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Home Office and Worker's Experience with Digital Communication

Relationship with Organisational, Team, and Individual Variables

Master thesis, 2023

Master of Science in Business Administration

University of Stavanger Business School

Specialisation: Leadership in a Digital Economy



Abstract

The Covid-19 pandemic caused a worldwide lockdown of society, and created a need for social distancing to prevent further spread of the contagious virus. As a preventive measure, home offices were imposed by authorities in occupations where working remotely was possible. The extended use of home offices and digital communication altered the traditional way of working, and developed new working habits. This thesis' goal is to investigate the two dependent variables, home office and worker's experience with digital communication (WEDC), with regard to multiple independent variables. It wants to examine how home office and WEDC relate to one another. Furthermore, the aim is to explore to what extent the organisational dimensions (transformational leadership, autonomy, predictability), the team dimensions (organisational climate, social support, age discrimination), and the individual dimensions (burnout, working hours, gender, age) relate to home office and predict WEDC. Lastly, the purpose is to investigate to what extent the patterns of relationships are similar for home office and WEDC, when predicting from the organisational, team, and individual levels.

The data was collected by Norstat in September 2021 by using a quantitative method from 1531 participants, who were representative of the Norwegian workforce. Validity and reliability were evaluated through the use of factor and reliability analyses. Additionally, Pearson's bivariate correlation analysis and multiple hierarchical regression analysis were performed. The results showed that home office was positively and significantly correlated to WEDC. All the independent variables were significantly correlated to the dependent variable home office, except gender and age discrimination. The only independent variables that were significantly correlated to the dependent variable WEDC were gender, mental distance (burnout), control of work pacing (autonomy), and control of decisions (autonomy). These were therefore further included in the multiple hierarchical regression. When all relevant variables were added in the regression analysis, control of work pacing and mental distance were both significantly positive predictors. At the same time, gender was a significantly negative predictor in the regression. Control of decisions was not significant in the regression, and the hypothesis regarding the relationship between control of decisions and WEDC was partially confirmed. A low percentage of the total variance for WEDC was explained by the predictors (4.4%). The results suggest further research on predictability, age discrimination, burnout, and gender.

Preface

This thesis concludes the two-year MSc program in Business Administration at the University of Stavanger, within the specialisation Leadership in a Digital Economy. The restrictions brought on by the Covid-19 pandemic marked the commencement of this master's degree. Despite this, the UiS Business School has been both adaptive and solution-oriented in their efforts to accommodate the various regulations and policies imposed by Stavanger municipality and the government.

With the completion of this thesis, our time at the UiS Business School, and a wonderful chapter in our life ends. It has been a challenging, yet rewarding time that we both believe we will benefit from in the future.

We would like to express our gratitude to our supervisor, Reidar Johan Mykletun, for providing excellent help and guidance throughout this semester. Mykletun's positive engagement and constructive feedback have been both inspiring and motivating. Furthermore, his valuable contributions have been greatly appreciated.

Finally, we would also like to thank our family and friends for being good supporters throughout this process, and the wonderful student community we have been a part of for the last two years at the University of Stavanger.

Stavanger, June 15th, 2023

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Table of Contents

Abstract	I
Preface	II
List of Figures	V
List of Tables	V
1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Background of Study	1
1.2 Thesis Structure	1
1.3 Inspiration	3
1.4 Problem Statement	3
2.0 Theory	5
2.1 Home Office	5
2.2 Worker's Experience with Digital Communication (WEDC)	6
2.3 Independent Variables	10
2.3.1 Organisational Level	10
2.3.2 Team Level	17
2.3.3 Individual Level	23
3.0 Research Method	33
3.1 Quantitative Research Method	33
3.1.1 Advantages and Disadvantages of a Quantitative Research Method	33
3.2 Sample and Data	34
3.3 Measurements	35
Reliability and Validity	35
3.3.1 Statistical Analyses	37
3.3.2 Dependent Variable Scales	38
3.3.3 Independent Variable Scales	39
3.4 Ethical Considerations	45
4.0 Results	46
4.1 Pearson's Bivariate Correlation Analysis	46
4.2 Multiple Hierarchical Regression	55
	III

4.2.1 Individual Level	56
4.2.2 Organisational Level	56
5.0 Discussion	60
5.1 Home Office	61
5.2 Worker’s Experience with Digital Communication (WEDC)	61
5.3 Independent Variables	61
5.3.1 Transformational Leadership	62
5.3.2 Autonomy	63
5.3.3 Predictability	64
5.3.4 Organisational Climate	66
5.3.5 Social Support	67
5.3.6 Age Discrimination	68
5.3.7 Burnout	69
5.3.8 Gender	71
5.3.9 Working Hours	72
5.3.10 Age	73
5.4 Limitations of the Study	74
5.5 Implications for Further Research	75
5.6 Practical Implications for Norwegian Working Life	76
6.0 Conclusion	78
7.0 List of References	80
Appendix 1: Questionnaire	106
Appendix 2: Reliability and Factor Analysis	112
Transformational leadership	112
Autonomy 1: Control of work pacing	114
Autonomy 2: Control of decisions	115
Predictability 1: Predictability of next two years	116
Predictability 2: Preference for challenge	117
Organisational Climate	118
Social Support	120
Burnout 1: Exhaustion	122
Burnout 2: Mental distance	123

Burnout 3: Emotional impairment	124
Burnout 4: Cognitive impairment	125
Appendix 3: Multiple Hierarchical Regression	126
Appendix 4: Distribution of the Home Office Variable	127

List of Figures

Figure 1 <i>Overview of Thesis Structure</i>	2
Figure 2 <i>Overview of the Dependent Variable WEDC and the Independent Variables</i>	4
Figure 3 <i>Overview of the Dependent Variable Home Office and the Independent Variables</i>	4
Figure 4 <i>Overview of the Dependent Variable Home Office and the Independent Variables with Correlations Coefficients</i>	50
Figure 5 <i>Overview of the Dependent Variable WEDC and the Independent Variables in the Multiple Hierarchical Regression Stage 2</i>	57

List of Tables

Table 1 <i>Mean/Median, Standard Deviation, Skewness, Minimum and Maximum</i>	47
Table 2 <i>Pearson Bivariate Correlation Analysis</i>	54
Table 3 <i>Effects of the Independent Variables on the Dependent Variable WEDC in a Multiple Hierarchical Regression (N=1420)</i>	56
Table 4 <i>Overview of the Hypotheses</i>	58
Table 5 <i>Overview of the Research Questions</i>	59

1.0 Introduction

The first chapter of this thesis will present the background of study, the thesis structure, the author's inspiration behind the chosen topic, and the problem statement.

1.1 Background of Study

The variables included in this thesis are divided into organisational, team, and individual levels. The organisational variables consist of transformational leadership, autonomy, and predictability. The team variables contain organisational climate, social support, and age discrimination. The individual variables comprise burnout, gender, working hours, and age.

1.2 Thesis Structure

The thesis consists of six chapters. An overview and short explanation of each chapter is presented, and summarised in Figure 1 below:

Chapter 1: *Introduction* presents the thesis' research topic, and includes background of study, inspiration behind the choice of topic, and problem statement.

Chapter 2: *Theory* contains the theoretical foundation and conceptual clarification of the thesis, while also including a review of relevant previous studies.

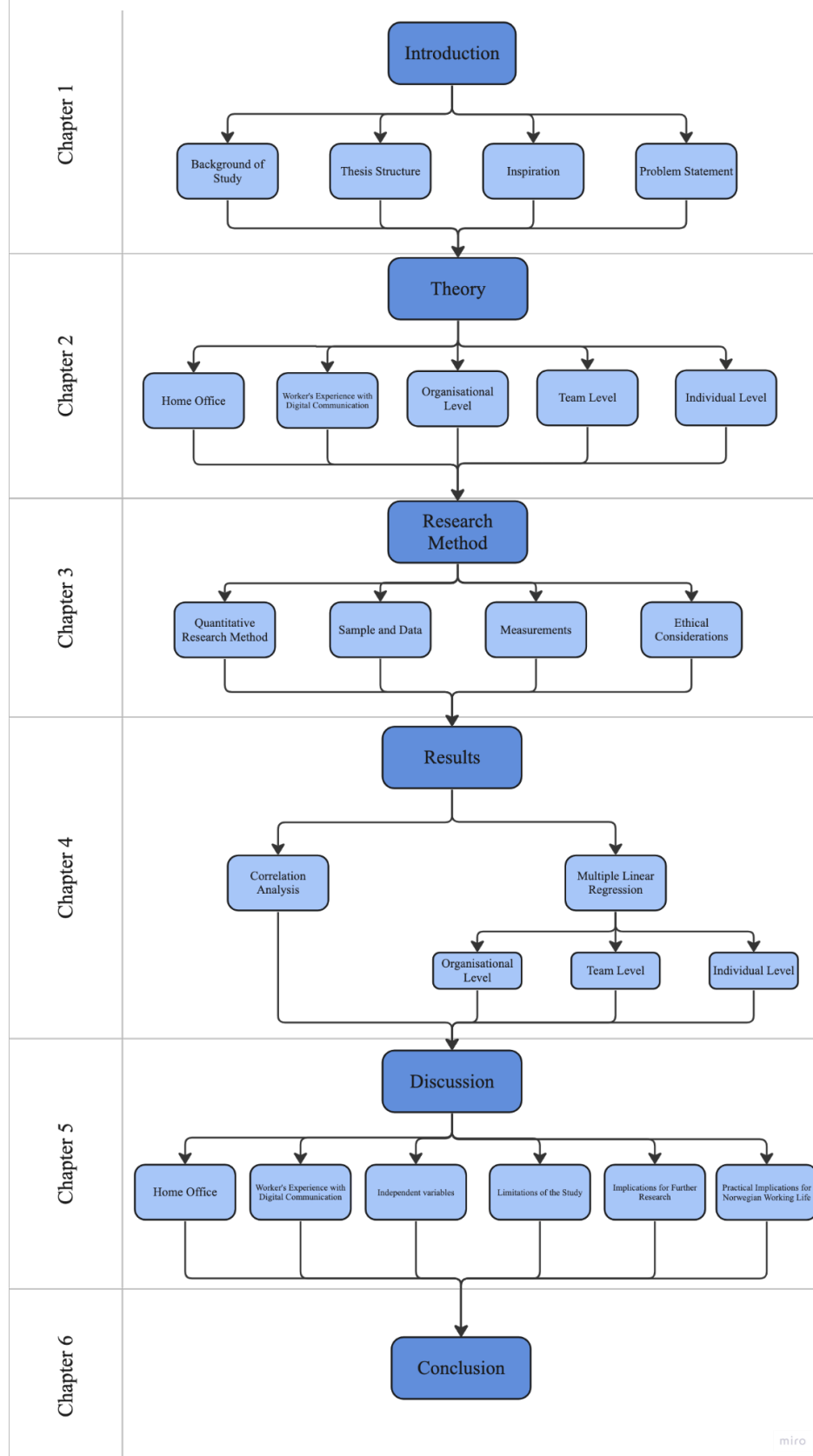
Chapter 3: *Research Method* explains the methodology that has been followed, and provides a justification of the data collection in the thesis.

Chapter 4: *Results* covers the findings from Pearson's bivariate correlation analysis and the multiple hierarchical regression analysis. The hypotheses and research questions formulated in Chapter 3 will either be confirmed, partially confirmed or rejected, or have a positive, negative or no relationship to the dependent variables.

Chapter 5: *Discussion* examines our findings in the context of our theoretical framework. Also, this chapter will present the limitations of the thesis as well as implications for further research. Lastly, practical implications for Norwegian working life will be provided.

Chapter 6: *Conclusion* summarises the results and findings of the thesis.

Figure 1
Overview of Thesis Structure



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1.3 Inspiration

Remote working and the use of digital communication tools became a crucial part of worker's everyday life as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic, thus revolutionising the way people practise work. These issues have gained increased attention, and there are various opinions related to how the extended use of home office and digital communication has affected people's lives. While some appreciate the benefits of telework such as the reduction in commuting and increased flexibility and productivity, others experience social isolation and blurring of boundaries as some of the greatest disadvantages (Mann & Holdsworth, 2003). The authors have, based on the reasons mentioned above, found motivation to investigate how the increased use of home office and digital communication has affected various variables.

1.4 Problem Statement

In order to understand more about the variables included in this thesis, and be able to connect them to pertinent theories that further serve to establish a need for further research, it is necessary to develop research problem statements that address the topics. This thesis has developed four research problem statements to clarify the relationships between variables at the organisational, team, and individual levels as conditions for home office and WEDC:

1. How does the use of home office and WEDC relate to one another?
2. To what extent do the organisational dimensions (transformational leadership, autonomy, predictability), the team dimensions (organisational climate, social support, age discrimination), and the individual dimensions (burnout, working hours, gender, age) relate to the use of home office?
3. To what extent do the organisational dimensions (transformational leadership, autonomy, predictability), the team dimensions (organisational climate, social support, age discrimination), and the individual dimensions (burnout, working hours, gender, age) predict WEDC?
4. To what extent are the patterns of relationships similar for home office and WEDC when predicting from the organisational dimensions (transformational leadership, autonomy, predictability), the team dimensions (organisational climate, social support,

age discrimination), and the individual dimensions (burnout, working hours, gender, age)?

An overview of the independent and dependent variables is presented in Figure 2 and 3 below.

Figure 2

Overview of the Dependent Variable WEDC and the Independent Variables

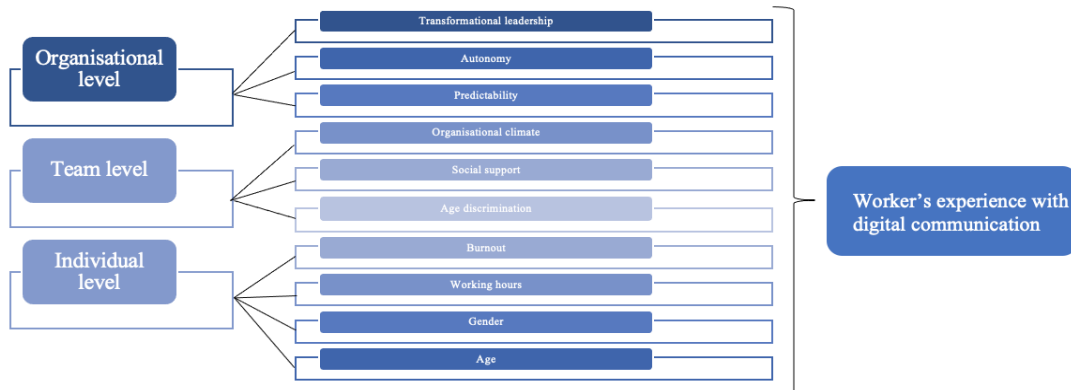
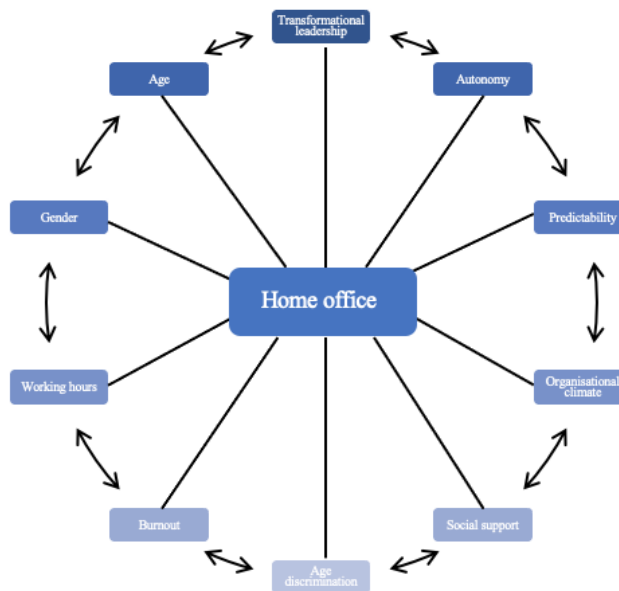


Figure 3

Overview of the Dependent Variable Home Office and the Independent Variables



2.0 Theory

The theoretical basis will give an overview of the dependent variables, home office and WEDC, and factors with features that explain what function the organisational, team and individual variables have as antecedents and characteristics to the dependent variables.

