mediator between themselves and their performance. Furthermore, team performance

is mediated directly by cognition-based trust (Schaubroeck et al., 2011). More specifically, transformational leadership inspires confidence in a specific plan, through their clear vision, knowledge and ability to address issues in a different and positive way (Bass, 1990), therefore employees' trust in management increases. Trust is the level to which one is prepared to show confidence in other people's words and actions (Mayer et al., 1995). Other than that, transformational leadership manages to host a friendly environment, understanding and caring for their followers, which as a result impacts positively on their mind-set and promotes their work engagement and trust -affect-based trust- (Schaubroeck et al., 2011).

Based on Dirks and Ferrin's (2002) research, trust is divided into two perspectives: the character-based one and the relationship-based one. Character-based perspective points out the fact that leaders' character plays a significant role in followers and their ability to perform in the best possible way (Mayer et al., 1995). In other words, it is the ability leaders' have to change individuals' perspective and motivation, given that the leader is characterised by integrity, fairness and loyalty (Liu et al., 2010). On the other hand, a relationship-based perspective is all about psychological bonds between leaders and followers and exchange relationships between them (Schriesheim et al., 1999). It is driven by care and empathy towards each other (Dirks & Ferrin 2002) and as a result fosters a culture of mutual commitment (Brower et al., 2000). Followers, consequently, feel more comfortable and safe (Liu et al., 2010).

As Galea et al. (2014) suggested, a new way of working is profitable for both organisations and employees, given that it increases trust between the two, by providing bigger amounts of autonomy and this in turn can lead to greater job and organisational performance.

Given the above, the other Hypotheses that were noted are the following:

Hypothesis 3a: 'Transformational leadership' is expected to have a significant positive impact on 'Trust in Management' and therefore on Work Engagement.

Hypothesis 3b: 'Transformational leadership' is expected to have a significant positive impact on 'Work Engagement'.

Hypothesis 4: 'Trust in Management' is a significant predictor for 'Work Engagement'.

2.5 Trust in co-workers

Trust can be fostered in different ways and between different levels. According to literature trust can be created among team members, teammates and the leader, the staff and the corporation, and among organizations in total, depending on different variables (Burke et al., 2007). Co-workers are defined as the people who work in the same workplace, they hold somewhat similar authority levels and they interrelate between themselves while being at work (Tan H.H. & Lim K.H, 2009). Trust in co-workers differs from trust in managers in such a way that the first one is characterized by horizontal dynamics rather than vertical which are seen in the relationship between supervisors and followers or any other relationship between higher authorities and subordinates (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). This kind of trust depicts individuals' readiness to show vulnerability towards co-workers' behaviours and efforts (Tan H.H. & Lim K.H, 2009).

Trust both in management and co-workers is related to improved social interaction between colleagues as well as increasing the chances individuals take responsibility and risks for the best of the organization (Eddy, 1981). On the other hand, in workplaces where people cannot trust one another, there is a greater possibility of job dissatisfaction, lack of motivation and confidence in the company (Carnevale & Wechsler, 1992; Gould-Williams, 2003). According to Luhmann (1979), interpersonal trust refers to the social interrelationships employees have amongst themselves, which in turn will increase their motivation and commitment and as a further result, organizational performance (Gould-Williams, 2003).

Trust between employees will potentially increase cooperation and collaboration amongst them (Mayer et al., 1995) as well as their work engagement and their will to work more intensely (Burke et al., 2007). According to McCauley and Kuhnert (1992), trust in the work environment has several levels, the vertical and the lateral dimension. Vertical trust refers to the trust leaders inspire in their followers, whereas lateral trust concerns the belief co-workers have between themselves.

As mentioned beforehand, cognitive based trust can be built between co-workers and between individuals working in different levels of authority (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). Likewise, affective trust can also be noticed in relationships between different

positioned employees as well as between co-workers, too (McAllister, 1995). Furthermore, McAllister (1995) suggested that affect-based trust is formed and empowered by continual peer interaction, citizenship behaviour between peers, and cognition-based trust between co-workers.

Tan & Lim's (2009) study was the first one to use Mayer's model, regarding the three factors of trustworthiness -ability, integrity and benevolence-, applied on co-workers. Employee trust in other co-workers depends highly on how competent the latter are to fulfil their tasks which will inspire a sense of confidence and would have a positive impact on both sides' performance (Tan & Lim, 2009). Following Mayer's research (1995), the second factor that would increase trust in people's interaction is benevolence. The same applies in this specific interrelation between co-workers, given that the better intentions one has towards the other in the work environment, the greater the trust stimulated by the trustor will be. Last but not least, integrity would be the third factor that is expected to elevate levels of trust amongst individuals. This can be explained by the fact that people who provide others with values and principles which are highly accepted and driven by honesty and fairness, will be more easily trusted (Tan & Lim, 2009). However, only benevolence and integrity have been shown to have an important correlation with trust levels between co-workers. Thus, I formulate the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5: 'Trust in coworkers' is considered to affect 'Work Engagement' in an important positive way.

2.6 Knowledge

Knowledge refers to the opportunity employees are given by the company they work for, and especially by managers and supervisors, to receive ongoing training on their work tasks in order for them to be able to actively and efficiently take part in the company's goals and objectives (Boxall & Macky, 2014). Being highly involved in the organization would have a positive impact on employees' performance, given that they are provided with all the necessary knowledge to perform in the best way possible, and as a result on the organization's performance as well (Mackie et al.,

2001). As Aguinis & Kraiger (2009) and Goldstein & Ford (2002) suggested that training is the effort organizations make in order for them to provide employees with systematic ongoing knowledge, perspective and skills aiming to enhance not only individual but also collective and organizational performance. Thus, training offers several benefits both on an individual and a collective level.

These benefits can be positively associated with job performance, individual's self-efficacy, and organizations as a whole and society as well (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). Starting with the first one, job performance benefits, training has the purpose of providing new competencies to the workforce which led to advanced work performance (Kraiger, 2002). In addition, it is worth mentioning that studies have found that ongoing job training produces increased levels of innovation and skills which are gained through non-formal learning (Barber, 2004). Furthermore, the combination of declarative "what" and procedural "how" knowledge can have a greater positive impact on overall performance given that trainees are taught not only what tasks to perform but also the way to perform them giving them the opportunity to be more efficient (Kraiger et al., 1993). Further studies have found that receiving leadership training which aims to "create" transformational leaders, improved trainees' motivation, morality and empowerment exactly because of transformational leaders' practices (Dvir et al., 2002). Apart from job performance benefits which training generates, it is important to note that training also impacts positively on organizations in total. More specifically, these benefits are associated with two facets, first effectiveness and second profitability (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Aragon-Sanchez et al., 2003). Some of the most important benefits are the decreased level of turnover (Benson et al., 2004). Other than that, profitability has been seen to be improved in organizations that offer job training (Aragon-Sanchez et al., 2003). Last but not least, Collins & Holton (2004) meta-analysis showed that overall organizational costs will be reduced if training is provided. The third important section where training can benefit is society, which in brief refers to the privilege of countries being recognized as human capital which as a result will lead to improved wealth (Bartlett & Rodgers, 2004).

Training gives the chance to employees to develop and to be self-sufficient, being able to depend on their own capabilities and knowledge (Boxall & Macky, 2014). An

extensive amount of training hours will provide employees with more knowledge, confidence and security around the tasks they are expected to perform. As Bandura & Schunk (1981) proposed, training which includes role-playing, success experiences, representative learning and coaching, will boost self-efficacy. Apart from self-efficacy, knowledge gained through training will also be generously shared between employees especially if training was team-based. Through collective training people foster interpersonal relations between them and they are willing to share this information amongst themselves too, which reflects a productive team work as well (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005).

Another interesting fact that should be noted is the individuals' willingness to participate in training and development (Tharenou, 2001). This willingness and motivation is driven by several incentives, starting with the expectation that training will provide them with the necessary knowledge, skills and important benefits to perform their job tasks accordingly (Ford & Noe, 1992). Apart from this, another strong motive to participate in training is the fact that some individuals have an intense will power to learn (Dubin, 1990). Other than that, the work environment plays a significant role in people's willingness to be part of training (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994; Kozlowski & Hults, 1987). More specifically, an important role in employees' willingness to participate in training is supervisor and employer support which employees receive through an employee driven culture and policies that promote and facilitate contribution to training (Tharenou, 2001). Other studies have suggested that high levels of self-efficacy also positively influence trainees' motive to participate (Bandura & Schunk, 1981).

One of the most popular practices of training is mentoring, which is a development and training tool, which aims at the mentees' progression, career development and personal improvement (Hunt & Michael, 1983; Jennings, 1971). Taking the preceding discussion into consideration, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 6: 'Knowledge' is expected to be a significant predictor for 'Work Engagement'.

2.7 Time demands

Time demands in this context are associated with expectations that the organizations have towards their employees to work overtime, extra hours than the ones the contract requires, in return for additional compensation. Not always, but sometimes these extra time demands are not optional (Golden & Wiens-Tuers, 2008). On the other hand, several employees choose to stay longer at work, given that they will receive rewards and in total a higher wage (Hamermesh & Slemrod, 2005).

However, working overtime can impact both positively and negatively on individuals. One of the main negative issues that work time demands can generate is work family imbalance (Major et al., 2002). Parents do not have relevant time to deal with house challenges or to provide their children with sufficient attention and care (Golden & Wiens-Tuers, 2008). Several studies have also suggested that log work hours might be negatively associated with children's attitudes (Parcel & Menaghan, 1990; Parcel & Menaghan, 1993). In addition, couples do not have time for each other, so social distancing between them grows (Rogers 1996). Another very important side effect of work overtime is worker exhaustion (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Too many working hours can cause excessive stress and work-family conflict (Fenwick & Tausig, 2001). The negative effect of working overtime has also been pointed out by Hughes & Parkes (2007) regarding specifically the harmful impact on employees' well-being and health.

Other studies have shown that control over working time can predict stress or prevent individuals from stressful psychological conditions (Voydanoff, 1988). Studies suggest that over the last years, flexibility in time and space has changed in the work environment, causing several alterations in people's lives. Given that people are expected to work longer hours, this can have a negative impact on both the social and biological state (Härmä, 2006). Apart from the decreased amount of hours people are left with to enjoy their family members, they are also left with less energy levels to dedicate to them and leisure activities (Albertsen et al., 2008). Grzywacz & Marks (2000) and Grönlund (2007) studies showed that there is a negative correlation between extended work hours and work life balance. In addition, other similar studies have noted the same negative effects between overtime and work life balance. More

specifically, Jansen et al. (2004) and Batt & Valcour (2003), showed likewise that the relation between these factors is negative.