2.1 Home Office

As a result of the Covid-19 pandemic that affected Norway at the beginning of 2020, workers were encouraged to work from home to reduce the risk of infection (Schur et al., 2020), even in positions one previously assumed had to be performed on-site (Savić, 2020; Sytch & Greer, 2020). Being able to work remotely depends on whether the physical presence of a worker is required in order to execute a task, interact with others, or use specific machinery or equipment at a particular location (Lund et al., 2020). Although remote working, also known as teleworking, was not a new phenomenon prior to the pandemic, the extended use of home offices during that time was uncommon, and practised on a much smaller scale (Deloitte, 2020). Remote working and teleworking are utilised interchangeably throughout this thesis, and refers to The International Labour Office's (ILO) definition of these terms. ILO (2020) defines the term teleworking as "*the use of information and communications technologies (ICTs), such as smartphones, tablets, laptops, and desktop computers, for work that is performed outside the employer's premises*" (p. 1). A survey conducted by Norstat in 2020 revealed that approximately 80% of Norwegian workers had their work situation significantly affected by the pandemic, where remote work and home offices were the most common (Nergaard, 2020). Furthermore, a study carried out in 2020, asked Norwegian employees whether the Covid-19 measures led the respondents to work from home. 76% of the participants claimed that they worked from home significantly more than they did before the Covid-19 pandemic, while 16% claimed that they worked from home somewhat more than before (Grødem, 2020).

The implementation of home offices generated both positive and negative effects. While some leaders experienced increased productivity as a result of their employees working from home, others feared that it could create problems with the working environment (Ingelsrud et al., 2022). Typically, daily routine tasks and assignments that require a greater amount of concentration are considered well-suitable for remote work, and contribute to increased productivity. This may be explained by employees having the chance to work more undisturbed at home, compared to an open office environment. In fact, research shows that employees who

work in an open office environment are more eager to work from home than employees with their own office (Ingelsrud et al., 2022). A Norwegian study from 2023 also found that employees who had the possibility to work from home had significantly lower odds of sickness absence than employees that did not (Borge et al., 2023).

However, working from home may make it challenging to ensure a satisfactory working environment. Long-term use of home offices reduces the informal interaction between colleagues, such as coffee- and lunch breaks. The lack of these social meeting points may lead to loneliness and isolation, which over time may result in anxiety and depression (Nielsen, 2021). A study by Bollestad et al. (2022) found a positive relation between remote work and loneliness. This might be explained by increased difficulty in maintaining interpersonal relationships digitally when the physical contact and informal relationships with colleagues are not present (Carillo et al., 2021).

The positive and negative effects of remote working are also applicable internationally. A report from OECD studied how home offices during and after the pandemic affected productivity and welfare among 25 countries. The report revealed that over 60% of leaders experienced their employees being more productive when working from home. Additionally, 70% of leaders claimed that their employees learned less when working from home, and 60% believed the working environment became less creative and innovative. Meanwhile, 80% of the workers believed it was easier to combine work and family, while 80% considered the lack of social interaction and difficulties with separating between work and home as the most significant negative effects of working from home (Ingelsrud et al., 2022). A Finnish study from 2023 found that an increase in remote working was associated with improved well-being in regard to increased work engagement and decreased burnout and job boredom (Kaltainen & Hakanen, 2023). Furthermore, a study with Chinese employees explored the challenges experienced by remote workers during the pandemic. They identified four key challenges related to remote work, namely work-home interference, ineffective communication, procrastination, and loneliness (Wang et al., 2021).

2.2 Worker's Experience with Digital Communication (WEDC)

One of the major trends that will transform society and businesses in the short and long run is digitization (Parviainen et al., 2017). Digitization is an active goal in Norway and has changed

our society, the way we live, work, and operate (NHO, 2020). Several researchers have drawn parallels between the impact of digitization and the industrial revolution (Degryse, 2016; Parviainen et al., 2017; Schwab, 2015; The Economist, 2012; Tihinen et al., 2016). The phenomenon of digitization refers to "*an action or process where you convert analogue data into digital form*" (Parviainen et al., 2017, p. 64), but is also known as the ability to turn existing products or services into digital variants, thus offering benefits rather than tangible products (Gassmann et al., 2014; Henriette et al., 2015).

New technology contributes to increased productivity and new opportunities for growth. New markets are emerging, industries are being combined, and digital tools are transforming work processes and the way organisations communicate (NHO, 2020). Identifying the opportunities that digitization will present, without necessarily observing big changes in market demand, is also important for a significant portion of the business sector. Early technology adoption by businesses and industries may provide them with a competitive edge (NHO, 2020). The full potential of digitization has yet to be realised in a number of important ways. While there are many benefits associated with digitization, there have been identified several challenges that organisations face as they attempt to adapt to the evolving digital economy. One of these major challenges is that company's employees, customers, products, services, value creation processes, and business models do not fully understand how digitization will affect them (NHO, 2020). Reluctance to change is one of many things that can be the driving force behind this. Regardless of how carefully thought out a change is, there will always be individuals who oppose it. Although there is some natural resistance to change, there are also unhealthy responses that are only unfavourable and ineffective (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019).

Digital media is already commonplace in highly industrialised countries because of the Internet, smartphones, and broadband connectivity. The welfare state of Norway has systematically invested in digitising services and digital solutions to solve societal challenges. Both in public debate and private conversations, however, ambivalence is expressed about being constantly connected (Syvertsen et al., 2019). Digital services make life easier at work and more enjoyable at home, nevertheless they also require a large amount of attention and may be seen as intrusive (Das & Ytre-Arne, 2018 referred to in Syvertsen et al., 2019). Norway has become one of the most connected countries in the world, and many individuals use mobile technology as a natural work tool. As the technology is used in a work context, this involves simultaneous discussions about physical, psychological, and digital disconnection and

connection at work. These trends were highlighted by the lockdown of society during the Covid-19 pandemic in March 2020, when a sizable portion of the population received a fully digital working day at home.

Previous communication channels which served as the foundation for many previous studies, can not be compared to the digital platforms used today for communication, cooperation, and meetings (Raghuram et al., 2019). Due to their distributed nature, interdependence with institutions, markets, and technologies, and the variety of conceptualizations of digital platforms that exist, digital platforms present a challenging research object (De Reuver et al., 2018). Digital platforms are entirely technological artefacts that consist of a platform and an ecosystem of third-party modules that extend the platform's extensible code base (Boudreau, 2012; De Reuver et al., 2018; Tiwana et al., 2010). However, a digital platform has also been characterised as a socio-technical collection that consists of the technical components of software and hardware as well as their related organisational procedures and standards (Tilson et al., 2012). A digital platform thus contains various modules that extend the functionality of the software product (Baldwin & Clark, 2000 referred to in De Reuver et al., 2018; Sanchez & Mahoney, 1996). These modules can be seen as "*add-on software subsystems*" (Tiwana & Konsynski, 2010, p. 676), often in the form of applications designed and developed by third-party developers. Ghazawneh and Henfridsson (2013) define such applications as "*executable pieces of software that are offered as applications, services or systems to end-users of the platform*" (p. 175).

Today, a large percentage of Norwegians utilise computers for work, and the country has a high broadband penetration rate. It is possible to bring work everywhere, due to the smartphones and laptops that connect to the office's servers (Ingelsrud et al., 2022). When Norway closed in March 2020, the employees in the study conducted by Magma in 2021 had access to a variety of digital platforms when many were forced to leave their workplaces to continue working from home (Knudsen et al., 2021). The findings of this study show that digital platforms promote employee communication and collaboration well. However, without agreed-upon standards regarding how each system should be used, and for what purposes, users may become confused and frustrated. For example, studies show that both Microsoft Teams, Zoom, and Skype can be used for digital meetings, while e-mail, the chat function in Teams and Skype as well as SMS are very widely used for asynchronous communication. Teams was also used to a certain extent for file sharing. In Magma's study, there were some informants who stated

that they also used the tools Slack and Yammer to communicate with their colleagues (Knudsen et al., 2021).

In a Norwegian study from 2020, the statement "The digital communication tools I have used are easy to use" is the one that the majority of respondents completely agreed with (Grødem, 2020). A total of 49% of respondents claim to fully agree with this, while 39% claim to slightly agree. The statement, "I want to replace face-to-face meetings with digital meetings as often as feasible, even after the Covid-19 measures have stopped," is one that the majority of individuals either completely or partially disagree with in this report. 13% of those surveyed absolutely disagree with this, while 29% only partially do. These findings essentially indicate that the respondents in Grødem's study still view face-to-face communication as the best form of communication, and perceive digital communication tools as easy to use. The respondents miss being able to communicate with their colleagues outside of the screen, and they do not want to continue with this screen-based way of collaborating when everyday life returns to normal. The results also show that many of the respondents think that digital communication is a bit tiring, with almost half of the sample saying they fully or partially agree that they get more tired from communicating in digital meetings (Grødem, 2020).

Many Norwegian businesses operated satisfactorily during the Covid-19 pandemic, partly due to digital platforms such as Teams, Zoom, and Skype. Even though many employees had little to no experience with online meetings, these systems were quickly implemented without systematic training to allow employees to communicate in real-time. Many people view digital meetings as an efficient type of meeting where one may participate without being forced to travel, while also increasing the effectiveness of the meeting itself. The chat function and the symbol gallery can both make meeting conversations more dynamic and energetic, even if the computer screen is a "narrower" information channel than the actual meeting room in the office (Knudsen et al., 2021). Digital meetings do, however, present several challenges. Some challenges include mastering the technology, refraining from talking into each other's mouths, and avoiding doing other things while the digital meetings are taking place (Grødem, 2020; Knudsen et al., 2021).

2.3 Independent Variables

This section will discuss several variables that have been selected from the National Survey of Norwegian working life from September 2021. The scale of each of these variables will be further described in the research method chapter. This thesis will analyse to what extent the variables on an organisational, team, and individual level, will predict home office and WEDC. However, it is important to notice that the data is collected by individuals, and the differentiation into three levels are based on theoretical assumptions.

2.3.1 Organisational Level

This section will, on an organisational level, focus on several variables that are essential to study in connection with home office and WEDC: transformational leadership, autonomy, and predictability.

Transformational Leadership

Leadership is not just the province of those at the top, despite the frequent mention of both notable leadership successes and failures among top-tier and national politicians, statesmen, CEOs in business, or generals and admirals (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Any level of leadership can be exercised by anyone. The core of the transformational leadership paradigm is about the importance of leaders developing leadership in those under them. In addition to being generally applicable to a variety of areas of life, including work, family, sports, and classrooms, the principles developed from this theory are also vital to effective leadership and issues of social change (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

The changes after the Cold War within the market and workforce drove the leader to be more transformative and less transactional, on the assumption that organisations wanted to stay effective. During this period, leaders were urged to strengthen their subordinates by developing them into individuals and teams with high engagement, focusing on quality, service, cost-efficiency, and production quantity (Bass, 1999). The theory of transformational leadership, according to Bono and Ilies (2006), «*underlines the emotional, inspirational and symbolic aspects with leadership impact*» (p. 319), which is the definition that will be used in this thesis. Over time, leaders may vary how much they practise transformational leadership. For a leader to release its full potential of transformational leadership, it is important to understand both the

underlying reasons and the strengthening mechanisms for the fluctuations in transformational leadership (Morf & Bakker, 2022).

Since most organisations today are forced to constantly adapt due to complex and unstable environments, leaders play a key role in securing this adaptation (Morf & Bakker, 2022; Walter, 2021). In addition to handling short-term dynamics and complexity in their own work (Hambrick et al., 2005; Korzynski, 2021; Morf & Bakker, 2022), leaders are also expected to make possible changes in the organisation. This can be done through briefing and advancing identification with changing goals to their subordinates, and help their employees in the transition to new roles (Worley & Lawer, 2010). The employees in a workplace expect a leader to inspire with an attractive vision to motivate the employees to go the extra mile, function as a role model, and stimulate the creativity and personal growth of their followers. At the same time, challenging work has become even more important for the subordinate's job satisfaction (Bass, 1999). All these behaviours refer to transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994 referred to in Bass, 1999), which is helping advancing autonomy, positive energy, and authentic expression in the workplace (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Bono & Ilies, 2006; Morf & Bakker, 2022). However, the work or the leader is not always as motivating and energising as it could have been (Li et al., 2018), and can decrease the leader's ability to engage in transformational leadership. Fluctuation in the leader's positive work experience can therefore limit their ability to lead in transformational methods, and stand in the way of their followers and the achievements of the organisation (Morf & Bakker, 2022).

Prior research has attempted to identify who has the most potential to demonstrate transformational leadership, and to inform the choice of leaders and the training procedures. Morf and Bakker (2022) question what is needed for leaders to release their transformational leadership potential when they are chosen for their job. Traditionally, the research on transformational leadership has had a statistical- and person-oriented view, focusing on personal abilities and demographics (Bono & Judge, 2004; Dóci & Hofmans, 2015; Eagly et al., 2003; Jordan & Lindebaum, 2015; Morf & Bakker, 2022). A large part of the variation in transformational leadership can, however, not be explained through differences between individuals (Bono & Judge, 2004). Even though research on internal variations in leadership do appear, a majority of studies have focused on how internal variation in leadership predicts the employees' results (Kelemen et al., 2020). Except from studies that have connected internal variations in leadership to variations in sleep quality and depletion of ego (Barnes et al., 2015),

work activities (Nielsen & Cleal, 2011), and email demands (Rosen et al., 2019), it is less known in the literature why and when leaders vary in leadership behaviours (Morf & Bakker, 2022). While it seems simple that leaders who are motivated and full of energy have a bigger chance of taking the lead proactively instead of staying passive, the knowledge of what motivates a leader to lead its motivation and energy towards a specific leadership behaviour is limited (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2020; Morf & Bakker, 2022). Morf and Bakker's (2022) findings seem to indicate that when leaders are exposed to motivational work characteristics, such as task significance, competence variation and collaboration, they feel more able to act, and show more transformational leadership. They also found that the leaders themselves must be inspired by work to be able to be inspiring for their employees.

Transformational leadership can be a factor that contributes to the employees' performance in the workplace, and through this leadership style, a leader can motivate, guide and direct their subordinates (Avolio & Bass, 2001; Piedade, 2021) to strengthen the organisation's achievements (García-Morales et al., 2008; Piedade, 2021). The employees' achievements are also affected by other factors, such as work time, stress, motivation, individual abilities, competence, and organisational support (Piedade, 2021). Several previous studies have indicated that transformational leadership has a positive and significant impact on the employees' achievements (Andreani et al., 2016; Pawirosumarto et al., 2017). At the same time there are empirical studies that indicate that transformational leadership does not have a significant impact on the employees' performance (Brown & Arendt, 2011; Jiang et al., 2017; Piedade, 2021).

The leadership practice in a number of organisations changed when the Covid-19 pandemic occurred. The pandemic underlined the importance of leadership style to achieve organisational results. The employees' performance is one of the factors that can impact an organisation's success, and the pandemic led to a change in the administrative processes for remote work, which impacted the employees' activities and performances. A study conducted by Meiryani et al. (2022) shows that less strict supervision has affected employees' performance in a negative way. They suggest that if organisations are to continue with their remote work solution, the supervision from the leaders has to be stricter through executing revisions in the office, having frequent digital meetings, and giving hard sanctions to the employees that break the rules. This can lead the employees' performance ability to increase, which will help affect the organisational results in a positive way.

A large number of organisations had to change their communication patterns during the pandemic. This led to leaders being expected to master new, different digital communication channels. Research shows that organisations that facilitate good balance between work and leisure through remote work lead the way for the workforce to become more productive because the employees feel more motivated (Stevens, 2019). Remote work also gives employees more flexibility, more time available from not commuting, and access to more outstanding talents worldwide, which are all factors that led to increasing the average person's performance in the workplace (Graves & Karabayeva, 2020; Meiryani et al., 2022).

To analyse the independent variable transformational leadership, this thesis used a scale by Careless et al. (2000). Based on the theory above, the following hypotheses were formed:

Hypothesis 1A: *Transformational leadership is positively related to the frequency of home office use.*

Hypothesis 1B: *Transformational leadership is positively related to WEDC.*

Autonomy

Autonomy represents the control an individual has over its own immediate scheduling and tasks (Spector, 1998 referred to in Liu et al., 2005). Furthermore, Breugh (1985) describes it as “*the degree of control or discretion a worker is able to exercise with respect to work methods, work scheduling, and work criteria*” (p. 556), which is the definition that will be applied to this thesis. There exists a wide consensus in the current literature on the importance of job autonomy. Through their job characteristics model, Hackman and Oldham (1974) identified five job characteristics that affect personal and work-related outcomes. These dimensions include autonomy, feedback, skill variety, task identity, and task significance (Ali et al., 2014). Job autonomy is recognized as one of the most important features of work design, which can influence work satisfaction, work motivation, work performance, absenteeism, and turnover (Parker & Wall, 1998).

Both Gellatly and Irving (2000), and Langfred and Moyer (2004) found positive effects on job autonomy on work performance. A possible explanation for this is that workers with a high degree of job autonomy experience a higher degree of trust, resulting in greater motivation and

effectiveness in their work performance. Previous research has concluded that job autonomy leads to job satisfaction (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006; Nguyen et al., 2003). The presence of job satisfaction may result in several positive outcomes for workers and organisations alike, such as greater mental health and lower levels of burnout (Breugh, 1985; Moreau & Mageau, 2012). On the other hand, lack of job satisfaction can have severe consequences for both parties. Poor job satisfaction can result in higher turnover rates (Lambert et al., 2001), which can pose a high cost for organisations (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008).

During the lockdown of Norway in 2020 and 2021, a great number of workers had to rapidly readjust and turn their homes into a workplace, although they had little to no prior experience with working from home. Workers gained new and useful experiences about how remote working could influence autonomy, during this period. The increased flexibility and efficiency remote working offered proved to also have a limiting effect on the worker's autonomy (Ingelrus et al., 2022). Working from home requires self-discipline and self-control as the employees are in charge of their own working hours. Constantly having access to the office at home through new technology and smartphones, can make this challenging. Even though information and communications technologies have revolutionised everyday work and life, paid work becomes increasingly intrusive into the time and space normally reserved for personal life through remote working (Messenger & Gschwind, 2016). These findings were supported by Egeland et al. (2022a) who found that the divide between work and leisure can become unclear when working from home, resulting in many workers working longer days than they would have done at the office.

The same study by Egeland et al. (2022a) found that the workers' perceived degree of autonomy during the pandemic increased when they were in charge of when and where they wanted to work, and this flexibility was greatly appreciated. Working from home gave the workers an opportunity to work in quiet surroundings with little to no disturbance from others, which resulted in increased work efficiency (Ingelsrud et al., 2022). Other research supports these findings by confirming that remote working enables increased autonomy in the scheduling of paid work, housework, and childcare responsibilities (Hill et al., 2003). Furthermore, Gerten et al. (2018) found evidence that use of digital information and communications technologies promote employee autonomy.

Considering the variable autonomy was measured on a scale developed by QPS-Nordic-ADW, which divided the variable into the two categories “Control of work pacing” and “Control of decisions” (Lindström et al., 2007; Pahkin et al., 2007), this thesis has decided to do the same. Due to the theory above, the following hypotheses have been developed:

Hypothesis 2A₁: *Control of work pacing is positively related to the frequency of home office use.*

Hypothesis 2A₂: *Control of decisions is positively related to the frequency of home office use.*

Hypothesis 2B₁: *Control of work pacing is positively related to WEDC.*

Hypothesis 2B₂: *Control of decisions is positively related to worker’s experience with WEDC.*

Predictability

The concept of predictability was first introduced by Albert Bandura through his social learning theory in 1977. He claimed that individuals use potential outcomes of the future to affect their current behaviour (Bandura, 1977). Job predictability may be defined as “*the possibility of developing expectancies and generates rules of the work situation*” (Lau & Knardahl, 2008, p. 174). Said definition is used as a basis for this thesis.

Since the world is constantly developing and under change, organisations and employees are forced to adapt. Company restructuring and downsizing are examples of substantial changes that may occur at a workplace. Throughout these changes, employees’ perceptions of job predictability and future employability may be adjusted, possibly affecting their mental health. This is supported by Fløvik et al. (2020) who, in their study, claim that low job predictability is affecting a growing part of the workforce and thereby impacting their mental health. Their results also demonstrate that higher predictability regarding one’s present or future job prospects is associated with a lower risk of psychological stress. In fact, symptoms of depression and anxiety have been linked to organisational changes and psychosocial conditions at work. Job security, which refers to the predictability regarding one’s future job prospects, is closely associated with these effects (Fløvik et al., 2020).

The predictability of an assignment is a crucial issue in a dynamic work environment. An assignment is considered predictable as long as the steps required to accomplish the assignment can be anticipated, problems are predictable, solutions are easily identifiable and time demands may be determined. The level of predictability in work assignments may have both positive and negative effects on stress among leaders. Low levels of predictability may result in irritation among leaders, while high levels of predictability may positively affect performance, thus reducing the negative effects on leader's health (Mohr & Wolfram, 2010).

The current literature on predictability is narrow and limited, especially in the context of home office and WEDC. To the best of our knowledge, the literature regarding these topics are non-existent. The need for further research within this area is therefore evident. However, the term predictability has been written about in other contexts. Väänänen et al. (2008) found evidence that low predictability at work was associated with an increased risk of acute myocardial infarctions. Furthermore, Lau and Knardahl (2008) found job insecurity to be an aspect of predictability at work. According to their study, job insecurity is associated with health, and especially future predictability in the labour market. Moreover, according to Miller's (1980 referred to in Mineka & Hendersen, 1985) review of the effects of notifying people of upcoming stressful situations, the utility of predictability depends on whether an individual characteristically copes by focusing on the details of the situation, or by reducing the effect of the stressors by selectively paying attention to distracting information.

Considering the variable predictability was measured on a scale developed during the construction of QPS-Nordic-ADW, which divided the variable into two categories called "Predictability of next two years", and "Preference for challenge" (Lindström et al., 2007; Pahkin et al., 2007), this thesis has decided to do the same. As there is no basis for creating any hypothesis related to the relationship between predictability and the two dependent variables, the following research questions have been developed instead:

Research question 1A₁: *What is the relationship between predictability of next two years and the frequency of home office use?*

Research question 1A₂: *What is the relationship between preference for challenge and the frequency of home office use?*

Research question 1B₁: *What is the relationship between predictability of next two years and WEDC?*

Research question 1B₂: *What is the relationship between preference for challenge and WEDC?*

2.3.2 Team Level

Organisational climate, social support and age discrimination are three important variables to study in relation to home office and WEDC on a team level. This section will present the aforementioned variables.

Organisational Climate

Organisational climate and organisational culture are two terms that both apply to a worker's working conditions, and more particularly, to how a worker perceives, interprets, and characterises how they feel at work (Schneider et al., 2011). The concepts originally came from various academic research traditions. The organisational climate has roots in psychological traditions, where the primary focus is on cognitive processes, whereas organisational culture has roots in sociological and social anthropological research that instead emphasises the collectivist aspects of an organisation (Schneider et al., 2013). Schneider et al. (2011) defines organisational climate as “*employees' shared perceptions and interpretations of the purpose of policies, procedures, and expectations, as well as the conduct that they observe being rewarded, supported, and anticipated [...]*” (p. 362; see also Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009; Ostroff et al., 2003; Schneider & Reichers, 1983), and is the definition that will be used in this thesis. Organisational culture, on the other hand, is characterised by shared fundamental expectations, values, and beliefs that are imparted to new employees as the correct way to think and feel, that define a particular "setting", and that has enabled the organisation to adapt and become what it is today (Schneider et al. 2013).

Despite the fact that the extent to which the concepts actually have overlapping characteristics is highly debated in the literature (Beus et al., 2020; Kuenzi, 2008), it is nevertheless the case that they overlap with each other and have clear similarities (Hartnell et al., 2011). Both organisational climate and organisational culture relate to how an individual understands their work environment, and how these take shape through social interaction (Kuenzi & Schminke,

2009; Schneider et al., 2013). Put against each other, organisational climate can be considered as an organisation's more obvious characteristics, based on a worker's attitudes, which are easy to change as the individuals encounter new situations and acquire new information (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). On the other hand, organisational culture can be considered as an organisation's core characteristics, which are considered to be relatively permanent. Since this is often more historically rooted in an organisation, it can often be more challenging to change (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Denison & Mishra, 1995). This thesis will therefore focus on organisational climate, which was measured on a scale developed by QPS-Nordic-ADW (Lindström et al., 2007; Pahkin et al., 2007).

One of the most crucial aspects of becoming successful as an organisation is a good organisational climate, which includes internal and external factors that affect employees' behaviour and attitudes toward their work and the organisation (Pradoto et al., 2022). The organisational climate will therefore act as an effective instrument for the organisation to use in achieving its objectives (Boateng et al., 2014). The level of satisfaction and productivity of the workforce is also influenced by workplace culture (Pradoto et al., 2022). Several studies have examined the connection between workplace culture and employees' willingness to stay with an organisation (Ahmad et al., 2018; Pradoto et al., 2022, Vong et al., 2018). The findings show that the organisational climate has a favourable impact on productivity, and that stressed employees, who work in organisations with a poor workplace environment, are considerably less likely to want to continue in the organisation. Considering these data come from numerous businesses, the conclusions are applicable to a variety of industries (Pradoto et al., 2022).

In a literature review, Pradoto et al. (2022) found that the organisational climate is the main cause of many job problems, especially work stress, job changes, absenteeism, and job abandonment. Limited studies have examined how home offices and the use of digital tools affect the organisational climate in an organisation. As there is no basis for creating any hypothesis related to the relationship between organisational climate and home office, as well as the relationship between organisational climate and WEDC, the following research questions have been developed instead:

Research question 2A: *What is the relationship between organisational climate and the frequency of home office use?*

Research question 2B: *What is the relationship between organisational climate and WEDC?*

Social Support

Early social support studies made a distinction between the actual support provided to someone, and that person's perceptions of the potential support that could be available (Sarason et al., 1990). Later studies have demonstrated that it is the support that is perceived as being available that is more consistently related to outcome measures than the support that is actually received (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Kessler & McLeod, 1984; Sarason et al., 1990; Wethington & Kessler, 1986). Support will likely not be useful or even used if a person does not believe it is available. Furthermore, it may happen that other people's supportive behaviour is not seen as useful by the individual, or that what is offered can not meet the recipient's needs at the relevant time. The most important component of social support may be people's belief that they have other people who value and care about them, and who are willing to try to help them if they need help or other forms of support. Although the support by others will vary between individuals, such as their ability to give money or communicate love, it may not be what is most important. For some, it may be the essence of social support, and the knowledge that a person is loved, and that other people will do everything they can when a problem arises, that is most important (Sarason, et al., 1990).

People are social beings who need resources from other individuals for their psychological and social functioning (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll 2002; Jolly et al., 2021). Social support in the workplace broadly refers to interpersonal support from other people in the workplace, and is an important source of these resources. Although the definitions of social support vary widely in the literature, Jolly et al. (2021) define it as "*psychological or material resources provided to a central individual by partners in some form of social relationship*" (p. 229). This is the definition that will be used in this thesis. Social support can have a variety of beneficial effects on both individuals and organisations (Holland et al., 2017; Jolly et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2016). It can also influence how individuals perceive their stress levels, and act as a buffer against the negative effects of stressful demands (Jolly et al., 2021; Viswesvaran et al., 1999).

Although many researchers have contributed to a large and rapidly growing literature, and at the same time recognized the importance of social support in the workplace (Chiaburu &

Harrison, 2008; French et al., 2018; Halbesleben, 2006; Viswesvaran et al., 1999), there are some limitations in the literature. Some of these limitations deal with a lack of agreement and clarity in the definition of social support, as well as widespread mismatches between the conceptualization and operationalization of social support in the studies (Jolly et al., 2021).

According to Sarason et al. (1990), social support has three different influential views; “*social support in the form of interpersonal attachment, the role of disaggregated elements of social support, and the individual's sense of being supported*” (p. 135). Despite the importance of each of these perspectives on social support, this thesis will primarily focus on the latter perspective of the individual's feeling of being supported.

Social support is one of the most popular constructs within organisational- and psychological research (French et al., 2018; Jolly et al., 2021), and there has been conducted research related to this concept for a long time. However, to the best of our knowledge, there is little research related to the link between social support and the use of home office, as well as the link between social support and digital communication. This variable was measured on a scale developed by QPS-Nordic-ADW (Lindström et al., 2007; Pahkin et al., 2007). As there is no basis for creating any hypothesis related to the relationship between these variables the following research questions have been developed instead:

Research question 3A: *What is the relationship between social support and the frequency of home office use?*

Research question 3B: *What is the relationship between social support and WEDC?*

Age discrimination

One of the first things people observe about other individuals is their age. Ageism refers to attitudes that are defined by stereotypical, fixed perceptions of ageing and older people as well as by prejudice and predetermined thoughts (Wyller, 2018). These attitudes can categorise and divide people in ways that cause pain, unfairness, or disadvantage, and they can also serve as a catalyst for age discrimination against the victims (WHO, 2021). Age discrimination refers to differential treatment based on age (Wyller, 2018).

Research from the World Health Organization (WHO) shows that ageism is more accepted than both sexism and racism (Aalborg, 2023). Thus, prejudices against the elderly are more commonly tolerated in society than prejudices against people of a particular gender or skin tone. The fear of ageing and the fear of death may be contributing factors to why this is the case (Aalborg, 2023). These perceptions show that attitudes concerning seniors in working life, and older people in general, are still present today.