Work role characteristics, which include two factors -the amount of working hours organized by employees and the job demands- can be correlated with work family conflict as well. First of all, working above the expected shift hours is negatively related to tension and difficulties in the relationship between parents (Kelly & Voydanoff, 1985). Secondly, job demands can also lead to work-family conflict, given that individuals do not have adequate time to spend with their loved ones and also they lack the emotional strength to devote themselves to others (Piotrkowski, 1979).

Overall, several studies have shown that there is a positive relationship between work overtime and work family conflict (Frone et al., 1997; Thompson et al., 1999). In addition, Major et al. (2002) came to the conclusion that time pressure also demonstrates a positive relationship with work family stress and conflict. Instead, previous studies point out the fact that as long as overtime is fairly compensated, then it will have a positive impact on employees' satisfaction (Holy & Mohnen, 2012).

2.8 Work Overload

Nowadays people are expected to work more than their initial contract requires them to and this can be because of several factors, mainly because of flexible working which has been playing an important role in the working environment in the last years. Flexibility, however, can produce increased managerial demands regarding working hours (Boxall & Macky, 2014). More specifically, as Beehr et al. (1976) initially suggested, work overload is determined by the immense amount of tasks employees are expected to fulfil in a limited time frame they are provided with. As a result, this increased work overload can lead to greater job dissatisfaction, work pressure and higher amounts of stress. Apart from this, other negative effects that work overload can cause are work-life imbalance (Boxall & Macky, 2014).

2.9 Work-life Balance

Regarding the specific research on teleworking and its impact on employees' general work life experience, it is worth mentioning that teleworking, which is considered as a time and location flexible way of working, can have both a positive and negative impact on employees' work-life balance (Fleetwood, 2007). More flexible working conditions mean not only increased work freedom but also more intense work environment conditions (Lewis & Smithson, 2006). Even though the times we are living in require individuals to work from home, and even though some do actually prefer working remotely, others face great difficulties, especially with regards to their personal life balance. However, the borders between positive and negative effects that work flexibility can exert on work-life balance are not that clear and they can depend on several factors (Peters et al., 2009).

On the one hand, starting with the negative effects, flexibility in the work environment can lead people to not being able to distinguish the line between working and non-working hours (Major et al., 2002). More precisely, people working from home can easily miscalculate the hours they have been working and as a result they work more than they are expected to (Kossek et al., 2005). It is often noticed that individuals can be expected to work late shifts, difficult hours in the day (Russell et al., 2009). Regarding previous studies (Allard et al., 2007), this immense work flexibility has been noticed to lead to increased work-family conflict in comparison to people who work standard hours and in a more specific and stable work environment (Major et al., 2002). Apart from that, employees who work more hours than they would normally do, are left with fewer available hours to spend with their families and on leisure time (Peters et al., 2009; Mann & Holdsworth, 2003).

Work-life balance can depend on other factors as well. More specifically, the levels of work-life balance partially depend on the support employees feel they are receiving from the organization with regard to their work-life challenges (Thompson et al., 1999). In addition, work-family conflict will be less noticeable in employees whose perception about the organization they work for is a supportive environment and as a result they will be more strongly committed to the workplace as well (Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Eisenberger et al., 1990). Individuals who were provided with

relevant support, regarding the challenges they face to balance work and family life, would be less prone to work-family conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

Most importantly, it has been said previously that the more flexibility one has in their work environment, the more difficult it is for them to distinguish between work and private life and the opposite (Allard et al., 2007). In addition, multiple studies have shown that non-standard working shifts impact negatively on personal life (Tausig & Fenwich, 2001). One of the negative effects it can have is increased work-family conflict and decreased couple satisfaction (Staines & Plerk, 1983).

On the other hand, other studies have shown that a supportive work environment which fosters work-family culture will be negatively associated with work family conflict (Beauvais & Kowalski, 1993) and positively related to organizational commitment (Francesco & Thompson, 1996). Apart from perceived organizational support, an important factor that also influences work-life balance is the opportunity employees are given to arrange their own working time schedule. Having the power to adjust specific work hours depending on each individual's life schedule, improves peoples' balance between life and work (Tausig & Fenwich, 2001).

In addition, it has been noticed that there is a positive relationship between flexitime-spatial flexibility and personal life and it can actually simplify individuals' problems balancing their work and life (Fleetwood, 2007; Peters et al., 2009). More specifically, it has been noticed that having some control over the work time schedule can minimize the previously stated negative effects and can increase the family life quality (Staines & Plert, 1983).

Organizations play an important role in employees' work-life balance. A work environment where staff are facilitated to separate their individual and professional life is a successful environment (Galea et al., 2014). In particular, organizations which are fostered by a family-friendly culture give the opportunity to individuals to control their life in a better and more efficient way, which enhances their balance between work and personal life (Russell et al., 2009). A culture like this mainly depends on supervisors' and managers' support (Galea et al., 2014). Family-friendly culture would be a company which provides employees with arrangements which allow employees to combine work and family responsibilities in such a way that they

are efficient in both facets of life (Russell et al., 2009). Empowering such practices has a positive effect both on employees and employers. More specifically, by helping employees adjust in a better way, and allowing them to handle their lives in a more balanced way, will also benefit the organization by decreasing the amount of employee turnover, absences and by increasing productivity (Drew et al., 2003). In such a way, providing flexible space and work hours may be beneficial for both. Apart from employers' benefit, flexibility in working hours would give employees greater control over their schedule and this would reduce work pressure (Russell et al., 2009). Hence, and based on the preceding paragraphs, the following hypotheses are proposed.

Hypothesis 7a: 'Time Demands' are expected to affect 'Work Life Balance' negatively.

Hypothesis 7b: 'Work overload' is expected to affect 'Work Life Balance' negatively.

Hypothesis 8: 'Work Life Balance' is a significant predictor for 'Work Engagement'.

3. Methodology

3.1. Type of research

There are two main types of research in the literature: qualitative and quantitative research. This categorization is related both to the type of data and to the way in which data is collected and the techniques used for data analysis and presentation (Bryman, 2011, Given, 2008).

Quantitative research is the type of research that a researcher chooses to collect quantitative data. This data is then organized and processed in ways that make use of mathematical and statistical tools. The methods employed include grouping and classification of data, processing and calculation of indicators, investigating cause-effect relationships and correlations that are assumed to exist between variables. The results of a quantitative research can take the form of generalized conclusions

(Bryman, 2011). The most commonly used method of collecting quantitative data is the questionnaire or measurements.

Qualitative research, on the other hand, involves processes that aim to investigate the 'how' and 'why' of the observed phenomena. The researcher collects qualitative data through his contact with what he studies and observes (Creswell, 2002). What qualitative research focuses on is the depth of the studied subjects - phenomena - situations, in contrast to the quantitative one that gives weight to the scope of research. The methods used are: interviews, focus groups, ethnographic research, observation and experimental research.

For the needs of the research that was designed and presented, the method used is quantitative, since it is considered to serve the purposes of the research. The means to collect primary quantitative data is a structured questionnaire, described in the next section. The method used is a survey, investigating several aspects of teleworking variables of the sample, as well as concepts related to work and the participants' work engagement. The main objective is to investigate relationships among different constructs of the sample related to teleworking and their work engagement.

The present research is an empirical quantitative research the results of which were conducted via questionnaires. It seeks to investigate the relationships among several characteristics of the sample from an observer point of view. In assessing the proposed model, the software program used was smartPLS, which is a software with graphical user interface for variance-based structural equation modeling (SEM) using the partial least squares (PLS) method. SEM has the advantages of performing a simultaneous test of the causal relationships among multiple variables in a model, while controlling of measurement error and providing information on the degree-of-fit of the tested model (Williams et al., 2009, Koutsiniotis & Mihail, 2019). Last but not least, the answers to the questionnaire were given according to each individual's perspective and experience.

3.2. Participants

The sample of the survey consists of 224 participants, 109 of whom are females (48.7%) and 115 are males (51.3%). Inclusion criteria for participation was age (18 and above), as well as employment (the participants needed to be employed full time, part time or with a fixed-term contract), regardless of what the job was. The participants completed the questionnaire anonymously.

3.3. The Proposed Model

The aim of this research is to demonstrate the relation between Teleworking and other variables and the role they play in Work Engagement and how they lead to the latter.

In this research around Teleworking and Work Engagement, not only were several variables taken into account, but also their correlation between them and the results of each variable's effect. In particular, the first and most important variable is Teleworking, being the main variable of this research, which identifies as the new ways of working in the new work reality away from work space. Work Engagement is the variable which all the other variables lead to. Therefore, great importance must be given to the relationship between those and the latter.

An important factor which was taken into consideration as a mediator in this relationship, was leadership and in particular, Transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Transformational leadership means being able to bond psychologically with followers, building a strong and productive relationship between leader and followers (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1998). Given that Leaders provide individual coaching and development, followers get a sense of purpose and motivation to become better and to fulfil leaders' expectations (Waldman et al., 1990). Through leadership, employees are given feedback, knowledge, motivation and more, which as a result lead to Trust in management which increases Engagement (Tims et al., 2011, Xanthopoulou et al. 2007). Trust in management is one of the further variables included which can cause an immense impact on employees' well-being and Work Engagement (Cook & Wall, 1980; Boxall & Macky, 2014). In

addition to trust in management, attention is also going to be paid to trust in co-workers as a possible mediator between Teleworking (Gerards R. et al., 2018) and Work Engagement (Burke et al., 2007).

In correlation with the previous statement, employees are given the opportunity to learn through good leadership and to develop their knowledge, which is another variable used for this study. This happens through training, coaching and continuous feedback provided to employees (Boxall & Macky, 2014). Training is an ongoing process which is beneficial for both the Organization and the employees (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). It is a process through which the employee is given a good amount of description and knowledge of the job and the Organization's policies, and in that way individuals will be able to perform the best possible, which will benefit both.