There are several studies that examine the relationship between age and productivity at work, and work performance in relation to older workers. Several researchers have gone through a large number of studies that have used different methods to measure work performance (Czaja, 2001; McDaniel et al., 2012; Ng & Feldman, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Ng & Feldman, 2012; Ng & Feldman, 2013a; Ng & Feldman, 2013b; Rietzschel & Zacher, 2015; Skirbekk, 2000; Solem, 2017; Sturman, 2003; Warr, 1994), and the results show that, on average, there is either no or a weak correlation between age and work performance. The relationship between age and productivity differs with the type of work, and the variety between older and younger workers at work is linked to age-related changes in physical strength, reaction time, and experience (Solem, 2017; Warr, 1994). The potential for effective work performance is not diminished by age of itself. However, it can be challenging for companies to make the best possible use of the increasingly elderly workforce (Solem, 2017). Both Norwegian and international research indicates that older individuals can be a valuable resource in the workplace, but stereotypes about their diminished productivity and work abilities might inadvertently limit older people's accomplishments and involvement in the workforce (Solem, 2017).

There are a number of publications that address stereotypes and prejudices towards elderly workers (Harris et al., 2018; Herlofson et al., 2020; Ng & Feldman, 2012). Harris et al. (2018) have, after reviewing 43 previous studies that shed light on the effects of ageism on the possibilities for occupational activity in older years, concluded that there are several perceptions about older people in working life. These perceptions consist of more negative stereotypes and perceptions than positive ones. Common misconceptions portray older workers as individuals who are inflexible, ineffective, and lacking in the requisite technological abilities (Mykletun, 2023). Research shows that even though older workers have many strengths in a working environment, managers and colleagues have negative attitudes towards older workers in relation to adaptability, flexibility, and willingness to change. The previous studies also show

that older workers are stereotyped as less competent, that they have reduced capacity to adopt new technology, and that they do not want to be included in training (Grødem, 2020; Harris et al., 2018; Ng & Feldman, 2012). On March 5th, 2020, a week before the lockdown in Norway, the Center for Senior Policy (SSP) conducted a survey in which it was shown that leaders saw older workers as responsible and reliable, but also less adaptive and less able to learn new abilities (Grødem, 2020; Herlofson et al., 2020). Other similar studies have also shown results that are alike (Harris et al., 2018). Given the shock that occurred a week later, when working life was forced to quickly introduce communication on digital platforms, this topic became extremely pertinent (Grødem, 2020). If these impressions are accurate, it makes sense to expect that the shift to home offices and digital communication may have encountered significant resistance from the older workforce.

A report carried out by the Institute for Social Research, commissioned by the SSP in 2020, showed that older workers master the transition to new, digital forms of work just as well as younger workers when working from home (Grødem 2020; Madshus, 2021). Some possible reasons could be the elderly's work experience, safety and competence, as well as better space and not having small children at home as possible reasons (Madshus, 2021). The same study investigated how the employees experienced the use of digital communication tools, and how the employees thought others experienced this during the lockdown of Norway (Grødem, 2020). This study, which was primarily targeted at industries where the researcher thought that the use of home offices and digital tools was common, reveals that respondents believed that older workers found the increased use of digital communication challenging. This finding contributes to the general assumption in the workplace that older workers are resistant to change, and less eager to learn new things. These findings conflict with the findings on how older workers have personally experienced the shift to home offices and increased use of digital communication tools, as the differences between age groups are generally quite small when it comes to their own experiences (Grødem, 2020).

In 2020, 8.9% of workers who had a working time agreement, also had a clause stating that they could do some of their work from home. There were likely a lot more people working from home than this during the Covid-19 pandemic. However, the agreement to carry out parts of the work from one's own home is more widespread among employees aged 40–54 and 55–75 than employees under 30 (Statistics Norway, 2021). This distribution is also reflected in Ingelsrud and Bernstrøm's study from 2021. While there may be some differences related to

different age groups and how they experience digital communication, researchers find that these differences are rather minimal (Grødem, 2020; Hauge & Solem, 2022). Grødem's study shows that older workers more often than younger workers agree that they get more tired from digital meetings than from face-to-face meetings, and that they miss contact with their colleagues face-to-face. This distribution may indicate that the older workers are less comfortable than the younger workers when it comes to digital communication. One claim that stands out in this study, where the findings go in the opposite direction of the researchers' expectations, is the statement "I find it difficult to take the floor in digital meetings than in face-to-face meetings". This is the only claim where the elderly appears to be more positive about digital meetings than the younger. Grødem speculates whether taking the floor in meetings, and whether they are digital or in the office, is a question of status, confidence, and seniority, more than experience and familiarity with digital tools (Grødem, 2020). Even though there are some differences in Grødem's study between the older and younger respondents, it is important to point out that there are more similarities than there are differences related to how digital communication tools are perceived. These results are also confirmed in a survey conducted by FAFO in April 2020 (Nergaard, 2020), and a study from SSP from January 2022 (Hauge & Solem, 2022).

This variable was measured on a scale by QPS-Nordic-ADW (Furunes & Mykletun, 2010; Pahkin et al., 2007). Based on this, and the theory above, the following hypotheses was formed:

Hypothesis 3A: *Age discrimination is negatively related to the frequency of home office use.*

Hypothesis 3B: *Age discrimination is negatively related to WEDC.*

2.3.3 Individual Level

On an individual level, this section will focus on several variables that are important to study in connection with home office and WEDC: burnout, gender, working hours, and age.

Burnout

The concept of burnout was first introduced in the 1970s to describe a state of mental exhaustion (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2014). Today, burnout is a phenomenon with various definitions. While some researchers define burnout as a discrepancy between high

requirements and inadequate resources, others describe it as being involved in an emotionally challenging situation (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). Maslach et al. (1997) stand behind one of the most common academic definitions among the vast research literature on burnout. They define burnout as “*a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with other people in some capacity*” (p. 192). Emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and reduced personal accomplishment are three dimensions of burnout which are interrelated (Leiter & Maslach, 2016). Emotional exhaustion is caused by the draining of emotional resources due to stress factors such as interpersonal conflicts, emotional demands, and work overload. As a result, workers develop cynical and negative attitudes toward the recipients of their services through depersonalisation. This can result in a feeling of lack of personal accomplishment, which is the tendency to evaluate one’s work with recipients negatively (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2014).

Despite its wide acceptance, several flaws have been identified with this definition, and doubts have been raised as to whether this is the best approach to assess burnout. Consequently, Schaufeli et al. (2020a) formulated an alternative and more suitable definition of burnout with four core dimensions, which will be used throughout this thesis. According to Schaufeli et al. (2020a), burnout is defined as “*a work-related state of exhaustion that occurs among employees, which is characterized by extreme tiredness, reduced ability to regulate cognitive and emotional processes, and mental distancing*” (p. 4).

The first dimension, exhaustion, refers to a major loss of energy, both physical as well as mental (Schaufeli et al., 2020a). Working from home can affect the health of employees in a both positive and negative manner (Ingelsrud et al., 2022). Some struggle with motivation, loneliness, and burnout as a direct cause of remote working, while others experience less stress and more leisure time which can result in additional time for sleep and other chores. A report conducted by the Work Research Institute (AFI) in 2022 researched the scope, development, and consequences of the extended use of home offices and remote working. Said report discovered that the degree of burnout decreased as the frequency of home office use increased. In other words, when the employees went from working at home weekly to daily, the level of burnout was reduced (Ingelsrud et al., 2022).

Research from Sing et al. (2022), found that digital work platforms caused psychological stress, such as technology exhaustion, which lowered worker's subjective wellbeing. Several studies have found negative health and welfare outcomes from being connected to work through the mobile phone, and regularly reading email outside of working hours, when working from home. Examples of some of these negative outcomes are anxiety (Becker et al., 2021; Ingelsrud et al., 2022), and exhaustion (Derks et al., 2014; Ingelsrud et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2019). The AFI report found that when employees have constant access to their work through mobile phones and emails at home, and when their working hours exceed 40 hours a week, they experience more burnout (Ingelsrud et al., 2022).

The second dimension, mental distance, refers to mental withdrawal and psychologically detaching oneself from the job (Schaufeli et al., 2020a). The existing literature regarding the relationship between home office and mental distance is limited, yet research shows that employees who are constantly available digitally want to quit their job to a greater extent than before working remotely, and are considering looking for a new job (Tang et al., 2019).

The third dimension, emotional impairment, refers to the reduced functional capacity to appropriately regulate one's emotional processes such as anger or sadness (Schaufeli et al., 2020a). A paper by Mann and Holdsworth (2003) investigated the psychological impact of teleworking compared to office-based work. Their results show teleworkers experience negative emotions such as loneliness, irritability, worry, and guilt to a larger extent than office-workers. Also, teleworkers experience significantly more mental health symptoms of stress, and somewhat more physical health symptoms than office-workers.

The fourth and final dimension, cognitive impairment, refers to the reduced functional capacity to appropriately regulate one's cognitive processes, such as attention and concentration deficits (Schaufeli et al., 2020a). A global study by Lloyd's Register Quality Assurance (LRQA) (2021) investigated employee well-being during the pandemic. 69% of the respondents in their survey claimed that they experienced higher levels of stress while working from home. This was due to increased workloads and shift in working patterns to accommodate demands (LRQA, 2021 referred to in White, 2021). Long-term stress may lead to accelerated cognitive decline, which again may increase the risk of burnout (Habibi, 2021).

Burnout is associated with negative consequences for both the individual employee and the organisation as a whole. A study by Schwab et al. (1986) found that people were more likely to develop health-related problems, such as insomnia and misuse of medications and alcohol, when suffering from burnout syndrome. Similarly, a study on the Finnish working population revealed that burnout was related to depressive and anxiety disorders, and alcohol dependence among employees (Ahola, 2007). In fact, research has proven that burnout causes poor physical health and increased sickness absence (Bakker et al., 2014). Jackson and Maslach (1982) support these findings in their work which found that workers experiencing burnout have a greater probability of being absent from work, being less productive and leaving the organisation (Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Leiter & Maslach, 1988). Furthermore, increased irritability, fatigue, decreased self-esteem, and deteriorating social and family interactions are other typical symptoms of burnout (Burke & Deszca, 1986; Zellars et al., 2000). In the same way that burnout causes severe consequences for individuals, it also causes major consequences for organisations. The most common outcomes of burnout in organisations are employee cynicism, job dissatisfaction, poor organisational commitment, and high degrees of turnover (Ghorpade et al., 2007). The negative outcomes related to burnout are expensive, and can cost between \$125 and \$190 billion a year in healthcare costs in the U.S alone (Blanding, 2015). Based on these findings, appropriate measures for diagnosing, combating, and preventing burnout in the workplace should be a priority for all organisations.

The variable burnout was measured through the Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT) on a scale developed by Schaufeli et al. (2020b). Since Schaufeli et al.'s (2020a) definition of burnout is divided into four core dimensions, and the definition used in this thesis, the hypotheses on burnout have also been divided into four dimensions. Based on the mentioned theory regarding burnout, the following hypotheses have been developed:

Hypothesis 4A₁: *Exhaustion is negatively related to the frequency of home office use.*

Hypothesis 4A₂: *Mental distance is positively related to the frequency of home office use.*

Hypothesis 4A₃: *Emotional impairment is positively related to the frequency of home office use.*

Hypothesis 4A₄: *Cognitive impairment is positively related to the frequency of home office use.*

Hypothesis 4B₁: *Exhaustion is negatively related to WEDC.*

Hypothesis 4B₂: *Mental distance is positively related to WEDC.*

Hypothesis 4B₃: *Emotional impairment is negatively related to WEDC.*

Hypothesis 4B₄: *Cognitive impairment is negatively related to WEDC.*

Gender

According to numbers from Statistics Norway in 2021, there were approximately 2.7 million employed Norwegians in the age group 15 to 74 years, where 52.8% of these were men and 47.2% were women (Statistics Norway, 2022). Although Norway is among the world leaders within gender equality (Aftenposten, 2018), the Norwegian labour market is relatively affected by a gender-segregated working life, meaning that in many occupations there is either a majority of men or women employed (Østbakken et al., 2017). Numbers from the Norwegian government reveal that only 15% of Norwegian employees work in professions which are gender-balanced, and only 12% of women work in male dominated industries (Regjeringen, 2021). Furthermore, 81.5% of the employees within the health sector are women (Østbaken et al., 2017). One of several reasons behind the gender-segregated working life in Norway lies in that many of the female-dominated occupations, such as the education and health sector, also are the largest occupational groups, while male-dominated occupations are part of smaller occupational groups. This means that in order to see changes, the number of men who have to enter female-dominated occupations is much higher than the number of females who have to enter male-dominated occupations (Reisel et al., 2019).

The Covid-19 pandemic, and the extended use of home offices, has led to clear gender differences in Norwegian households, but also in households across the world. Research shows that women took care of tasks that included planning, coordination, and administration in the home during the pandemic to a greater extent than men, which could indicate that women carry most of the burden when working from home (Egeland et al., 2022b).

Historically, the traditional gender roles have implied that women have taken care of the children to a larger extent than men. Studies show that women took greater responsibility for children and their schoolwork during the pandemic than men did, even when both parents worked from home (Nergaard, 2020). A report from ILO indicate that remote working may disadvantage women since they often simultaneously balance childcare and household chores, in addition to paid employment (ILO, 2020). These findings suggest that there exists a gender gap, resulting in an extra burden of work for women who have young children (Andrew et al., 2022). Additionally, the proportion of women who live alone with children is greater than the proportion of men (Teigen, 2022). While one may assume that working from home could make it easier to combine work and family obligations, it actually might affect women's work performance in a negative manner. To the best of our knowledge, literature regarding remote working and men has proven to be difficult to gather. Therefore, this is an area in need of further research.

Digital communication is a prerequisite for being able to work from home. The experience with digital tools is relatively similar between the two genders. Grødem (2020) studied differences in age and gender in the work life during the Covid-19 pandemic, and found that the percentage of workers who find it easy to use digital tools is the same for both genders. This percentage adds up to 90%. Both genders also agree that they miss face-to-face interactions with their colleagues. However, women are more negative, and less comfortable with digital meeting tools than men. The female participants claim that they become more tired of meetings taking place on digital platforms, and that they find it more difficult to speak up in these types of meetings rather than in face-to-face meetings (Grødem, 2020). Based on the findings above, the following hypotheses have been developed:

Hypothesis 5A: *Male workers had more frequent use of home office than female workers.*

Hypothesis 5B: *Women's experience with digital communication is worse than for men.*

Working Hours

Working hours vary greatly across the Norwegian population. In 2019, part-time workers had an average of approximately 19 working hours, while full-time workers had an average of approximately 39 working hours (NOU 2021: 2). Traditionally speaking, men are supposed to

work and function as the main provider, while women are expected to be caretakers for their kids and family. This view is reflected in research that shows that the proportion of women who work part-time is three times as large as for men (Næsheim & Villund, 2013), and that part-time work is predominantly an attribute of the female labour market (Kjeldstad & Nymoene, 2012). Working part-time will in many cases fail to provide a sufficient salary for workers to be financially independent. Considering that female-dominated occupations, such as health and social services, are characterised by part-time work to a greater extent than male-dominated occupations, this contributes to maintaining a gender-segregated labour market (Moland, 2013).