One of the most critical and concerning variables to which great importance was given is time demands, which in the new ways of working can increase significantly (Golden, L., & Wiens-Tuers, B., 2008). To be more precise, working from home means that your office is now your personal space which used to be a space for families to gather after work and disconnect from work (Sullivan, 2003). Time demands could lead to work overload and work life imbalance. More specifically, remote work schedules can be more easily moderated. Employers can expect that employees will always be available whenever they need them, completing work tasks via phone or emails that they receive non-stop all day (Major et al., 2002). As a result, work now interferes with personal life, borders and limits between the two are now under negotiation which can lead to immense confusion, exhaustion and work overload (Danna & Griffin, 1999; Boxall & Macky, 2014). The fact that people now work from their home space, can cause pronounced inconvenience and can interfere with personal relationships between the families, in particular between the couple and separately, the children too, if there are any (Beauvais & Kowalski, 1993). This can cause family arguments and work family conflict in general (Kelly & Voydanoff, 1985; Thompson et al., 1999).

3.4. Measures – research instrument

The research instrument is a questionnaire consisting of three main parts. One part is collecting information regarding the characteristics of the sample (gender, age, education and employment type). The way the questionnaire was distributed was only electronically via e-mail and different social media (LinkedIn, Facebook). The e-questionnaire was created via Google Forms and the answers stayed anonymous.

The first part of the main questionnaire includes 26 items/questions from which some are answered in a 5 – point Likert scale (never, rarely, sometimes, very often, always) and others in a 7 - point Likert scale (never, almost never, rarely, sometimes, often, very often, always) and are related to work aspects such as Trust in Management, Work Engagement, the ways they can access their managers and colleagues and the level of Autonomy participants have at their work, which relates to the quality of Teleworking.

The last part of the questionnaire includes questions related to the training they receive at their work, the level of Work-Life balance they can achieve in their job, the level of perceived Transformational leadership, their Trust in coworkers and the work related demands they face, such as Time Demands and Work Overload. This part of the questionnaire includes 36 items/questions, some of which are answered in a 5 – point Likert scale (strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, strongly agree) and others in a 7 - point Likert scale (strongly disagree, disagree, somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree, somewhat agree, agree, strongly agree).

3.3.1 “Teleworking”

Teleworking was measured by using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 (1=never, 2=rarely, 3=sometimes, 4=very often, 5=always) (Gerards R. et al., 2018). Sample questions are “I am able to determine where I work” and “I am able to reach managers quickly”.

3.3.2 “Work Engagement”

This variable was considered one of the most important and it was assessed by using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7 (1=never, 2=almost never, 3=rarely, 4=sometimes, 5=often, 6=very often, 7=always). Some sample questions included are

“At my work I feel bursting with energy” and “I get carried away when I’m working”
Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2003).

3.3.3 “Transformational leadership”

To measure the above we used a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 (1=never, 2=rarely, 3=sometimes, 4=often, 5=always). And two sample questions of the latter are “My supervisor fosters trust, involvement and co-operation among team members” and “My supervisor communicates a clear and positive vision of the future” (Carless et al., 2000).

3.3.4 Trust in Management”

Trust in Management was measured by using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree). Two sample questions from the questionnaire are “Management where I work is sincere in its attempts to meet the workers’ point of view” and “Management can be trusted to make sensible decisions for the organization’s future” (Boxall & Macky, 2014).

3.3.5 “Trust in co-workers”

For measuring Trust in co-workers, we used a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree). Sample questions are “I can trust the people I work with to lend me a hand if I need it” and “I can rely on other workers not to make my job more difficult by careless work” (Boxall & Macky, 2014).

3.3.6 “Knowledge”

Knowledge was measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7 (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=neither agree not disagree, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree). Some of the questions used are “I am given a real opportunity to improve my skills at this company through education and training programs” and “I receive ongoing training, which enables me to do my job better” (Boxall & Macky, 2014).

3.3.7 *"Time Demands"*

To measure Time Demands, we used a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree). Sample questions are "Employees are often expected to work overtime or work at weekends" and "To get ahead in my organization, employees are expected to work more than their contracted hours each week" (Boxall & Macky, 2014).

3.3.8 *"Work Overload"*

For Work Overload, we used a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7 (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=neither agree not disagree, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree). Sample questions for the above are "I never seem to have enough time to get everything done" and "It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do" (Boxall & Macky, 2014).

3.3.9 *"Work-life balance"*

Work-life balance was measured with a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree). Two sample questions included were "My job keeps me from spending the amount of time I would like to spend with my family or friends" and "On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests" (Boxall & Macky, 2014).

3.5. Research ethics

Regarding issues of ethics of research, during the research process, care is taken to comply with safety rules, for the protection and respect of human rights and dignity of those involved in research, as well as for the protection of copyright, all kinds.

During the research, the participants were fully informed about the purposes of the research, and the process, that it is a research process, in the context of purely academic, work. Also, that their participation is voluntary and that they can withdraw from the investigation at any point without justifying their withdrawal. They were also informed that the research data is anonymous and is managed with absolute

confidentiality and respect for personal data. The research data was managed by the researcher with special care and confidentiality, aiming at the protection of the data.

4. Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis that was elaborated for the needs of the present research are descriptive statistics (percentages – frequency tables for the presentation of the sample characteristics) and inferential statistics (EFA and CFA). Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted in order to formulate factors from the individual questions of the scales. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted in order to examine the model of the hypothesis.

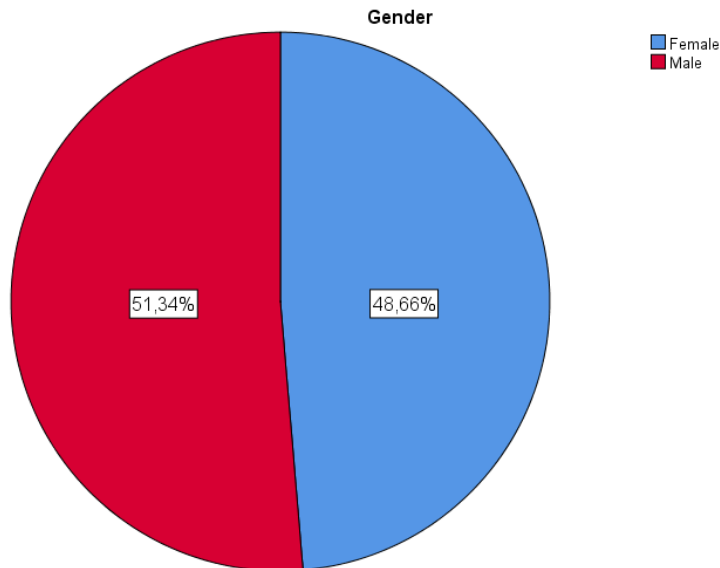
The programs used in the analysis are SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) and SmartPLS. SmartPLS is a software with graphical user interface for variance-based structural equation modeling (SEM) using the partial least squares (PLS) method. The software can be used in empirical research to analyse collected data (e.g. from surveys) and test hypothesized relationships. This is the software I used to create the path model shown in graph 5.

4. 1. Description of the sample

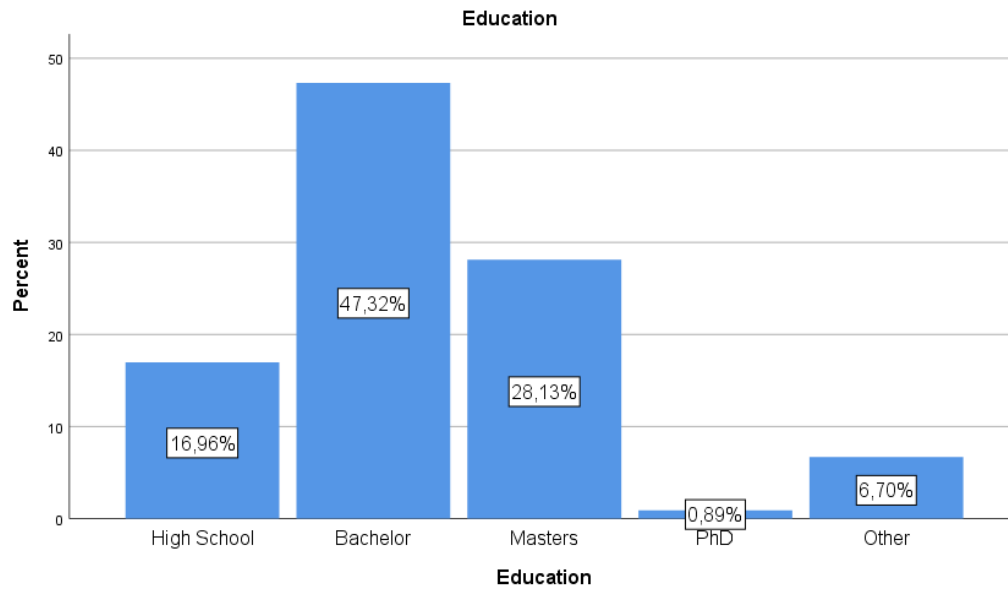
The sample consists of 224 individuals, 109 of whom are females (48.7%) and 115 are males (51.3%). The average age of the participants is 31.79 years ($SD=7.71$). Nearly half of the sample (47.3%) are graduates of a Bachelor degree, 28.1% have a Masters diploma, 17% have completed high school and 0.9% have a PhD (Table 1 and Graph 1)

Table 1. Demographics of the sample

Demographic variable		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Female	109	48.7
	Male	115	51.3
	Total	224	100.0
Education	High School	38	17.0
	Bachelor	106	47.3
	Masters	63	28.1
	PhD	2	.9
	Other	15	6.7
	Total	224	100.0



Graph 1a. Gender

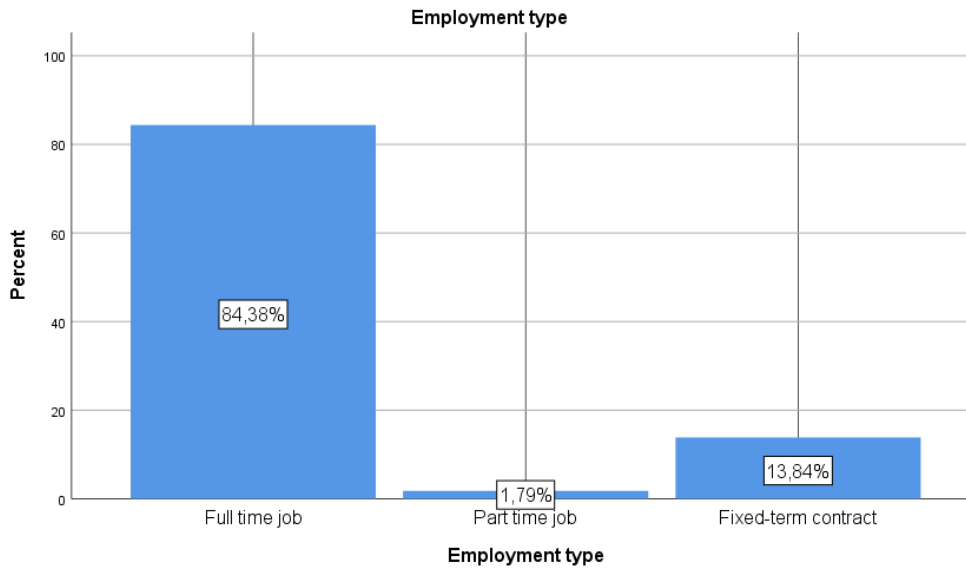


Graph 1b. Distribution of the sample according to educational level

Referring to the employment type of the participants, most of them (84.4%) are full time employees, while 1.8% have a part time job and 13.8% a fixed – term contract (Table 2 and Graph 2).