The reasons as to why individuals work part-time are often varied and complex. Part-time jobs give workers the opportunity to adjust their working hours to their own preferences, health, family situation, and current stage of life, amongst other things (NOU 2021: 2). One perspective for why workers choose to work part-time lies in especially women's desire for extra flexibility in order to handle household and child-rearing responsibilities (Nardone, 1986). This is reflected in numbers from Statistics Norway, who found that 29% of mothers who worked part-time stated that caring for children has led them to reduce their working hours (NOU 2021: 2). Another perspective is young workers and students who have school and studies as their main activity, and do not have the opportunity to work full-time. A third perspective is workers suffering from psychological or physical health problems with reduced ability to work. Getting these people into part-time jobs is important since one is able to utilise their remaining work capacity. On the other hand, part-time jobs are problematic for those individuals that are involuntary part-time workers, despite their desire to work full-time. Nevertheless, a large scope of part-time positions may have adverse effects on the quality of service and working environment in an organisation (NOU 2021: 2).

In contrast to part-time workers, there are individuals, often referred to as workaholics or overworkers, who work long hours and work beyond the limits of what is expected. Machlowitz (1980) describes workaholism as "*people who always devote more time and thoughts to their work than the situation demands...what sets workaholics apart from other workers is their attitude toward work, not the number of hours they work*" (p. 11). In fact, work is an obsession for workaholics. If they are unable to work, feelings of discomfort such as uselessness, guilt, irritation, and tension are likely to occur (Schaufeli et al., 2020b). Working excessive amounts of hours can be detrimental to a person's well-being and cause danger to their health, personal

happiness, interpersonal relations, and social functioning (Oates, 1971 referred to in Shkoler et al., 2017).

There is evidence that remote working negatively affects employees' work-life balance (Palumbo, 2020). When working remotely, workers are in charge of their own working hours. The increased flexibility and availability that remote working offers, enables people to constantly connect, and consequently may lead to exceeding normal working hours. According to a report by Ingelsrud et al. (2022), 55% of employees work from home outside ordinary working hours, 15% work long days weekly, 11% work evenings weekly, 10% have short rest periods weekly (less than 11 consecutive hours off from work during 24 hours), and 21% work on Sundays monthly. Additionally, 23% report that they work more than 40 hours a week, and 23% experience being connected to work in their leisure time through their email and mobile phone, resulting in many employees working longer days than they would have done at the office (Ingelsrud et al., 2022). Based on the literature presented above, the hypotheses for working hours are as follows:

Hypothesis 6A: *Working hours are positively related to the frequency of home office use.*

Hypothesis 6B: *Working hours are positively related to WEDC.*

Age

Throughout the literature, many researchers often use chronological age to understand differences in working life. However, this can present challenges since chronological age does not consider how people feel about their age or ageing (Weiss & Weiss, 2022). Some people feel older than their actual age would indicate, while others feel younger. Three alternatives to chronological age are presented by Weiss and Weiss (2022): "*subjective age, essentialist beliefs about aging, as well as age group vs. generation identity*" (p. 2). Since chronological age is an administrative measure in the working life, measured from the lowest working age to the retirement age, it was decided to use this standard as a predictor in this thesis.

When one chooses to include age in a study, it is important to understand the categorization of age. That is, how to categorise one's own or other people's age into different age groups. Categorising people into different age groups may help define one's own social identity, while

also creating a sense of belonging, which is fundamental to how we define and see ourselves as people (Swift et al., 2018). Researchers have categorised age and age groups in the literature using several approaches. According to Statistics Norway's labour force survey (AKU), in the second quarter of 2022, 70.5% of those aged 15 to 74 were employed (IPSOS, 2022).

Over the past 30 years, there has been an increase in research about older workers. The key findings suggest that workers can and should work longer, and that the workforce is getting older on average, and more diverse in terms of age (Mykletun, 2023). Although the term "older worker" is often used in the organisational literature, organisational practice, and society, only a small number of studies have investigated the reasons why people think someone is an older worker when they reach a certain age (Zacher & Rudolph, 2023). The concept of older workers, or ageing workers, is a fluid social construction, as there are no biological indicators of when a person becomes old. While biological ageing is a natural process that is beyond human control, ageing in the workplace and organisational context is influenced by social-psychological constructions in which workers and other organisational interests try to understand different ages and the ageing process (Zacher & Rudolph, 2023).

In contrast to earlier studies in life-span psychology, and gerontology on people's subjective perceptions of when "old age" begins, Zacher and Rudolph's study from 2023 aims to better understand the social-psychological construction of the "older worker", and identify various factors that indicate a certain "older worker age". They claim that retirement age is the most commonly mentioned justification for participants' indications of a specific "older working age" followed by age-related decline. Other reasons, such as including career stability and lack of career opportunities, experience, type of occupation, societal norms and expectations, legal reasons, relative age, time left, and intuition were mentioned, but to a much less prominent degree. Their research reveals that opinions on when one becomes "older" can vary widely, but that the "average older worker" appears to be around 55 years old (Zacher & Rudolph, 2023). In comparison, the first Scandinavian research in this field defines older workers as those who are 45 years of age or older, in contrast to American anti-discrimination laws that define ageing workers as those who are 40 years or older (Kossoris, 1948; Mykletun, 2023; Solem & Mykletun, 1997; Tuckman & Lorge, 1953). An older worker was defined as a person who is 58.4 years of age or older according to the workers in IPSOS's report from October 2020, while an older worker was defined as someone who is 56.1 years of age or older according to managers in the workforce in IPSOS's report from October the following year (IPSOS, 2021).

The current literature on age, in the context of home office and WEDC, is narrow and limited. As there is no basis for creating any hypothesis related to the relationship between age and home office, as well as the relationship between age and WEDC, the following research questions have been developed instead:

Research question 4A: *What is the relationship between age and the frequency of home office use?*

Research question 4B: *What is the relationship between age and WEDC?*

3.0 Research Method

This chapter will provide an explanation of the research methodology followed by an overview of the sample and data. Furthermore, measurements and the dependent and independent variables used in the survey will be presented. Lastly, statistical analyses, and ethical considerations will be introduced.

3.1 Quantitative Research Method

The most common research approaches are qualitative and quantitative research methods. A qualitative research method gathers and utilises non-numerical data such as words, images, and video clips. This type of research method studies the participants' thoughts and the relationship between them, and researchers must be involved in the actual experience to establish trust and gain access to these thoughts (Saunders et al., 2012). On the other hand, a quantitative research method gathers and utilises numerical data to study the relationship between variables that are analysed by using various statistical techniques (Saunders et al., 2012). The purpose of such methods is to obtain easily systematised information, and enter them into computers in a standardised form in order to analyse several units collectively. Quantitative studies are dependent on categorising and clarifying central concepts before the empirical investigation can be performed (Jacobsen, 2015). Thus, the quantitative research method is most suitable when the researcher possesses some prior knowledge of the topic of investigation, and when the problem statement is relatively clear (Jacobsen, 2015).

Quantitative research is based on positivism, and is usually associated with a deductive approach, which involves discovering if an assumption or hypothesis can be rejected or confirmed, and using data to test the theory. Nonetheless, quantitative research may also be associated with an inductive approach, where the data is used to develop a theory (Saunders et al., 2012). This thesis will apply a deductive approach by analysing the data collected to test several hypotheses.

3.1.1 Advantages and Disadvantages of a Quantitative Research Method

Quantitative research focuses on those aspects of social behaviour that can be quantified and patterned, rather than simply figuring them out and interpreting the meaning that people bring to their own actions (Rahman, 2020). This method places great emphasis on measuring something, or variables, that exist in the social world (Rahman, 2020), and the research tries to

investigate the answers to the questions that start with how many, how much, and to what degree (Rasinger, 2013).

Quantitative research is suitable for observing large groups of people, and can isolate and manipulate one or more variables to test the effect (Queirós et al., 2017). These research methods have the advantage of using a bigger sample and requiring less time to collect data (Rahman, 2020). Quantitative research methods deal with snapshots of a phenomenon, where specific variables are measured on a specific sample at a specific time. A limitation linked to this research method is that it disregards whether the study has accidentally captured a sample that examines variables that look best or look unusually disordered (Schofield, 2007). Also, this method will be unable to establish deeper underlying meanings and explanations, as well as the causes of the effect the results demonstrate, and their importance in the given context (Rahman, 2020).

Since the quantitative methodology seeks to achieve accurate and reliable measurements that allow statistical analysis, one of the most used techniques in the social sciences, and within quantitative research methods, is surveys (Queirós et al., 2017). In order to be able to cover a larger group of the population in the most efficient way possible, while also making it easy to compare the respondents' answers, each respondent will be asked to answer the same set of questions. This is a method with both advantages and disadvantages. The advantages of using surveys in one's study may be that it is easy to collect and analyse, while the generalizability and representation is often good. The disadvantage of this method is that the structure is relatively rigid (Queirós et al., 2017).

When the survey questions are to be prepared, it is important to go through the relevant literature for the answers that the researcher is looking for in the respondents. Once the questions have been prepared, it is important to discuss the various questions with family, friends, colleagues, and other people within the researcher's social circle (Saunders et al., 2019). This method was used during the creation of the survey questions in the study.

3.2 Sample and Data

In September 2021, Norstat Norway (www.norstat.no) used an electronic questionnaire created specifically for this research to collect data. 1531 respondents were randomly selected by

Norstat from their panel of 81,000 active participants, claimed to be representative of the Norwegian working population as compared to the socio-demographic structure of the working population. Respondents were made informed of the study's purpose, their ability to withdraw at any time, the fact that the data would only be used for research purposes, and that they could contact the project manager if they had any questions. They were further granted anonymity through a two-step procedure where Norstat had access to their identities for any follow-up studies, but no identifying information was to be shared with the researchers. Norstat operates and complies with Directive 95/46/EC General Data Protection Regulation, Norwegian laws for data protection, main research standards and guidelines described in ICC/ESOMAR, and the quality Management System ISO9001:2015. The Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) had no comments on the research plan. The research group was given access to an anonymized complete data set. The data was collected before the beginning of this study. An overview of the questionnaire used in this thesis is attached in Appendix 1.

3.3 Measurements

Reliability and Validity

When a researcher carries out a research project, it is desirable that the results are relevant and correct, as well as reliable. It is crucial to conduct an inquiry properly to achieve this (Jacobsen, 2015). When it comes to validity and reliability, it is important to look at features of the survey itself that have created the results the survey has arrived at. Within these terms, there is an acknowledgment that the survey plan, data collection, and analysis can affect the result. The researcher has an impact on those being studied, and the relationships that develop during the process of collecting data have an impact on the researcher as well. In addition to ensuring that the researcher is independent of the respondents, guaranteeing generalizability through probability sampling, and making sure that the questions are understandable, it is crucial to assess the validity and reliability of the data (Saunders et al., 2019).

A survey should be a method to collect empirical evidence. Regardless of the type of empirical investigation performed, it should meet two criteria. According to Jacobsen (2015), the empirical work must be both valid and relevant, and reliable and credible. The first requirement is often referred to as validity, while the second requirement is referred to as reliability. With validity and relevance, Jacobsen (2015) claims that the empirical evidence that is collected

should provide answers to the question or questions the researcher has asked, while with reliability and credibility, Jacobsen implies that the investigation must be trusted. The survey can not therefore be affected by obvious measurement errors that cause the results to be incorrect, and it must be carried out in a credible manner (Jacobsen, 2015).

According to Jacobsen (2015), validity can be divided into internal validity and external validity. Internal validity concerns whether the researcher has enough evidence (empirics) to draw the conclusions the study draws (Jacobsen, 2015). The first step for evaluation of validity is the researcher's own impression of to what extent the items and the scales actually match with the phenomenon they are intended to measure. In other words, an expert judgement (Jacobsen, 2015). This is referred to as face validity in the literature. This is a relatively intuitive, quick, and easy method to start checking whether a new measure seems useful at first glance. The researcher solicits feedback from others about the measurement strategy, the items, and their suitability to measure the researcher's target variable to evaluate face validity (Bell et al., 2019). It is often preferable to obtain many opinions on the researcher's measurements. Even though professionals have extensive knowledge of research techniques, the people being researched may provide important insights that one might otherwise overlook. There will be a good understanding of face validity in one's test if there is strong agreement between different groups of people. If the researchers' measure has good face validity, others evaluating it will state that it seems to measure what it should. However, if the measure has low face validity, evaluators may not understand what the researchers are measuring or why the researchers are using this method (Jacobsen, 2015). Although it is a crucial initial step in determining the validity of the researcher's test, face validity alone does not ensure that the researcher has strong overall validity or reliability. After confirming face validity, the researcher can consider using more intricate types of validity, like content validity or criteria validity. Another step that is important to look at in relation to the internal validity concerns whether reliable, established scales have been prepared (Jacobsen, 2015).

On the other hand, external validity and relevance, says something about the extent to which a finding can be generalised to also apply in other contexts. Some studies call this subcomponent transferability (Jacobsen, 2015). By having control variables, choosing participants randomly, and repeating the research, both internal and external validity can be improved when conducting research. This will also help to improve the generalizability of the data (Clark-Carter, 2009). For each of the chosen variables in this thesis, scales that have been previously

published and tested are used. Each of the scales utilised in this thesis has been shown to be reliable and valid. The more components a scale has, and the stronger the correlations between those components are, the more reliable the scale in a survey will be (DeVellis, 2017). This thesis will employ factor analysis to assess the scale's internal consistency, and test whether there are one or more underlying factors, in addition to measuring reliability with Cronbach's alpha. A factor analysis will provide solid evidence of the scale's validity and reliability.

3.3.1 Statistical Analyses

The collected data was examined through the application of several statistical analyses. All statistical analyses and data handling were conducted in the statistical software program SPSS Statistics version 28.0.1.1 (14). The first analysis conducted calculated the frequencies and descriptive data of both the dependent and independent variables. These calculations allowed for valuable information regarding the variables such as mean, standard deviation, median, skewness, minimum, and maximum. An overview of this is presented in Table 1.

It was also tested for reliability and validity. To check internal consistency in a set of variables, Cronbach's alpha was calculated. A low value for Cronbach's alpha indicates that the selection of variables does not measure the same thing (Churchill, 1979). The ideal value for Cronbach's alpha is 0.7 or more (Gripsrud et al., 2004), but a Cronbach's alpha of 0.8 or higher is preferable (Pallant, 2013). Further, a factor analysis was conducted, which analyses the structure of the correlations among multiple variables by identifying a set of underlying dimensions, also known as factors (Schneider, 2007). An overview of Cronach's alpha for the dependent and independent variables, and the factor analysis is shown in Appendix 2.

All dependent and independent variables were tested using Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test in the factor analysis. KMO is a test used to examine the feasibility of these items for a factor analysis. A KMO value above 0.6 is acceptable (Bernard et al., 2020). Bartlett's test is used to assess the equality of variance in different populations (Arsham & Lovric, 2011). If the p-value is less than .05, the null hypothesis is rejected. KMO and Bartlett's test were confirmed in this thesis to be within the acceptable range.