Table 2. Employment type

Employment type	Frequency	Percent
Full time job	189	84.4
Part time job	4	1.8
Fixed-term contract	31	13.8
Total	224	100.0



Graph 2. Employment type

4. 2. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

4. 2.a. The first scale - questionnaire

For the purposes of the analysis of the data, two EFA were conducted. The first one includes 26 items/questions which are answered in a 7 - point scale (never, almost never, rarely, sometimes, often, very often, always).

The reliability of the scale was measured with Cronbach alpha coefficient and found to be at a very good level ($\alpha=0.935$).

The EFA was performed with Principal Component Analysis method with Equamax Rotation - Kaiser Normalization. The result showed a very good level of sampling adequacy (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy $KMO=0.922$, with Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square=4472.862, $p<0.001$).

In total, five factors with eigenvalues above 1, were extracted, explaining 69.79% of the total scale variance. The factors are:

Trust in management (Cronbach alpha of the subscale $\alpha=0.965$)

Work Engagement ($\alpha=0.929$),

Autonomy – Teleworking (a=0.786),

Physical environment and arrangement (a=0.727),

Accessibility (a=0.708)

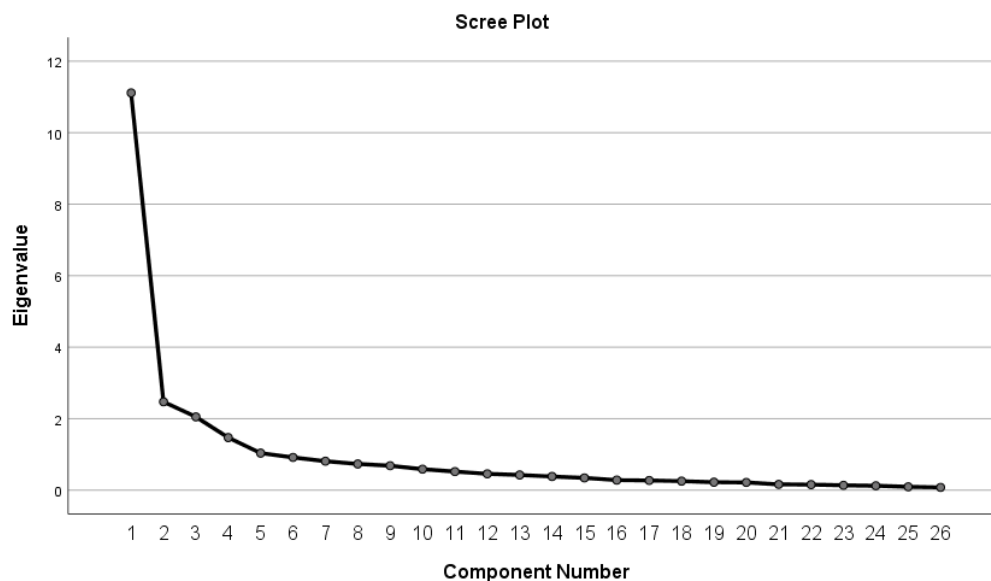
(From the last factor the element “4. I can access all necessary information on my computer” was removed, because it had similar loadings in multiple factors and its inclusion in the fifth factor caused a decrease of alpha coefficient below 0.7.)

The factors with loadings, percentage of variance explained and eigenvalues are presented in Table 3. The scree plot of the EFA is presented in Graph 3. The loadings >0.3 of items in other factors beyond the principal are noted on the table.

Table 3. EFA – factors for the first scale

Rotated Component Matrix^a					
	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1. Trust in management a=0,965					
22. My supervisor gives encouragement and recognition to staff	0.848				
25. My supervisor is clear about his/her values and practices what he/she preaches	0.840				
26. My supervisor instils pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent	0.829				
23. My supervisor fosters trust, involvement and co-operation among team members	0.820				
21. My supervisor treats staff as individuals, supports and encourages their development	0.815				
24. My supervisor encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions	0.812				
20. My supervisor communicates a clear and positive vision of the future	0.744				
% of variance explained 42.75% -	11.11				
Eigenvalues					
Factor 2. Work Engagement a=0,929					
14. My job inspires me		0.796			
13. I am enthusiastic about my job		0.779			
16. I feel happy when I am working intensely		0.727			
15. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work		0.710			

17. I am proud of the work that I do		0.710
12. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	0.311	0.682
18. I am immersed in my work		0.636
11. At my work, I feel bursting with energy		0.614
% of variance explained 9.51% - Eigenvalues		2.47
Factor 3. Autonomy a=0,786		
1. I am able to set my own working hours		0.833
3. I am able to determine the way I work		0.825
2. I am able to determine where I work		0.822
% of variance explained 7.89% - Eigenvalues		2.05
Factor 4. Physical environment and arrangement a=0,727		
9. The building is arranged so that colleagues are easily accessible		0.906
10. The building is arranged so that managers are easily accessible		0.857
% of variance explained 5.66% - Eigenvalues		1.47
Factor 5. Accessibility a=0,708		
5. I am able to reach colleagues within the team quickly		0.822
6. I am able to reach managers quickly	0.318	0.745
7. I am able to reach colleagues outside the team quickly		0.682
% of variance explained 3.99% - Eigenvalues		1.04
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Equamax with Kaiser Normalization.		
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.		



Graph 3. Scree plot for EFA of the first scale

The communalities table is presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Communalities for EFA analysis for the first scale

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
1. I am able to set my own working hours	1.000	.698
2. I am able to determine where I work	1.000	.699
3. I am able to determine the way I work	1.000	.737
4. I can access all necessary information on my computer (removed)	1.000	.348
5. I am able to reach colleagues within the team quickly	1.000	.722
6. I am able to reach managers quickly	1.000	.709
7. I am able to reach colleagues outside the team quickly	1.000	.585
8. I have the ability to adapt my working scheme to my phase of life and ambitions (removed)	1.000	.426
9. The building is arranged so that colleagues are easily accessible	1.000	.884
10. The building is arranged so that managers are easily accessible	1.000	.865
11. At my work, I feel bursting with energy	1.000	.563
12. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	1.000	.745
13. I am enthusiastic about my job	1.000	.825
14. My job inspires me	1.000	.818
15. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	1.000	.680
16. I feel happy when I am working intensely	1.000	.652
17. I am proud of the work that I do	1.000	.644
18. I am immersed in my work	1.000	.455
19. I get carried away when I am working (removed)	1.000	.279
20. My supervisor communicates a clear and positive vision of the future	1.000	.749
21. My supervisor treats staff as individuals, supports and encourages their development	1.000	.841
22. My supervisor gives encouragement and recognition to staff	1.000	.872
23. My supervisor fosters trust, involvement and co-operation among team members	1.000	.829

24. My supervisor encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions	1.000	.819
25. My supervisor is clear about his/her values and practices what he/she preaches	1.000	.848
26. My supervisor instils pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent	1.000	.854
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		

4. 2.b. The second scale – questionnaire (36 items)

The reliability of the second scale was measured with Cronbach alpha coefficient and was also found to be at a very good level $\alpha=0.941$. The second scale includes 36 items/questions which are answered in a 7 - point scale (ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree). Before EFA, answers to questions with opposite direction were reverted.

The EFA was performed with Principal Component Analysis method with Equamax Rotation - Kaiser Normalization. The result showed a very good level of sampling adequacy (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy $KMO=0.917$, with Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square=6060.782, $p<0.001$).

In total, five factors with eigenvalues above 1, were extracted, explaining 68.14% of the total scale variance. The factors are:

Training and knowledge $\alpha=0.959$,

Work-Life balance $\alpha=0.906$,

Transformational leadership $\alpha=0.861$,

Trust in coworkers $\alpha=0.815$,

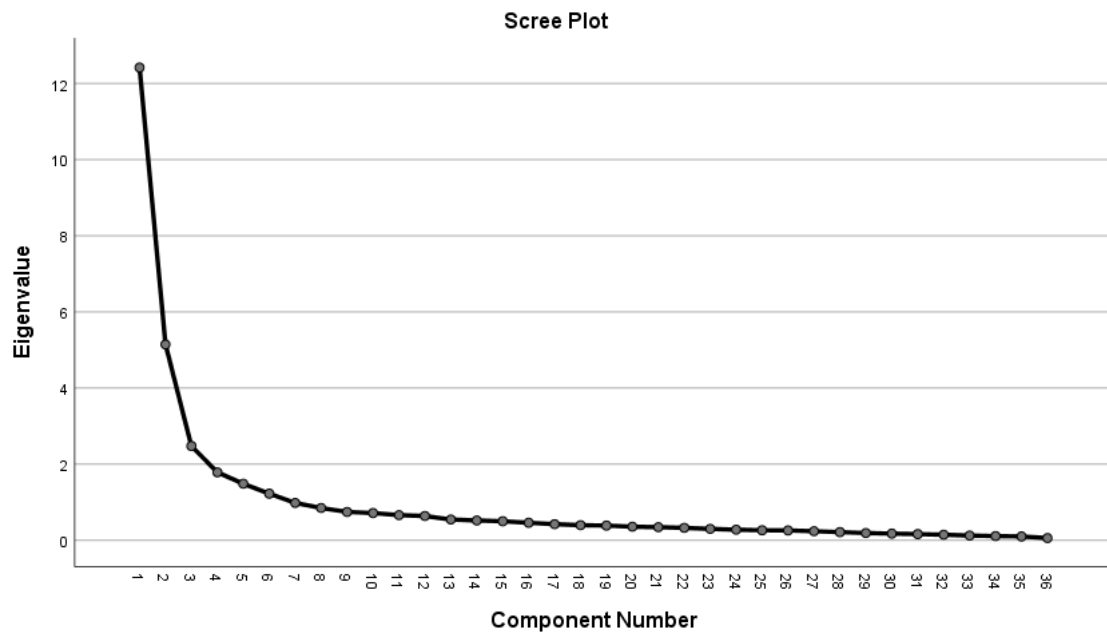
Time Demands $\alpha=0.843$ and Work Overload $\alpha=0.823$.

The factors with loadings, percentage of variance explained and eigenvalues are presented in Table 5, where loadings >0.3 in all factors are denoted.

Table 5. EFA – factors for the second scale

		Rotated Component Matrix ^a					
		1	2	Component			
		3	4	5	6		
Training and knowledge a=0.959							
b36. (R)	Overall, I am satisfied with my training opportunities	0.874					
b33. (R)	I am satisfied with the number of training and development programmes available to me	0.863					
b35. (R)	The training and educational activities I have received have enabled me to perform my job more effectively	0.862					
b34. (R)	I am satisfied with the quality of training and development available to me	0.828					
b32. (R)	I receive ongoing training, which enables me to do my job better	0.780					
b30. (R)	I have had sufficient job-related training	0.740					
b29. (R)	I am given a real opportunity to improve my skills at this company through education and training programmes	0.705		0.375			
b31. (R)	My supervisor has helped me acquire additional job-related training when I have needed it	0.703		0.357			
% of variance explained 34,49% -		12.42					
Eigenvalues							
Work-Life balance a=0,906							
b4.	My work takes up time that would like to spend with family or friends	0.773					
b6.	My job keeps me from spending the amount of time I would like to spend with my family or friends	0.764			0.308		
b2.	On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests	0.741					
b5.	My job interferes with my responsibilities at home, or child care	0.726			0.361		
b3.	My family or friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home	0.719					
b1.	After work, I am too tired to do some of the things I would like to do	0.693					
% of variance explained 14.29% -		5.14					
Eigenvalues							
Transformational leadership a=0,861							
b13. (R)	Management where I work is sincere in its attempts to meet the workers point of view	0.406		0.658			
b14.	Our organization has a poor future unless it can attract better managers	0.300		0.625			

% of variance explained 6.88% -		2.48
Eigenvalues		
Trust in coworkers a=0,815		
b19. (R) If I got into difficulties at work, I know my workmates would try to help me out	0.351	0.748
b22. (R) I have full confidence in the skills of my workmates	0.330	0.693
b21. (R) Most of my workmates can be relied upon to do as they say they will do	0.364	0.690
b20. (R) I can trust the people I work with to lend me a hand if I need it	0.316	0.662
b23. (R) Most of my fellow workers would get on with their work without direct supervision		0.649
% of variance explained 4.96% -		1.79
Eigenvalues		
Time Demands a=0,843		
b25. To get ahead in my organization, employees are expected to work more than their contracted hours each week		0.787
b28. To be viewed favourably by senior managers, employees in your organization must put their jobs ahead of their family/personal lives		0.765
b27. Employees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their families or personal lives	0.309	0.726
b26. Employees are often expected to work overtime or work at weekends	0.312	0.692
b7. (R) I am given enough time to do what is expected of me on my job		0.424 0.321
% of variance explained 4.12% -		1.48
Eigenvalues		
Work Overload a=0,823		
b8. It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do		0.695
b9. The performance standards on my job are too high		0.819
b10. I have too much work to do everything well		0.759
b12. I never seem to have enough time to get everything done		0.608
% of variance explained 3.40% -		1.23
Eigenvalues		
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		
Rotation Method: Equamax with Kaiser Normalization. a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations		



Graph 4. Scree plot for EFA of the second scale

The communalities table for the scale EFA is presented in Table 6

Table 6. Communalities – EFA for second scale

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
b1. After work, I am too tired to do some of the things I would like to do	1.000	.589
b2. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests	1.000	.675
b3. My family or friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home	1.000	.661
b4. My work takes up time that I would like to spend with family or friends	1.000	.782
b5. My job interferes with my responsibilities at home, or child care	1.000	.701
b6. My job keeps me from spending the amount of time I would like to spend with my family or friends	1.000	.742
b7. (R) I am given enough time to do what is expected of me on my job	1.000	.437
b8. It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do	1.000	.666
b9. The performance standards on my job are too high	1.000	.693
b10. I have too much work to do everything well	1.000	.692

b11. (R) The amount of work I am asked to do is fair	1.000	.605
b12. I never seem to have enough time to get everything done	1.000	.610
b13. (R) Management where I work is sincere in its attempts to meet the workers' point of view	1.000	.684
b14. Our organization has a poor future unless it can attract better managers	1.000	.593
b15. (R) Management can be trusted to make sensible decisions for the organization's future	1.000	.705
b16. (R) Management at work seems to do an efficient job	1.000	.756
b17.(R) I feel quite confident that the company will always try to treat me fairly	1.000	.604
b18. Our management would be quite prepared to gain advantage by deceiving the workers (removed)	1.000	.487
b19. (R) If I got into difficulties at work, I know my workmates would try to help me out	1.000	.737
b20. (R) I can trust the people I work with to lend me a hand if I need it	1.000	.645
b21. (R) Most of my workmates can be relied upon to do as they say they will do	1.000	.642
b22. (R) I have full confidence in the skills of my workmates	1.000	.653
b23. (R) Most of my fellow workers would get on with their work without direct supervision	1.000	.606
b24. (R) I can rely on other workers not to make my job more difficult by careless work (removed)	1.000	.535
b25. To get ahead in my organization, employees are expected to work more than their contracted hours each week	1.000	.684
b26. Employees are often expected to work overtime or work at weekends	1.000	.608
b27. Employees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their families or personal lives	1.000	.704
b28. To be viewed favourably by senior managers, employees in your organization must put their jobs ahead of their family/personal lives	1.000	.738
b29. (R) I am given a real opportunity to improve my skills at this company through education and training programmes	1.000	.676
b30. (R) I have had sufficient job-related training	1.000	.737
b31. (R) My supervisor has helped me acquire additional job-related training when I have needed it	1.000	.704
b32. (R) I receive ongoing training, which enables me to do my job better	1.000	.732

b33. (R) I am satisfied with the number of training and development programmes available to me	1.000	.847
b34. (R) I am satisfied with the quality of training and development available to me	1.000	.846
b35. (R) The training and educational activities I have received have enabled me to perform my job more effectively	1.000	.863
b36. (R) Overall, I am satisfied with my training opportunities	1.000	.895
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		

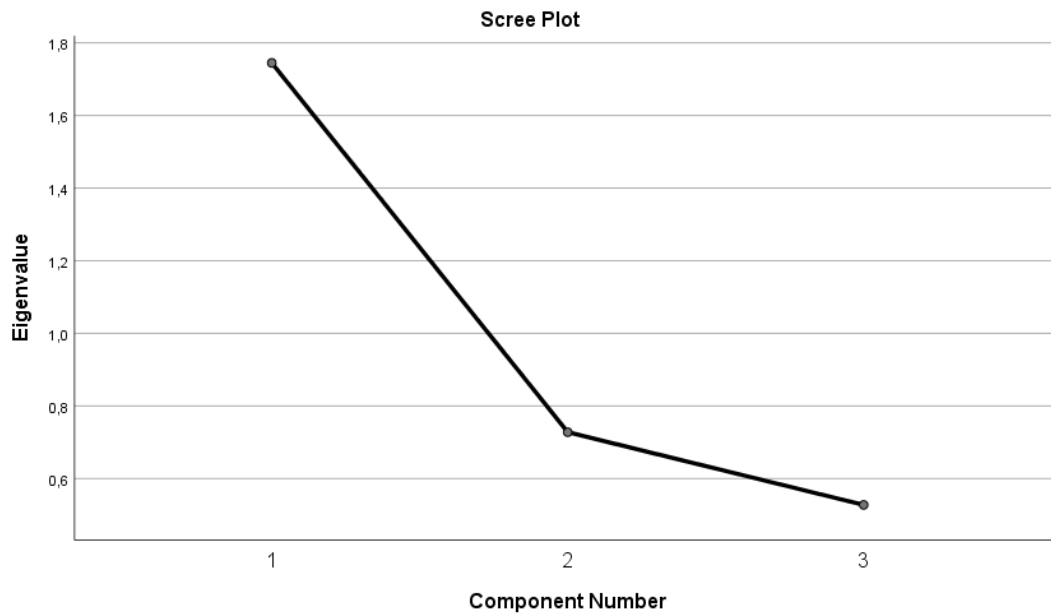
4. 2.c. Second order factors for the first scale

The objective of the present study is to investigate the teleworking environment, in relation to the rest of the variables, which ask for a variable to be formed representing teleworking. In this respect, a second order Factor Analysis was performed in order to investigate whether the variables-factors (Autonomy, Physical environment and arrangement and accessibility) can form a second order factor for teleworking.

In view of this, the new variables Autonomy, Physical environment and arrangement and accessibility were formed as sums of the values of the individual items/questions. The analysis showed that one factor can be formed (FA resulted to only one factor), with Eigenvalue 1.754, explaining 58.16% of the total variance, and loadings of the variables, as demonstrated in Table 7. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was found to be $KNO=0.627$ and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square = 88.654, $p<0.001$.

Table 7. Loadings for the second order factor analysis - teleworking

Component Matrix	
	Component 1
Autonomy	.690
Physical environment and arrangement	.813
Accessibility	.779
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. a. 1 components extracted	



Graph 4. Scree plot for second order FA for teleworking

The communalities table is presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Communalities table for factor analysis for teleworking

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
Autonomy	1.000	.477
Physical environment and arrangement	1.000	.661
Accessibility	1.000	.607

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

4. 3. Variables – descriptive measures

The factors formulated in the previous sections were flooded with values as the sum of values of the individual items/questions in each factor.