A Pearson's bivariate correlation analysis was calculated between sum-scores and the gender variable, while Spearman's correlations were used when correlations with frequencies of home

office use were analysed. Pearson's bivariate correlation analysis measures the strength of the linear relationship between two variables. This type of correlation has a value ranging from -1 to 1, where a value of -1 indicates a total negative linear correlation, a value of 0 indicates no correlation, and a value of 1 indicates a total positive correlation (Williams et al., 2020). A positive correlation between two variables suggests that if variable A increases, variable B increases as well. On the other hand, a negative correlation suggests that if variable A increases, variable B will decrease (Nettleton, 2014). An overview of Pearson's bivariate correlation analysis is illustrated in Table 2.

Lastly, a multiple hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. Regression analyses are based on correlation, but allow for a more sophisticated investigation of how the internal relationship is between a set of variables (Pallant, 2013). There are different variants of regression analyses, where Standard Multiple Regression (SMR) analysis is the most commonly used. This method is used when there is a set of variables, and one wants to know how much of the variance it is possible to explain as a group. Furthermore, the SMR analysis will explain how much unique variance there is in the dependent variable that is explained by each of the independent variables (Pallant, 2013). A multiple regression that is hierarchical implies that the regression is conducted out in stages, with increasing numbers of variables being added to each stage to distinguish between the organisational, team, and individual level. In the multiple hierarchical regression of this thesis, only the independent variables that were correlated with the dependent variables are included. This means that the following variables were included: WEDC, gender, mental distance, control of work pacing, and control of decisions. The multiple hierarchical regression is presented in Table 3.

3.3.2 Dependent Variable Scales

Dependent variables are variables whose value changes in response to the change in the value of an independent variable. In other words, dependent variables are responses to the effects of independent variables (Fan, 2010). The dependent variables included in this thesis are home office and WEDC.

Home Office

The variable home office derived from the study "*Older workers with new technology: Communication and motivation in working life during the corona measures*", and was developed by Grødem in 2020 (Grødem, 2020). The scale consists of one item with five

response alternatives each, from one to five, representing the possible answers “Much less than before”, “Less than before”, “No change”, “Somewhat more than before”, and “Much more than before”. The item included in this scale is “Have the Covid-19 restrictions led to you working from home?”.

Worker’s Experience with Digital Communication (WEDC)

The variable WEDC derived from the study “*Older workers with new technology: Communication and motivation in working life during the corona measures*” developed by Grødem in 2020 (Grødem, 2020). This scale consists of five items with five response alternatives each, from one to five, representing the possible answers “Strongly disagree”, “Somewhat disagree”, “Neither agree nor disagree”, “Somewhat agree”, and “Strongly agree”. One of the items included in this scale is “The digital communication tools I have used are easy to use”.

3.3.3 Independent Variable Scales

The independent variables included in this thesis are transformational leadership, autonomy, predictability, organisational climate, social support, age discrimination, burnout, working hours, gender, and age.

Transformational Leadership

Several different scales are used in research related to transformational leadership. Although measures of transformational leadership such as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio et al., 1995), the Conger-Kanungo Scale (Conger & Kanungo, 1994), and the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 1990) assess a variety of leadership behaviours, these scales are relatively long and therefore time-consuming to complete. In order for the questionnaire not to be too long, while at the same time reliable and valid, this thesis has chosen to use a shorter scale by Careless et al. (2000).

The aim of the study by Careless et al. (2000) was to develop a short and practical instrument for transformational leadership that could be easily administered and scored, while also being reliable and valid. The scale includes seven behaviours that encompass the concept of transformational leadership; (1) communicates a vision, (2) develops employees, (3) provides support, (4) empowers staff, (5) is innovative, (6) leads by example, and (7) is charismatic (Careless et al., 2000). The scale consists of seven items with five different response

alternatives each, ranging from one to five. The possible response alternatives were “Very seldom or never”, “Rather seldom”, “Sometimes”, “Rather often”, and “Very often or always”. One of the items included in this scale is "My immediate manager values each employee as an individual, and supports and encourages their growth". In the scale presented by Careless et al. (2000), Bagozzi and Heartherton's reliability coefficient was calculated to .93. The Cronbach's alpha in this thesis was calculated to be .884. A factor analysis was conducted to test the consistency of the sum-score. The KMO-value of .936 indicated that the questions for this sum-score were well suited for the analysis. The questions loaded on one factor, which explained 76.83% of the total variance of this sum-score. An overview of all the sum-scores for each variable is presented in Table 1.

Autonomy

The variable autonomy was measured on a scale developed by QPS-Nordic-ADW, and published in English, Finnish, Swedish, and Norwegian (Lindström et al., 2007; Pahkin et al., 2007). The questions were divided into the categories “Control of work pacing” and “Control of decisions”. Both categories consist of four items with five response options each, from one to five, representing the possible answers “Very seldom or never”, “Rather seldom”, “Sometimes”, “Rather often”, and “Very often or always”.

For the first category, control of work pacing, Lindström et al. (2007) found the mean sum score to be 2.29, with the lowest sample mean of 2.17, and the highest of 2.50. In the scale presented by QPS-Nordic-ADW, Cronbach's alpha was calculated to .81 for workers 55-years old and older (Lindström et al., 2007; Pahkin et al., 2007). One of the items included in this category is “Do you have any flexibility in setting your own working hours? (e.g. flex-time)”. The Cronbach's alpha was calculated to be .867. To evaluate the consistency of the sum-score a factor analysis was conducted. The questions for this sum-score were suitable for the analysis, as evidenced by the KMO-value of .802. The questions loaded on one factor, which explained 72.34% of the total variance of this sum-score.

For the second category, control of decisions, they found the mean sum-score to be 3.02, with the lowest sample mean of 2.99 and the highest of 3.28. In the scale presented by QPS-Nordic-ADW, Cronbach's alpha was calculated to .68 for workers 55-years old and older (Lindström et al., 2007; Pahkin et al., 2007). One of the items in this category is “Can you influence decisions that are important for your work?”. The Cronbach's alpha was calculated to be .760.

A factor analysis was conducted to test the consistency. The KMO-value of .753 indicated that the questions for this sum-score were well suited for the analysis. The questions loaded on one factor, which explained 58.38% of the total variance of this sum-score.

Predictability

Predictability was measured on a scale developed by QPS-Nordic-ADW, and published in English, Finnish, Swedish, and Norwegian (Lindström et al., 2007; Pahkin et al., 2007). The questions are divided into the categories “Predictability of next two years” and “Preference for challenge”. Both categories consist of three items with five response options each, from one to five, representing the possible response alternatives “Very little or not at all”, “Rather little”, “Somewhat”, “Rather much”, and “Very much”.

For the first category, predictability of next two years, Lindström et al. (2007) found the mean sum score to be 3.20, with the lowest sample mean of 3.09 and the highest of 3.41. In the scale presented by QPS-Nordic-ADW, Cronbach’s alpha was calculated to be .89 for workers 55-years old and older (Lindström et al., 2007; Pahkin et al., 2007). One of the items included in this category is “Do you know what has to be learned and which new skills have to be acquired in order for you to maintain a job that you consider attractive in 2 years?”. The Cronbach's alpha was calculated to be .796. To evaluate the consistency, a factor analysis was conducted. The questions for this sum-score were suitable for the analysis, as evidenced by the KMO-value of .656. The questions loaded on one factor, which explained 71.64% of the total variance of this sum-score.

For the second category, preference for challenge, they found the mean sum-score to be 3.59, with the lowest sample mean of 3.31 and the highest of 3.54. One of the items in this category is “Do you prefer the challenge presented by taking on new work tasks often?”. The Cronbach's alpha was calculated to be .807. A factor analysis was conducted to test the consistency. The KMO-value of .705 indicated that the questions for this sum-score were well suited for the analysis. The questions loaded on one factor, which explained 72.42% of the total variance of this sum-score.

Organisational Climate

A scale developed by QPS-Nordic-ADW and made available in English, Finnish, Norwegian, and Swedish was used to measure the organisational climate variable (Lindström et al., 2007;

Pahkin et al., 2007). The variable organisational climate consists of nine items, with five response options each. The scale ranges from one to five, representing the possible response alternatives “Very little or not at all”, “Rather little”, “Somewhat”, “Rather much”, and “Very much”. One of the items included in this scale is "Are the employees well taken care of in your work unit?". In the scale presented by Lindström et al. (2007), the lowest Cronbach's alpha for the organisational climate was .77 and the highest was .82. The Cronbach's alpha in this thesis was calculated to be .878. To evaluate the consistency of the sum-score, a factor analysis was conducted. The questions for this sum-score were suitable for the analysis, as evidenced by the KMO-value of .891. The questions loaded on one factor, which explained 54.74% of the total variance of this sum-score.

Social Support

The social support variable was measured using a scale developed by QPS-Nordic-ADW, and made available in English, Finnish, Norwegian, and Swedish (Lindström et al., 2007; Pahkin et al., 2007). The scale consists of six items with five response options each, ranging from one to five. The possible response alternatives were “Very seldom or never”, “Rather seldom”, “Sometimes”, “Rather often”, and “Very often or always”. One of the items included in this scale is “If you need it, are your colleagues at work willing to listen to you when you have problems at work?”.

In the scale presented by Lindström et al. (2007), the questions are divided into the categories “Support from co-workers” and “Support from superior”. For the first category, the lowest Cronbach's alpha was .82 and the highest was .84. For the second category, the lowest Cronbach's alpha was .85 and the highest was .90. All six items were included in one sum-score, in the thesis. The Cronbach's alpha was calculated to be .884. All the questions loaded on one factor in the factor analysis, which explained 63.5% of the variance. A factor analysis was conducted to test the consistency of the sum-score. The KMO-value of .811 indicated that the questions for this sum-score were well suited for the analysis.

Age Discrimination

Discrimination between older and younger people was measured by the Nordic Age Discrimination Scale from the QPS-Nordic-ADW, and published in English, Finnish, Norwegian, and Swedish (Furunes & Mykletun, 2010; Pahkin et al., 2007). This scale consists of six items, with a scale ranging from one to five, with the possible response alternatives

“Strongly disagree”, “Somewhat disagree”, “Neither agree nor disagree”, “Somewhat agree”, and “Strongly agree”. One of the items included in the scale is "Younger workers are preferred when new technology (new machines), activities or working methods are to be introduced". In this scale, the average is set to 2.13, with the lowest sample mean of 1.63 and the highest sample mean of 2.24 (Pahkin et al., 2007). In the scale presented by Furunes and Mykletun (2010) the lowest Cronbach's alpha was calculated to be .80 and the highest Cronbach's alpha was calculated to be .88.

Burnout

Burnout was measured through the Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT) on a scale developed by Schaufeli et al. (2020b). The variable consists of 12 items with five response options, from one to five, representing the possible answers “Never”, “Sometimes”, “Regular”, “Often”, and “Always”. The scale distinguishes between a representative sample of the Flemish working population, and a representative sample of the Dutch working population. In the scale presented by Schaufeli et al. (2020b), Cronbach’s alpha was calculated to .92 for Flanders and .95 for the Netherlands. The range of means for Flanders is 1.66-2.31, while the range of means for the Netherlands is 1.99-2.37.

The scale measuring burnout consists of four dimensions; exhaustion, mental distance, emotional impairment, and cognitive impairment. Exhaustion consists of three items, and one of the items included in this scale is “At work, I feel mentally exhausted”. To test the reliability of the scale, Schaufeli et al. (2020b) examine Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach’s alpha for exhaustion was .85 for Flanders, and .87 for the Netherlands. The Cronbach's alpha for the first dimension in this thesis was calculated to be .859. A factor analysis was conducted to test the consistency of the sum-score. The KMO-value of .735 indicated that the questions for this sum-score were well suited for the analysis. The questions loaded on one factor, which explained 78.10% of the total variance of this sum-score.

Mental distance consists of three items, and one of the items included in this scale is “I struggle to find enthusiasm for my work”. Cronbach’s alpha for mental distance was .88 for Flanders, and .90 for the Netherlands. The Cronbach's alpha for the second dimension in this thesis was calculated to be .672. A factor analysis was conducted to test the consistency of the sum-score. The KMO-value of .656 indicated that the questions for this sum-score were well suited for the

analysis. The questions loaded on one factor, which explained 60.42% of the total variance of this sum-score.

Emotional impairment consists of three items, and one of the items included in this scale is “At work, I feel unable to control my emotions”. Cronbach’s alpha was calculated to be .87 for Flanders, and .92 for the Netherlands. The Cronbach's alpha for the third dimension in this thesis was calculated to be .806. A factor analysis was conducted to test the consistency of the sum-score. The KMO-value of .712 indicated that the questions for this sum-score were well suited for the analysis. The questions loaded on one factor, which explained 72.09% of the total variance of this sum-score.

Cognitive impairment consists of three items, and one of the items included in this scale is “At work, I have trouble staying focused”. Cronbach’s alpha for cognitive impairment was .87 for Flanders, and .90 for the Netherlands. The Cronbach's alpha for the fourth dimension in this thesis was calculated to be .841. A factor analysis was conducted to test the consistency of the sum-score of 1.99. The KMO-value of .673 indicated that the questions for this sum-score were well suited for the analysis. The questions loaded on one factor, which explained 75.89% of the total variance of this sum-score.

Working Hours & Gender

As working hours only consisted of one item, there was no pre-existing scale used for measuring this variable. The item included in this variable was “How many hours per week do you usually work?”. The mean score for working hours was 37.88 hours.

Likewise, there was no scale used to measure gender. The respondents were asked if they were male or female, where male was coded 1, and female was coded 2. The numbers show a slight predominance of male participants, where 54.5% of the participants were male, and 45.5% of the participants were female.

Age

The respondents of the study were asked about their actual age, therefore this variable also consisted of just one item. The age-related mean total score was 45.66. This variable has no Cronbach's alpha because it does not come from a scale.

3.4 Ethical Considerations

As the researchers did not have access to any information that could have identified the respondents' identities, the data used for this study were anonymized. An anonymized complete data file was then made available for the research group. For future follow-up studies, only Norstat had access to the respondents' identities. Norstat complies with Norwegian laws for data protection, Directive 95/46/EC General Data Protection Regulation, the primary research requirements and standards specified in ICC/ESOMAR, and the quality Management System ISO9001:2015. The research proposal received no feedback from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD).

4.0 Results

The statistical analysis and results from the data collection covered in the research method chapter will be presented in this chapter. Several tables will be used to present the findings, including a Pearson's bivariate correlation and a multiple hierarchical regression. The findings of the different analyses will be further discussed in the following discussion chapter.

4.1 Pearson's Bivariate Correlation Analysis

A correlation analysis is used to establish whether a change in one variable is followed by a change in another variable (Saunders et al., 2012). It is essential to conduct a correlation analysis to examine the strength and directions of the pairwise relationship between the variables. The correlations for the variables are presented in Pearson's bivariate correlation in Table 2 below. This table only takes into account the two variables at a time, and does not take into account any additional variables that might affect how they correlate. The numerals denoted with “*” or “**” signifies that the probability of observing this value by chance is less than respectively 0.05 or 0.01.