Reversed items

Trust in management: Items reversed to reflect positive meaning, with higher values to represent more trust in management

Work Engagement: Items reversed to reflect positive meaning, with higher values to represent more intense work engagement.

Work-life-balance Reversed to reflect positive meaning: Higher values represent better work-life balance

Teleworking: higher values represent better terms of teleworking

Transformational leadership: Items reversed to reflect positive meaning, with higher values to represent more positive terms in Transformational leadership.

Trust in coworkers: Higher values represent more Trust in coworkers.

Time Demands: One item was reversed so that higher values represent more time demands.

Work Overload: Items reversed to reflect negative meaning, with higher values to represent more intense work Overload.

Training and knowledge: Higher values of the variables denote better level of Training and knowledge within the organization.

The descriptive measures of the newly formed variables, after factor analysis are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Descriptive measures of variables of the analysis

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Trust in management	7	49	38.19	9.89
Work Engagement	13	56	42.29	8.99
Teleworking	21	69	50.92	10.26
Training and knowledge	8	56	39.40	11.90
Work-Life balance	6	42	25.30	9.42
Transformational leadership	6	42	29.51	8.29
Trust in coworkers	7	42	32.55	6.30
Time Demands	5	35	16.52	7.13

Work Overload	5	35	18.95	6.23
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4. 4. Variables - correlations

The correlation between pairs of variables was examined with Pearson’s correlation. The correlation between all pairs of variables revealed significant ($p < 0.001$ in all pairs). Specifically, the correlation between ‘Time Demands’ and the rest of the variables (except for Work overload) is negative, so is the correlation between Work overload with the rest of the variables, showing that higher values of time demand and work overload are related to lower values of Trust in management, Work Engagement, Teleworking, Work-Life balance, Training and knowledge, Transformational leadership and Trust in coworkers. As observed from Table 10, below, the strongest negative correlation of Time Demands ($r = - 0.613$, $p < 0.001$) as well as with Work overload ($r = - 0.603$, $p < 0.001$) is with Work-Life balance.

The rest of the correlations are positive, denoting that higher values of one variable are related to higher values of the other. The correlation power (coefficient value) varied. Transformational leadership has a varying correlation with the rest of the variables, ranging from $r = 0.684$ ($p < 0.001$) with Training and knowledge, to $r = 0.274$ ($p < 0.001$) with Work-Life balance (which is a weak correlation).

Training and knowledge has a weak to medium strength correlation with the rest of the variables, ranging from $r = 0.274$ ($p < 0.001$) with Work-Life balance to $r = 0.636$ ($p < 0.001$) with Trust in management.

Teleworking is positively correlated with Trust in management ($r = 0.503$, $p < 0.001$), Work Engagement ($r = 0.558$, $p < 0.001$), Work-Life balance ($r = 0.239$, $p < 0.001$), Trust in coworkers ($r = 0.442$, $p < 0.001$) and negatively with Time Demands ($r = - 0.248$, $p < 0.001$) and Work Overload ($r = - 0.232$, $p < 0.001$).

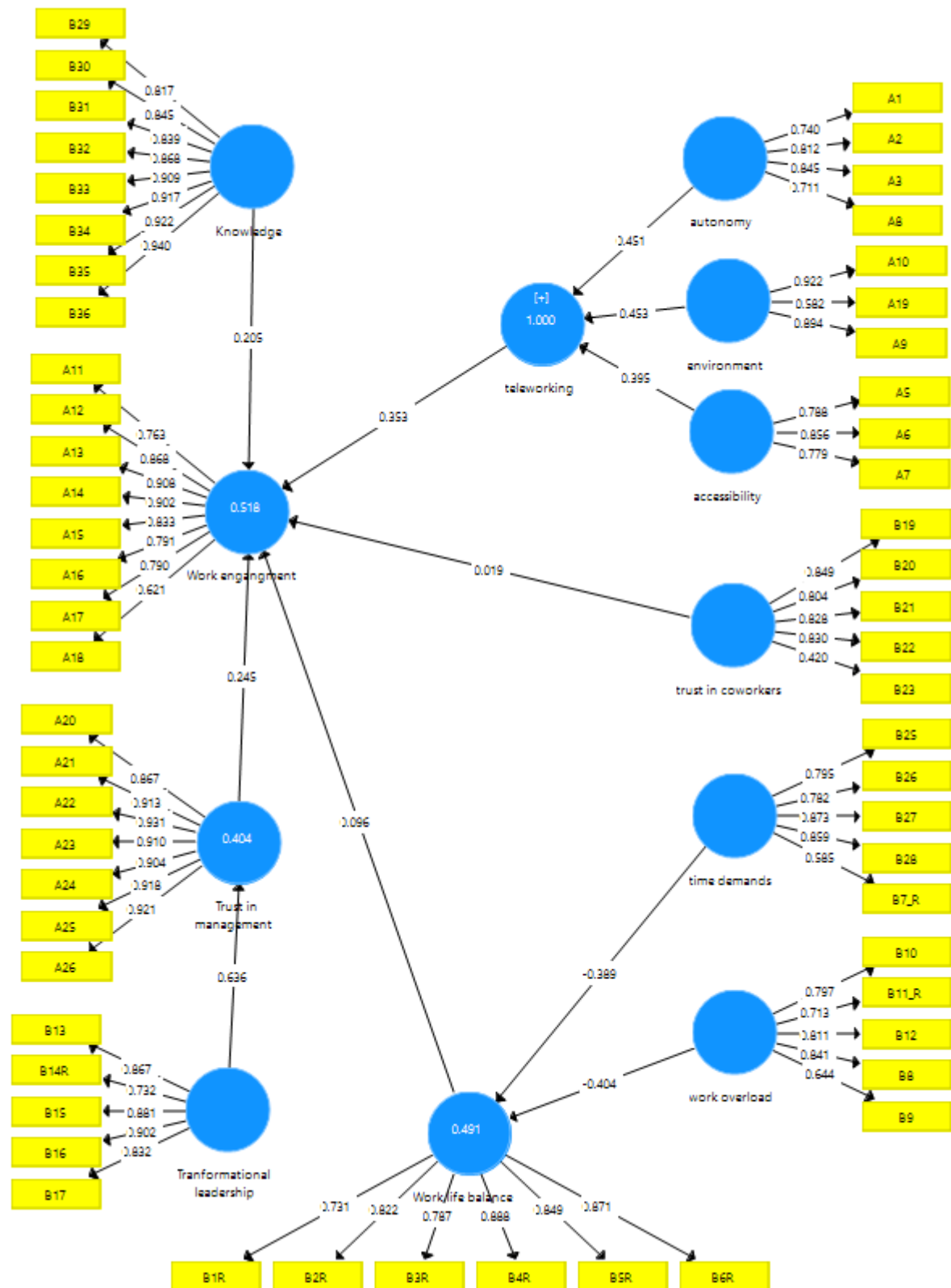
Table 10. Pearson correlation between pairs of variables

Pearson Correlation	Correlations								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Trust in management	1								
2. Work Engagement	.603**	1							
3. Teleworking	.503**	.558**	1						
4. Training and knowledge	.636**	.535**	.373**	1					
5. Work-Life balance	.305**	.314**	.239**	.274**	1				
6. Transformational leadership	.620**	.589**	.454**	.684**	.274**	1			
7. Trust in coworkers	.438**	.354**	.442**	.414**	.205**	.492**	1		
8. Time Demands	-.292**	-.249**	-.248**	-.297**	-.613**	-.417**	-.234**	1	
9. Work Overload	-.285**	-.282**	-.232**	-.360**	-.603**	-.385**	-.298**	.549**	1

** . p<0.001

4. 5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis – the proposed model

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was performed with the software package SmartPLS. All items/questions were inserted into the model, according to the results of the exploratory analysis described above. Initially, the factors described in the previous section were confirmed, and a model was constructed. Teleworking construct was formed (second level factor) by autonomy, environment and accessibility.

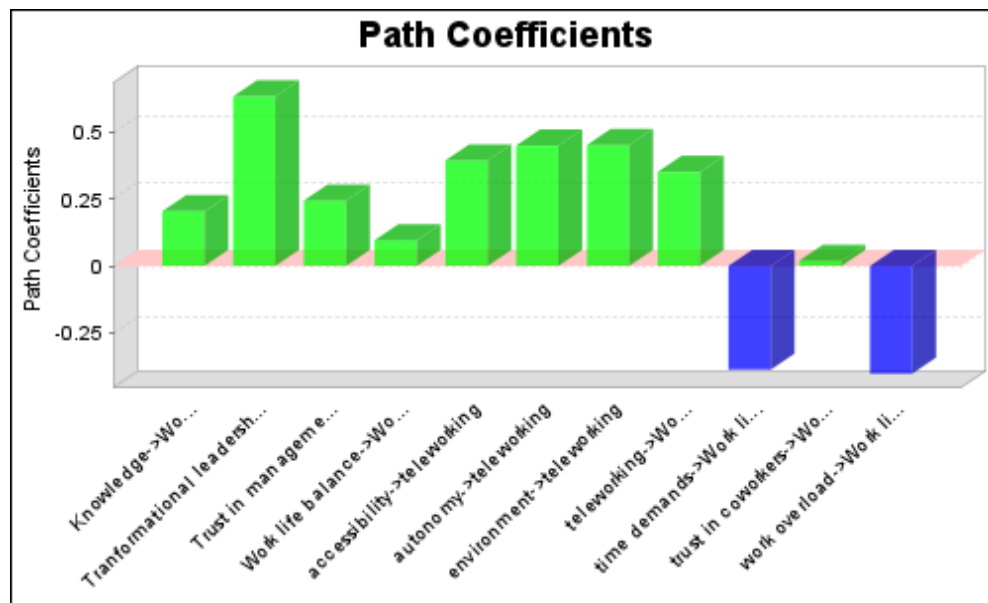


Graph 5. Representation of the model path

The path coefficients are presented in Table 11 below and the indirect effects in Table 12 and the corresponding Graph 6.

Table 11. Path coefficients for the model

	Autonomy	Knowledge	Teleworking	Time Demands	Transformational leadership	Trust in management	Work Engagement	Work Overload	Work-Life-Balance	Accessability	Environment	Trust in coworkers
Autonomy			0.451									
Knowledge							0.205					
Teleworking							0.356					
Time Demands									-0.389			
Transformational leadership						0.636						
Trust in management							0.245					
Work Engagement												
Work Overload									-0.404			
Work-Life-Balance							0.096					
Accessability			0.395									
Environment			0.453									
Trust in coworkers							0.019					



Graph 6. Path coefficients of the model

As seen above from the correlation matrix, the relationships among all relevant variables have a positive sign, - similarly in the present tables the impact is positive - except for the impact of which are negative. The indirect effects of ‘Time demands’ and ‘Work overload’ on ‘Work Engagement’ are also negative (Table 12).

Table 12. Indirect effects

	Autonomy	Knowledge	Teleworking	Time Demands	Transformational leadership	Trust in management	Work Engagement	Work Overload	Work-Life-Balance	Accesibility	Environment	Trust in coworkers
Autonomy							0.159					
Knowledge												
Teleworking												
Time Demands							-0.038					
Transformational leadership							0.157					
Trust in management												
Work Engagement												
Work Overload							-0.039					
Work-Life-Balance												
Accesibility							0.141					
Environment							0.160					
Trust in coworkers												

Table 13. Total effects

	Autonomy	Knowledge	Teleworking	Time Demands	Transformational leadership	Trust in management	Work Engagement	Work Overload	Work-Life-Balance	Accesibility	Environment	Trust in coworkers
Autonomy		0.451					0.159					
Knowledge							0.205					
Teleworking							0.353					
Time Demands							-0.038	-0.389				
Transformational leadership						0.636	0.156					

Trust in management		0.245	
Work Engagement			
Work Overload		-0.039	-0.404
Work-Life-Balance		0.096	
Accessibility	0.395	0.139	
Environment	0.453	0.160	
Trust in coworkers		0.019	

In Table 14 the R square for all effects are presented. From the results, it can be seen that the second order factor Teleworking is explained 100% from its constructs (accessibility, environment, Autonomy). In addition, the model explains 40% of ‘Trust in management’ variance, 51% of ‘Work Engagement’ and 50% of ‘Work-Life-Balance’.

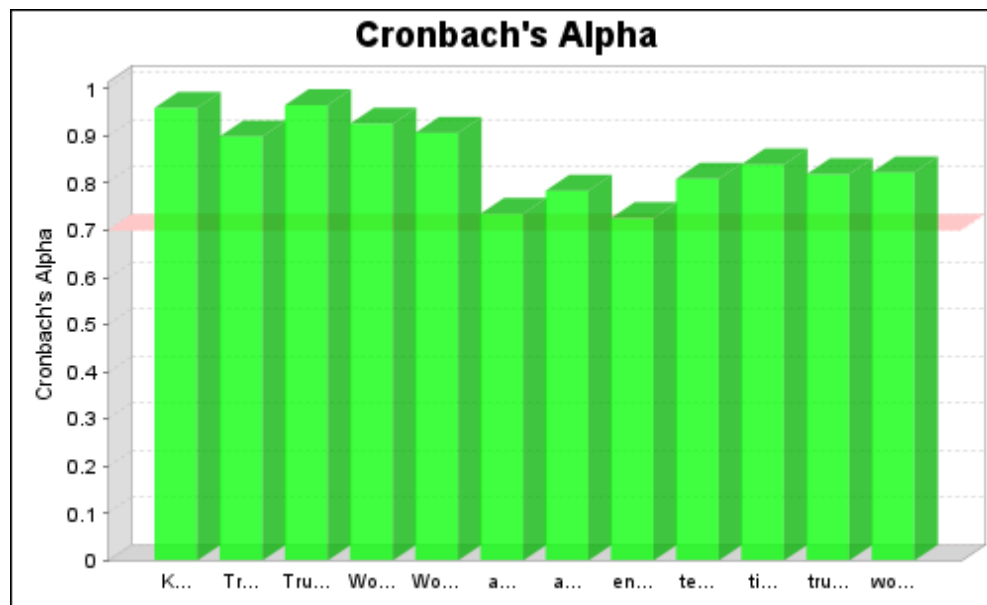
Table 14. R square results

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Teleworking	1.000	1.000
Trust in management	0.404	0.402
Work Engagement	0.518	0.507
Work-Life-Balance	0.491	0.487

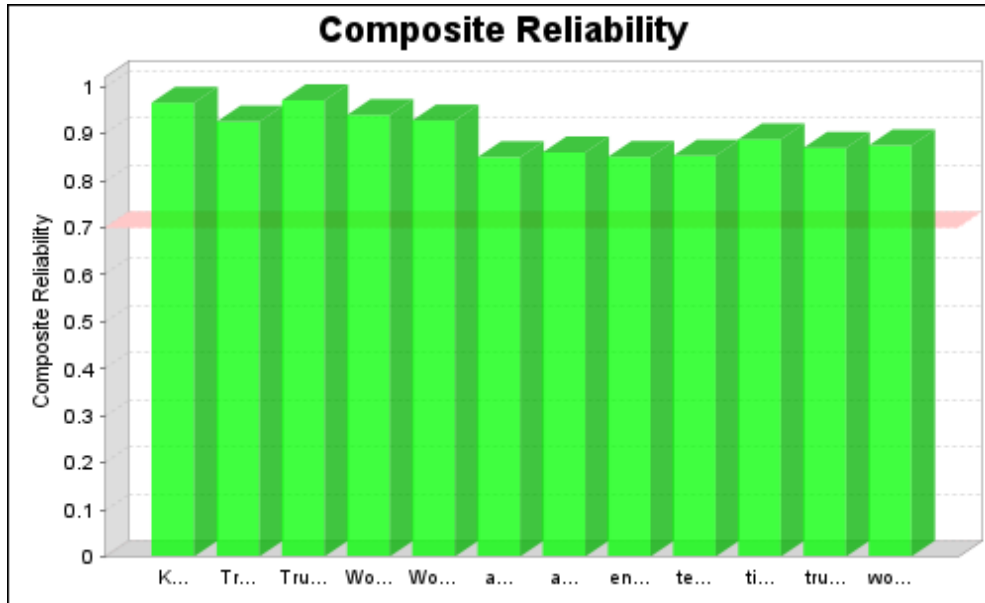
The construct reliability and validity results from the model are presented in table 15. From the results it can be seen that the reliability of all constructs is at an acceptable to a very good level ($> .7$). Similarly, the rho_A ($> .7$) and the composite reliability results ($> .8$) show a good level of the model reliability and validity. The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is low only for ‘Teleworking’ (.372, which is a second order factor). Graph 7 depicts Cronbach's Alpha results and Graph 8 the composite reliability. In both graphs, the results are above the acceptable limit (red line). In Graph 9, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is below the limit.

Table 15. Construct reliability and validity results

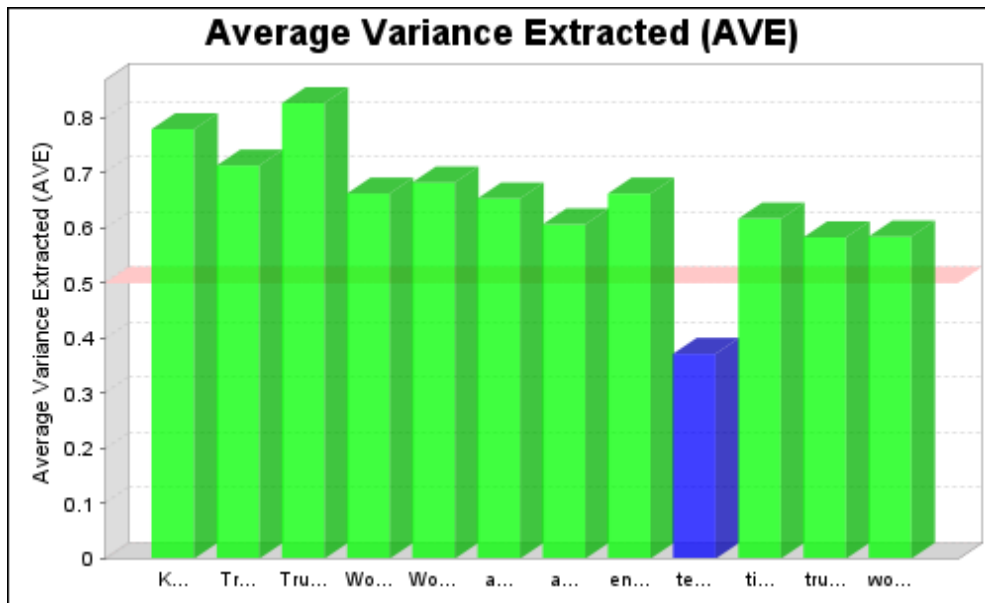
	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Knowledge	0.959	0.96	0.966	0.78
Transformational leadership	0.899	0.911	0.925	0.714
Trust in management	0.965	0.965	0.971	0.827
Work engangment	0.926	0.938	0.94	0.663
Work life balance	0.906	0.911	0.928	0.683
Accessibility	0.735	0.74	0.85	0.654
Autonomy	0.784	0.791	0.86	0.607
Environment	0.726	0.781	0.85	0.663
Teleworking	0.809	0.822	0.853	0.372
Time demands	0.84	0.858	0.888	0.617
Trust in coworkers	0.819	0.875	0.87	0.583
Work overload	0.823	0.846	0.875	0.585



Graph 7. Cronbach's Alpha



Graph 8. Composite reliability



Graph 9. Average variance extracted

Table 16. Probabilities and p-values

	Original Sampl...	Sample Mean (...)	Standard Devia...	T Statistics (O/...	P Values
Knowledge -> Work engangment	0.205	0.211	0.067	3.065	0.002
Tranformational leadership -> Trust in manag...	0.636	0.633	0.046	13.740	0.000
Trust in management -> Work engangment	0.245	0.242	0.073	3.360	0.001
Work life balance -> Work engangment	0.096	0.095	0.051	1.903	0.058
accessibility -> teleworking	0.395	0.392	0.035	11.262	0.000
autonomy -> teleworking	0.451	0.451	0.041	11.020	0.000
environment -> teleworking	0.453	0.453	0.027	16.919	0.000
teleworking -> Work engangment	0.353	0.354	0.068	5.151	0.000
time demands -> Work life balance	-0.389	-0.390	0.071	5.455	0.000
trust in coworkers -> Work engangment	0.019	0.020	0.054	0.358	0.720
work overload -> Work life balance	-0.404	-0.410	0.058	6.992	0.000

The probabilities and p-values of the model, as they have resulted after bootstrapping, are presented in Table 16. As it results from the table, variables are significant with exception of work life balance's impact on work engagement.