The mean/median, standard deviation, skewness, minimum, and maximum to all the variables is illustrated in Table 1 below, where the full width of the scale has been used. Most of the variables have a mean with a value of three or above, which may be considered as relatively high. A mean with a value of three or above indicates that the participants have positive experiences with these variables. This applied to the variables organisational climate, social support, transformational leadership, control of work pacing (autonomy), predictability of next two years (predictability), preference for challenge (predictability), and control of decisions (autonomy), although the latter was just above the midpoint of the scale. Meanwhile, the four burnout variables had a value below three, indicating that the participants experienced little burnout. While the dependent variable home office had a median of 3.00, the dependent variable WEDC had a mean of 2.50, which indicates that the participants were somewhat dissatisfied with digital communication. Social support had the highest mean of all the variables with a value of 3.95, implying that most of the respondents agreed on this variable, and experienced a high degree of social support in their working environment. On the other hand, emotional impairment (burnout) showed the lowest mean of all the variables with a value of 1.57, suggesting that the participants experienced little emotional impairment in their work.

Table 1
Mean/Median, Standard Deviation, Skewness, Minimum and Maximum

Variables	Mean/ Median	SD	Skewness	Minimum	Maximum
Home Office	3.00	1.02	-.24	1.00	5.00
Worker's experience with digital communication	2.50	.80	.39	1.00	5.00
Age	45.66	-	-	20	74
Gender	-	-	-	1	2
Working hours	37.88	10.58	.63	0	99
Exhaustion	2.41	.90	.49	1.00	5.00
Mental distance	2.25	.78	.64	1.00	5.00
Emotional impairment	1.57	.67	1.41	1.00	5.00
Cognitive impairment	1.99	.75	.69	1.00	5.00
Organisational climate	3.53	.73	-.39	1.00	5.00
Social support	3.95	.80	-	1.00	5.00
Transformational leadership	3.50	1.01	-.41	1.00	5.00
Control of work pacing	3.26	1.18	-.25	1.00	5.00
Control of decisions	3.02	.85	-.12	1.00	5.00
Predictability of next two years	3.49	.89	-.43	1.00	5.00
Preference for challenge	3.59	.82	-.27	1.00	5.00
Age discrimination	2.51	.85	-	1.00	5.00

Note. N = 1503 for all variables except the variable "Worker's experience with digital communication" where N=1420.

In the Mean/Median column, the median is used for those variables where there is no mean sum-score.

When testing the relationship between home office and WEDC, results showed that there was a positive correlation between these two variables. Thus, as the frequency of home office use increases, WEDC improves.

Transformational leadership and home office were positively correlated, which implies that when frequency of home office use increases, workers experience that their leaders are more transformational. Hypothesis 1A stated that transformational leadership is positively related to the frequency of home office use. Since transformational leadership and home office were positively correlated, hypothesis 1A was confirmed.

Control of work pacing (autonomy) and control of decisions (autonomy) were positively correlated with home office, which implies that workers experience higher degrees of autonomy when the frequency of home office use increases. Hypothesis 2A₁ stated that control of work pacing is positively related to the frequency of home office use. Since control of work pacing and home office were positively correlated, hypothesis 2A₁ was confirmed. Hypothesis 2A₂ stated that control of decisions is positively related to the frequency of home office use. Since control of decisions and home office were positively correlated, hypothesis 2A₂ was confirmed.

Age discrimination was not correlated with home office, meaning that there was no relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 3A stated that age discrimination is negatively related to the frequency of home office use. Since there was no correlation between age discrimination and home office, hypothesis 3A was rejected.

Exhaustion (burnout) was negatively correlated with home office. In other words, workers experience less exhaustion the more they work from home. Hypothesis 4A₁ stated that exhaustion is negatively related to the frequency of home office use. Since exhaustion and home office were negatively correlated, hypothesis 4A₁ was confirmed.

Mental distance (burnout) was negatively correlated with home office, which implies that when the frequency of home office use increases, worker's experience of mental distance decreases. Hypothesis 4A₂ stated that mental distance is positively related to the frequency of home office use. Since mental distance and home office were negatively correlated, hypothesis 4A₂ was rejected.

Emotional impairment (burnout) was negatively correlated with home office, which implies that when the frequency of home office use increases, workers experience less emotional impairment in their work. Hypothesis 4A₃ stated that emotional impairment is positively related to the frequency of home office use. Since emotional impairment and home office were negatively correlated, hypothesis 4A₃ was rejected.

Cognitive impairment (burnout) and home office were positively correlated. In other words, cognitive impairment is higher amongst home office users than those who went to the office. Hypothesis 4A₄ stated that cognitive impairment is positively related to the frequency of home office use. Since cognitive impairment and home office were positively correlated, hypothesis 4A₄ was confirmed.

Gender was not correlated with home office, meaning that there was no relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 5A stated that male workers had more frequent use of home office than female workers. Since there was no correlation between gender and home office, hypothesis 5A was rejected.

Working hours and home office were positively correlated, which implies that employees working from home work more hours than the employees who work at the employer's premises. Hypothesis 6A stated that working hours are positively related to the frequency of home office use. Since working hours and home office were positively correlated, hypothesis 6A was confirmed.

Predictability of next two years (predictability) and preference for challenge (predictability) were positively correlated with home office, which implies that workers experience higher levels of predictability the more they work from home. Research question 1A₁ asked what the relationship between predictability of next two years and the frequency of home office use is. Since predictability of next two years and home office were positively correlated, there exists a positive relationship between these two variables. Research question 1A₂ asked what the relationship between preference for challenge and the frequency of home office use is. Since preference for challenge and home office were positively correlated, there exists a positive relationship between these two variables.

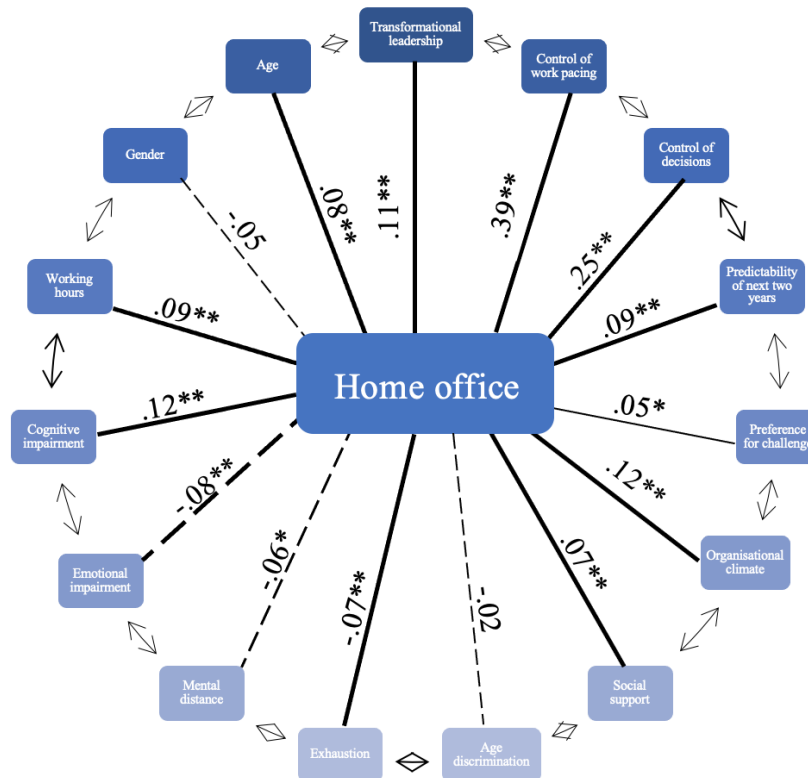
Organisational climate and home office were positively correlated, which implies that when the frequency of home office use increases, the better the organisational climate becomes. Research question 2A asked what the relationship between organisational climate and the frequency of the use of home office is. Since organisational climate and home office were positively correlated, there exists a positive relationship between these two variables.

Social support and home office were positively correlated. This implies that when the frequency of home office use increases, workers experience higher degrees of social support in the working environment. Research question 3A asked what the relationship between social support and the frequency of home office use is. Since social support and home office were positively correlated, there exists a positive relationship between these two variables.

Age and home office were positively correlated, which implies that the use of home office is slightly higher amongst older workers. That is, older workers work more frequently from home, than younger workers. Research question 4A asked what the relationship between age and the frequency of home office use is. Since home office and age were positively correlated, there exists a positive relationship between these two variables. The results described above are summarised in Figure 4 below.

Figure 4

Overview of the Dependent Variable Home Office and the Independent Variables with Correlations Coefficients



Transformational leadership and WEDC were not correlated, meaning that there was no relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 1B stated that transformational leadership was positively related to WEDC. Since there was no correlation between WEDC and transformational leadership, hypothesis 1B was rejected.

Control of work pacing (autonomy) and control of decisions (autonomy) were positively correlated with WEDC, which implies that workers experience higher degrees of autonomy when they are satisfied with digital communication. Hypothesis 2B₁ stated that control of work pacing is positively related to WEDC. Hypothesis 2B₂ stated that control of decisions is positively related to WEDC. Since these variables were significantly correlated with the dependent variable WEDC, they will be included in the multiple hierarchical regression.

Age discrimination and WEDC were not correlated, meaning that there was no relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 3B stated that age discrimination is negatively related to

WEDC. Since there was no correlation between age discrimination and WEDC, hypothesis 3B was rejected.

Exhaustion (burnout) and WEDC were not correlated, meaning that there was no relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 4B₁ stated that exhaustion is negatively related to WEDC. Since there was no correlation between WEDC and exhaustion, hypothesis 4B₁ was rejected.

Mental distance (burnout) and WEDC were positively correlated, which implies that the experience of mental distancing increases with how satisfied the workers are with digital communication, although in a weak effect. Hypothesis 4B₂ stated mental distance is positively related to WEDC. Since this variable was significantly correlated with the dependent variable WEDC, it will be included in the multiple hierarchical regression.

Emotional impairment (burnout) and WEDC were not correlated, meaning that there was no relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 4B₃ stated that emotional impairment is negatively related to WEDC. Since there was no correlation between emotional impairment and WEDC, hypothesis 4B₃ was rejected.

Cognitive impairment (burnout) and WEDC were not correlated, meaning that there was no relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 4B₄ stated that cognitive impairment is negatively related to WEDC. Since there was no correlation between WEDC and cognitive impairment, hypothesis 4B₄ was rejected.

Gender was negatively correlated with WEDC, which indicates that women's experience with digital communication is worse than for men. Hypothesis 5B stated that women's experience with digital communication is worse than for men. Since this variable was significantly correlated with the dependent variable WEDC, it will be included in the multiple hierarchical regression.

Working hours and WEDC were not correlated, meaning that there was no relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 6B stated that working hours are positively related to WEDC. Since there was no correlation between WEDC and working hours, hypothesis 6B was rejected.

Predictability of next two years (predictability) and WEDC were not correlated. Research question 1B₁ asked what the relationship between predictability of next two years and WEDC is. Since there was no correlation between WEDC and predictability of next two years, there exists no relationship between these two variables.

Preference for challenge (predictability) and WEDC were not correlated. Research question 1B₂ asked what the relationship between preference for challenge and WEDC is. Since there was no correlation between WEDC and preference for challenge, there exists no relationship between these two variables.

Organisational climate and WEDC were not correlated. Research question 2B asked what the relationship between organisational climate and WEDC is. Since there was no correlation between WEDC and organisational climate, there exists no relationship between these two variables.

Social support and WEDC were not correlated. Research question 3B asked what the relationship between social support and WEDC is. Since there was no correlation between WEDC and organisational climate, there exists no relationship between these two variables.

Age and WEDC were not correlated. Research question 4B asked what the relationship between age and WEDC is. Since there was no correlation between WEDC and age, there exists no relationship between these two variables.

In addition to the correlation between home office, WEDC and the independent variables, there were interesting values in other columns worth mentioning too. These relationships are important for understanding the effects in the multiple regression analysis. As highlighted in blue in Table 2, the four burnout variables exhaustion, mental distance, emotional impairment, and cognitive impairment were correlated with almost all the variables, which made them important variables in the data set.

Organisational climate (row 9 in Table 2) in relation to the four burnout variables exhaustion, mental distance, emotional impairment, and cognitive impairment, marked as green, showed that organisational climate was positively correlated with low levels of burnout. Put differently, when workers experience a satisfactory organisational climate, they suffer from less burnout.

Organisational climate was also positively correlated to social support, meaning that when workers experience high levels of social support, they also experience a satisfactory organisational climate. There was also a strong correlation between transformational leadership and social support. Transformational leadership was positively correlated to organisational climate, which implies that the higher the degree of transformational leadership practised in an organisation, the better the organisational climate will become. These values are highlighted with pink.

Control of work pacing (autonomy) is highlighted in red. All the values in this row were either correlated or in a relationship with other variables, except for cognitive impairment. Since this variable correlated with large parts of the variables in the correlation, it was an important variable in the data set.

The variable control of decisions (autonomy) was also of importance, as the whole row was significant and had an impact on all the columns. This is highlighted with orange. Similar to control of work pacing, control of decisions was also an important variable in the data set, since it correlated with large parts of the variables in the correlation.

The correlation between social support and organisational climate, transformational leadership and organisational climate, and transformational leadership and social support were so high that they could cause problems for the regression if all of these were present at the same time. This might also apply to the correlation between control of decisions (autonomy), and control of work pacing (autonomy). These values are marked inside the squares in Table 2.

Table 2
Pearson Bivariate Correlation Analysis

Variables	1	2	3	4*	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Worker's experience with digital communication	.12**														
2. Age	.08**	-.04													
3. Gender	-.05	-.11**													
4. Working hours *	.09**	-.12**	-.21**												
5. Exhaustion	-.07**	-.24**	.19**	-.02											
6. Mental distance	-.06*	.10**	-.00	-.03	.51**										
7. Emotional impairment	-.08**	.02	.11**	.01	.46**	.41**									
8. Cognitive impairment	.12**	.05	.07**	.01	.50**	.49**	.55**								
9. Organisational climate	.12**	-.02	-.03	.02	-.37**	-.36**	-.29**	-.21**							
10. Social support	.07**	-.05	.01	.01	-.34**	-.36**	-.27**	-.23**	.70**						
11. Transformational leadership	.11**	-.02	.03	.03	-.27**	-.30**	-.18**	-.13**	.69**	.73**					
12. Control of work pacing	.39**	.15**	-.20**	.13**	-.31**	-.16**	-.14**	.01	.26**	.21**	.16**				
13. Control of decisions	.25**	.08**	-.25**	.17**	-.31**	-.25**	-.15**	-.11**	.38**	.35**	.29**	.60**			
14. Predictability of next two years	.09**	.01	-.11**	.10**	-.23**	-.30**	-.17**	-.18**	.35**	.31**	.28**	.12**	.28**		
15. Preference for challenge	.05*	-.03	-.08**	.15**	-.20**	-.25**	-.16**	-.18**	.19**	.16**	.12**	.14**	.22**	.40**	
16. Age discrimination	-.02	-.02	.09**	-.05	.19**	.21**	.23**	.18**	-.31**	-.31**	-.26**	-.06*	-.12**	-.19**	-.05

Note. N = 1503 for all variables except the variable "Worker's experience with digital communication" where N=1420.

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.2 Multiple Hierarchical Regression

To understand how well different independent variables can predict the dependent variable, multiple regression analyses are used (Aiken et al., 2003). More specifically, what effect the independent variables have on the dependent variables: home office and WEDC. The independent variables that were not correlated with the dependent variable WEDC, were not included in the multiple hierarchical regression. Since none of the variables at the team level were correlated with the dependent variable WEDC, this level was not part of the multiple hierarchical regression. A more detailed overview of the analysis is provided in Appendix 3.