5. Results

This research demonstrates the relationship between several variables and the results of each variable's effect on others through different proposed hypotheses. More specifically, the variables addressed are Teleworking, Work Engagement, Transformational leadership, Trust in Management and co-workers, Knowledge, Time demands, Work overload and Work-life balance. Through the statistical analysis and the software programmes used these Hypotheses are either approved or rejected.

The proposed hypotheses are the following:

Hypothesis 1: ‘Teleworking’ is a significant predictor for ‘Work Engagement’.

Hypothesis 2a: From the above said, it is expected that the more “Accessibility” increases, the more “Teleworking” is positively affected and increases as well.

Hypothesis 2b: In addition, it is expected that the more “Environment” flexibility increases, the more “Teleworking” is positively affected and increases.

Hypothesis 2c: Last but not least, it is expected that the more “Autonomy” provided to employees, the more “Teleworking” is positively affected and increases.

Hypothesis 3a: ‘Transformational leadership’ is expected to have a significant positive impact on ‘Trust in Management’.

Hypothesis 3b: ‘Transformational leadership’ is expected to have a significant positive impact on ‘Work Engagement’.

Hypothesis 4: ‘Trust in Management’ is a significant predictor for ‘Work Engagement’.

Hypothesis 5: ‘Trust in coworkers’ is considered to affect ‘Work Engagement’ in an important positive way.

Hypothesis 6: ‘Knowledge’ is expected to be a significant predictor for ‘Work Engagement’.

Hypothesis 7a: ‘Time Demands’ are expected to affect ‘Work Life Balance’ negatively.

Hypothesis 7b: ‘Work overload’ is expected to affect ‘Work Life Balance’ negatively.

Hypothesis 8: ‘Work Life Balance’ is a significant predictor for ‘Work Engagement’.

The hypothetical model, confirmed by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and depicted in Graph 5, above, shows a path outlined below.

The construct 'Teleworking' is composed by three constructs (autonomy, environment and accessibility), as a second order factor with weights 0.451, 0.453 and 0.395 respectively and the new construct is 100% made up by these factors ($R^2 = 1.000$, $\text{adj}R^2 = 1.000$). In addition, 'Teleworking' has a positive meaning, in the sense that higher values denote better terms of distance occupation. The three components also have an indirect effect on Work engagement (0.159, 0.139 and 0.160, respectively).

'Transformational leadership' affects positively 'Trust in management' and it explains more than 40% of its total variance ($R^2 = 0.404$, $\text{adj}R^2 = 0.402$) ($p=0.002$ and $t\text{-statistics}=13.740$). The coefficient is 0.636, showing that one unit increase of 'Transformational leadership' will lead to 0.636 units increase of 'Trust in management'. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is accepted.

Accessibility ($p=0.000$ and $t\text{-statistics}=11.262$), Autonomy ($p=0.000$ and $t\text{-statistics}=11.020$) and Environment ($p=0.000$ and $t\text{-statistics}=16.919$), which define Teleworking, play an important role on measuring Teleworking and they will all have a significant effect on Teleworking. As a result, Hypotheses 2a, 2b and 2c respectively are accepted.

In addition, the path of the model (as presented in graph 5, above), shows that the variables examined (Trust in management, Work-Life Balance, Teleworking, Trust in coworkers and knowledge) predict Work engagement at a significant level. The predictor with the highest effect size is Teleworking (coefficient is 0.353). The total model explains 52% of the total variance of work engagement ($R^2 = 0.518$, $\text{adj}R^2 = 0.507$). Therefore, Teleworking is a significant predictor of Work Engagement and will affect positively Work Engagement ($p=0.000$) which allows us to accept Hypothesis 1.

As stated above, Trust in management, Work-Life Balance, Teleworking, Trust in coworkers and knowledge predict Work engagement at a significant level. Trust in Management has a significant impact on Work Engagement ($p=0.001$). In addition, 'Transformational leadership' indirectly impacts Work engagement (0.156). For this reason, Hypothesis 3b, 4, 8, 5 and 6 are also accepted.

On the other hand, work life balance's impact on work engagement is marginally non-significant $p=0.058$ ($>0,05$) and trust in coworkers impact on work engagement, which is non-significant $p=0.720$. Consequently, hypothesis 5 is not accepted and hypothesis 8 is marginally accepted.

The constructs of 'Time Demands' and 'Work overload' affect negatively 'Work – Life – Balance' and they explain 49% of the total 'Work – Life – Balance' variance ($R^2 = 0.491$, $adjR^2 = 0.487$). Their weights are -0.389 (Time Demands) and -0.404 (Work Overload). The two negative factors also have a minor indirect negative impact on Work engagement (-0.038 and -0.039 , respectively). Therefore, Hypotheses 7a and 7b are not statistically important and consequently they are rejected.

On the other hand, we see from the results of bootstrapping that Work-life balance has a non-significant impact on Work Engagement ($p=0.058$) which allows us to confirm that Hypothesis 8 will marginally accepted.

6. Conclusions

This research is an approach to the innovative ways of working -Teleworking- under flexible circumstances given that a great amount of employees are now working remotely in their own preferred time and space. In other words, this is the new reality, which is mostly a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. The main purpose of the present study was to indicate the relationship between Teleworking and Work Engagement and how they affect each other. In addition, other factors were also taken into consideration, which I perceived to be crucial for the results of this

relationship. It is worth mentioning that this is a relatively new field of research, which was another reason why it motivated me to broaden our knowledge on it. Thus, great importance was given to individuals' perception about this new reality and the new ways of working. The answers to the proposed questions were provided through the questionnaire they replied to.

To begin with, it seems that the new ways of working are proved to play indeed an important role in employees' Work Engagement, which is shown in the results of the statistical analysis. Participants in the current study believe that Teleworking can increase Work Engagement, which is the most important conclusion the research comes to, which was also the initial purpose of it. However, this relationship would not be as crucial as it is without including the rest of the variables. The analysis of the data resulted in the main conclusion that Teleworking, Transformational leadership, Trust in management, Trust in coworkers and Knowledge are significant predictors for Work engagement. However, it is worth mentioning that trust in co-workers is not as significant a predictor as the others are. To be fair, its impact on Work Engagement was quite insignificant. Employee work engagement is one of the most critical elements in human resource management, mainly due to its connection to the productivity of the staff and the organization (Gujral and Jain, 2013).

Teleworking, as a construct of the autonomy one has at his/her work when working from distance, combined with the ease of access to reach managers and colleagues and work as a team, enforces the engagement of employees with their work. As mentioned in the above literature review, Teleworking is a new way of working which people actually prefer because it gives them the opportunity to complete work tasks in their own time and in the location they choose (Perez et al., 2002). This is why Teleworking is divided into three variables consisting of accessibility to managers and co-workers, the environment which people can choose to work in and last, but not least, autonomy people are given to complete their tasks assigned to them separately.

Another important conclusion this study leads us to is that knowledge and training at work are also significant predictors of work engagement. This is described through the fact that individuals appreciate to a great extent the knowledge offered to them via training seminars at work which also guides them to work to their best potential since they know the job and how they can be efficient at it. This knowledge they acquire, is

strengthening their position within the organization and enforces their bonds with it. Previous literature highlighted the positive effect of training on work engagement (Salanova, Agut, and Peiró 2005; Alfes et al., 2012). Positive perceptions of the employees regarding training within the organization may drive to higher levels of engagement, according to Salanova, et al., (2005). In addition, Alfes et al. (2012) advocate that training, among other management practices are ultimately associated with better performance through engagement.

Hewitt (2017) had listed six factors which affect engagement in an organization: People (including leadership, management team, coworkers, clients), The Basics, (including Total rewards – salary, benefits, recognition/appreciation, security), Company practices (such as policies, employee assessment), Work (the work itself and the processes involved, autonomy, collaboration and tasks involved), Opportunities (including career prospects), Quality of Life (including work-life balance) and training-learning and development. This view is in line with the findings of the present research, where most of the abovementioned factors have emerged as significant predictors of Work engagement.

Further, we shall underline the impact of Transformational leadership' on 'Trust in management', which is outstanding and must be considerable as an additional conclusion of this research. In the aforementioned literature, there is evidence of this relationship between Trust in management and Transformational leadership (Sharma & Krishnan, 2012; Yasin Ghadi, Fernando, & Caputi, 2013). It is proven that they can positively affect work engagement, as participants in the research also confirmed. Employees trust the leader who is motivating and caring towards their followers, which in turn will have as a result employees' boosted will power to perform their highest potential. The model presented in this work shows this effect, as previous research does, too (Schaufeli, Taris, & Bakker, 2006). Consequently, Transformational leadership is an essential factor which empowers Work Engagement.

As mentioned previously, the relationship between trust in co-workers was also something that I considered to be worth studying. However, the results show that this factor does not impact as much Work Engagement.

In conclusion, this research contributes to broaden people's insight into Teleworking and its impact on Work Engagement. It is important to mention that there is limited research on this specific field up till today, and especially in Greece. Therefore, it seems like an interesting part of our new reality which I propose should be included in our near future studies.

7. Limitations

An empirical study like the one above can have several limitations like the audience it is referring to and the sample taken can refer to a limited population group. More specifically, this study refers only to people that work from home, via multinational companies in Greece. The people that answered the questionnaires live in Greece but they are not necessarily Greek.

The social media used to approach the participants was mostly LinkedIn from where they were easily accessed. However, there was a limit on the number of people I could add on this social media so I could approach them and forward the questionnaires to them.

The pandemic (Covid-19) which struck our world made it easier to find people that work from home nowadays, however on the other hand, a significant number of them did not want to participate because they did not feel secure enough to reply to a questionnaire given by a random person (myself) who they did not know before. So given that trust was difficult to gain, it was a challenging process that did not always work. As a result, many people rejected the opportunity to be part of this research.

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Errata		
Location	Error	Correction
Pag.53, graph 5	Work Engangement	Work Engagement
Pag.53, graph 5	Tranformational leadership	Transformational leadership