In order to better understand how the various variables interacted with each other, a multiple hierarchical regression analysis was chosen, applying the steps with variables meant to represent phenomena on individual, and organisational levels. The idea behind carrying out this multiple hierarchical regression was to be able to see the effect of the different groups of variables separately. One can discuss whether the individual or organisational level should come first or last in this regression. This thesis decided to start the regression with the individual level, then add the organisational level. This is based on being able to show the effect of the organisational level's variables after the effects of the individual level's variables had been excluded in stage 1 of the analysis.

By comparing the standardised beta values with the correlation values in Pearson's bivariate correlation analysis, it was possible to observe the change in the size for an independent variable's effect, when a new group of variables was entered into the analysis. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis provided similar opportunities to show how relationships between the independent variables influence the effects they have on the dependent variable, WEDC, when new stages in the analysis were added. This also helped to give a better picture of the coherence between the independent variables.

Table 3

Effects of the Independent Variables on the Dependent Variable WEDC in a Multiple Hierarchical Regression (N=1420)

Variables	Worker's experience with digital communication	
	Stage 1 β	Stage 2 β
Gender	-.11***	-.08**
Mental distance	.10***	.12***
Control of work pacing		.15***
Control of decisions		-.00
R ²	.022	.044
R ² change	.022	.020
Sig. F Change	<.001	<.001

Significance level: ** $p < .05$, *** $p < 0.01$

4.2.1 Individual Level

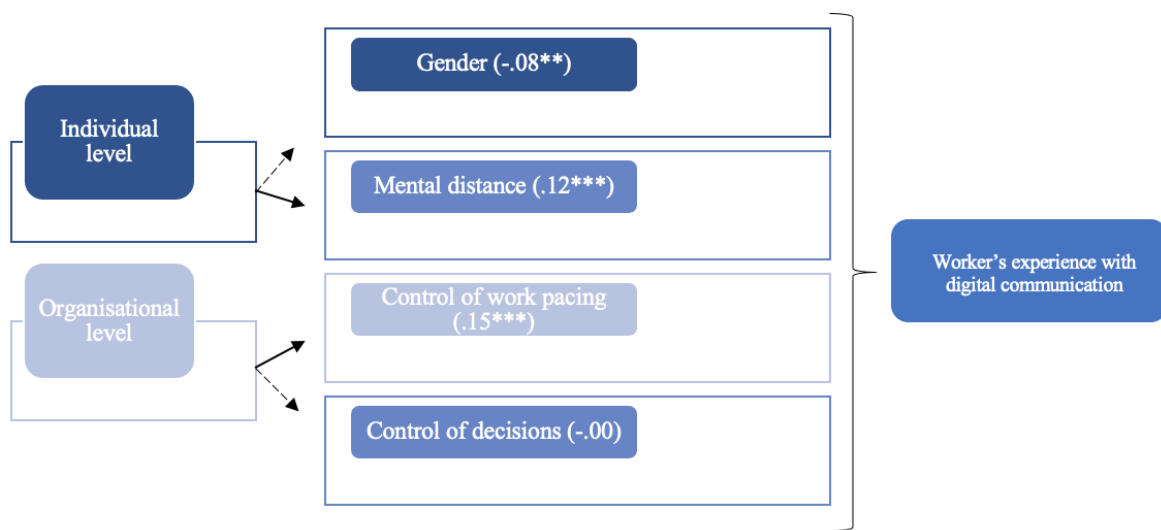
Gender and mental distance (burnout) were the independent variables at the individual level that constitute the first stage of the multiple hierarchical regression. Both the independent variables were strongly significant in the first stage, as shown in Table 3. However, gender was negatively, while mental distance was positively related to the dependent variable WEDC. The fact that gender was negatively related to WEDC means that men are more satisfied with digital communication than women. When it comes to mental distance, and its positive relationship to the dependent variable, the findings show that the experience of mental distance increases with how satisfied the workers are with digital communication. In stage 1, the R-square for the multiple hierarchical regression for the dependent variable was .022, indicating that the first stage explained only 2.2% of the variance in WEDC.

4.2.2 Organisational Level

Control of work pacing (autonomy) and control of decisions (autonomy) were added as independent variables at the organisational level in the second and final stage of the multiple hierarchical regression. The beta value of gender was -.08, while the beta value of mental distance had a value of .12. Both these variables had an increase in the beta value from stage 1 to stage 2, and this was an effect of two new independent variables being added in the second stage of the regression analysis. In the same stage, the beta value of control of work pacing was .15, while the beta value of control of decisions had a value of -.00. Since the effects of the two variables were small, the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable WEDC was also small. In stage 2, the R-square for the dependent variable was .044, indicating that the second and last stage explained 4.4% of the variance in WEDC.

When including all the independent variables, there was a decrease in the direct effect on gender. Gender together with mental distance and control of work pacing were significant in stage 2. This means that these variables are related to the dependent variable WEDC. Control of decisions was not significant in stage 2. An overview of the last stage in the regression is illustrated in Figure 5 below.

Figure 5
Overview of the Dependent Variable WEDC and the Independent Variables in the Multiple Hierarchical Regression Stage 2



Since control of work pacing was positively correlated with WEDC, and a significantly positive predictor in the last stage of the multiple hierarchical regression, control of work pacing was positively related to the WEDC. In practice, this means that control of work pacing is higher among those who are satisfied with digital communication than those who are not. Hypothesis 2B₁ is therefore confirmed.

Considering mental distance was positively correlated with WEDC in the correlation, and a significantly positive predictor in the last stage of the multiple hierarchical regression, mental distance was positively related to WEDC. This suggests that the experience of mental distancing is higher among those who are satisfied with digital communication than those who are not, and hypothesis 4B₂ is confirmed.

Gender was negatively correlated with WEDC. At the same time this variable was a significantly negative predictor in stage 2 of the multiple hierarchical regression. This implies that women’s experience with digital communication is worse than for men, and hypothesis 5B is therefore confirmed.

Although control of decisions was positively correlated to WEDC, this variable was not significant in the multiple hierarchical regression. Based on these results, hypothesis 2B₂, which stated that control of decisions is positively related to WEDC, is partially confirmed. In practice, this indicates that there exists a relationship between the variables control of decisions and WEDC, but this relationship becomes insignificant when seen in relation with the other variables in the multiple hierarchical regression analysis. This is again due to correlations between the independent variables in the regression. The relationship between these two variables can therefore not be ignored, in the present context, contribution of control of decisions is no longer significant. The reason is the interaction between control of decisions and the variables that remained significant in the regression analysis. An overview of the different hypotheses and research questions, and their status can be seen in Table 4 and Table 5 below.

Table 4
Overview of the Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Results
1A: Transformational leadership is positively related to the frequency of home office use.	Confirmed
1B: Transformational leadership is positively related to worker’s experience with digital communication (WEDC).	Rejected
2A ₁ : Control of work pacing is positively related to the frequency of home office use.	Confirmed
2A ₂ : Control of decisions is positively related to the frequency of home office use.	Confirmed
2B ₁ : Control of work pacing is positively related to worker’s experience with digital communication (WEDC).	Confirmed
2B ₂ : Control of decisions is positively related to worker’s experience with digital communication (WEDC).	Partially confirmed
3A: Age discrimination is negatively related to the frequency of home office use.	Rejected
3B: Age discrimination is negatively related to worker’s experience with digital communication (WEDC).	Rejected
4A ₁ : Exhaustion is negatively related to the frequency of home office use.	Confirmed
4A ₂ : Mental distance is positively related to the frequency of home office use.	Rejected
4A ₃ : Emotional impairment is positively related to the frequency of home office use.	Rejected
4A ₄ : Cognitive impairment is positively related to the frequency of home office use.	Confirmed
4B ₁ : Exhaustion is negatively related to worker’s experience with digital communication (WEDC).	Rejected
4B ₂ : Mental distance is positively related to worker’s experience with digital communication (WEDC).	Confirmed
4B ₃ : Emotional impairment is negatively related to worker’s experience with digital communication (WEDC).	Rejected
4B ₄ : Cognitive impairment is negatively related to worker’s experience with digital communication (WEDC).	Rejected
5A: Male workers had more frequent use of home office than female workers.	Rejected
5B: Women’s experience with digital communication is worse than for men.	Confirmed
6A: Working hours are positively related to the frequency of home office use.	Confirmed
6B: Working hours are positively related to worker’s experience with digital communication (WEDC).	Rejected

Table 5
Overview of the Research Questions

Research question	Result
1A ₁ : What is the relationship between predictability of next two years and the frequency of home office use?	Positive relationship
1A ₂ : What is the relationship between preference for challenge and the frequency of home office use?	Positive relationship
1B ₁ : What is the relationship between predictability of next two years and worker's experience with digital communication (WEDC)?	No relationship
1B ₂ : What is the relationship between preference for challenge and worker's experience with digital communication (WEDC)?	No relationship
2A: What is the relationship between organisational climate and the frequency of the use of home office?	Positive relationship
2B: What is the relationship between organisational climate and worker's experience with digital communication (WEDC)?	No relationship
3A: What is the relationship between social support and the frequency of home office use?	Positive relationship
3B: What is the relationship between social support and worker's experience with digital communication (WEDC)?	No relationship
4A: What is the relationship between age and the frequency of home office use?	Positive relationship
4B: What is the relationship between age and worker's experience with digital communication (WEDC)?	No relationship

5.0 Discussion

The following chapter contributes to the theories surrounding use of home office and WEDC. As shown in Figure 2 and 3, this thesis has investigated how the dependent variables home office and WEDC relate to each other, and to what extent the independent organisational, team, and individual variables relate to the dependent variables. In this chapter, the findings from the thesis' results and statistical analyses will be discussed, and these findings will also be compared against various theories. This thesis will also be part of new findings for Norwegian working life and scales that have not been used in Norwegian studies before. This chapter will also present the limitations of this thesis, as well as implications for further research. Lastly, practical implications for Norwegian working life will be provided. The following research problem statements, which were initially presented in the introduction, will be answered by reference to the findings:

1. How does the use of home office and WEDC relate to one another?
2. To what extent do the organisational dimensions (transformational leadership, autonomy, predictability), the team dimensions (organisational climate, social support, age discrimination), and the individual dimensions (burnout, working hours, gender, age) relate to the use of home office?
3. To what extent do the organisational dimensions (transformational leadership, autonomy, predictability), the team dimensions (organisational climate, social support, age discrimination), and the individual dimensions (burnout, working hours, gender, age) predict WEDC?
4. To what extent are the patterns of relationships similar for home office and WEDC when predicting from the organisational dimensions (transformational leadership, autonomy, predictability), the team dimensions (organisational climate, social support, age discrimination), and the individual dimensions (burnout, working hours, gender, age)?

5.1 Home Office

Home office has a median of 3, which is the midpoint of the scale. To the question “Have the corona restrictions led to you working from home?”, 46.4% of the respondents answered “No change”, 19.2% answered “Somewhat more than before”, and 29.9% answered “Much more than before”. A detailed overview of the distribution of home office is illustrated in Appendix 4. The variable had a standard deviation of 1.02, which means that there is a variation of 1.02 each way. Furthermore, the variable was right-skewed, and the skewness had a value of -.24. Most of the responses from the sample’s respondents lie on the higher values of the scale, which indicates that the majority of the respondents worked from home.

One of the main findings of this thesis was that there existed a positive and significant correlation between home office and WEDC. A positive correlation occurs when two separate variables move in the same direction. Thus, when one variable increases, the other increases too and when one variable decreases, the other decreases as well. The findings above answer the first research problem statement, which inquired how the use of home office and WEDC relate to each other. Home office and WEDC relate to each other in a positive way, meaning that remote workers were more satisfied with digital communication than those who worked at the office. This might be explained by remote workers being forced to use digital communication to a larger extent, and therefore becoming more used to it, than workers at the office.

5.2 Worker’s Experience with Digital Communication (WEDC)

WEDC had an average of 2.50, which is slightly below the middle of the scale. This indicates that the respondents were not very satisfied with digital communication. A standard deviation of .8 means that there is a variation of .8 each way. This variable was also left-skewed, and the skewness had a value of .39. This indicates that most of the responses from the sample's respondents lie on the lower values of the scale. In practice, this means that the majority of the respondents were not very enthusiastic about digital communication.

5.3 Independent Variables

Understanding the relationship between the independent variables and the two dependent variables, home office and WEDC, is one of the key aspects of this thesis. Based on Pearson's

bivariate correlation analysis and the multiple hierarchical regression analysis, as well as the theoretical framework, this relationship can be understood and compared. This thesis will examine the theoretical implications for each of the independent variables and evaluate whether the findings support the theory, conflict with it, or contribute to new and unique findings.

5.3.1 Transformational Leadership

The relationship between transformational leadership and home office was tested through Pearson's correlation. Table 2 illustrates that transformational leadership was positively correlated with home office. In practice, this implies that when the frequency of home office use increases, workers experience that their leaders are more transformational. Hypothesis 1A, which states that transformational leadership is positively related to the frequency of home office use, was therefore confirmed. These results are supported by existing research. Since most organisations today are in various ways forced to constantly adapt due to complex and unstable environments, managers play a key role in ensuring this adaptation (Morf & Bakker, 2022; Walter, 2021). Therefore, the employees in a workplace expect a leader to inspire with an attractive vision both to motivate the employees to go the extra mile, act as a role model and stimulate the creativity and personal growth of their followers (Bass, 1999). This was also the case when the Covid-19 pandemic occurred, and there was a change in the administrative processes for remote working in many organisations.

There is a clear consensus in previous studies that transformational leadership helps to promote, among other things, autonomy, positive energy and authentic expression in the workplace (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Bono & Ilies, 2006; Morf & Bakker, 2022), and findings of previous studies show that organisations that provide a good balance between work and leisure through remote work observe the workforce becoming more productive. Since the findings of this thesis are essentially the same as previous studies related to this topic show, it contributes to confirm the validity and reliability of this thesis (Graves & Karabayeva, 2020; Meiryani et al., 2022; Stevens, 2019).

In addition to the increased use of home office, a large proportion of organisations also had to change their communication patterns, as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic. This led to the managers in the organisations being expected to master new and different digital communication channels. The theory regarding the relationship between transformational

leadership and the WEDC is somewhat more unclear. However, based on the theory related to transformational leadership and remote working, a hypothesis was also drawn up related to the connection between transformational leadership and the WEDC, predicting that transformational leadership is positively related to WEDC.

The correlation showed no statistical significance between transformational leadership and the WEDC, which suggests that there is no relationship between these two variables. Based on these results, hypothesis 1B, which states that transformational leadership is positively related to the WEDC, was rejected. Since there are few previous studies that have researched the concrete connection between transformational leadership and WEDC, these results may be a potentially unique contribution to the state of knowledge on this issue.

There was also a strong positive correlation both between transformational leadership and organisational climate, and transformational leadership and social support. In practice, this implies that in organisations with a good organisational climate and high social support, workers experience that their leaders are more transformational. These findings also contribute to confirm the validity and reliability of the thesis, as this also emerges from previous studies related to the same topic (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Bono & Ilies, 2006; Morf & Bakker, 2022).

5.3.2 Autonomy

The importance of autonomy is widely recognized in the current literature. Hackman and Oldham (1974) identified five job characteristics that affect personal and work-related outcomes, where job autonomy is recognized as one of the most important features of work design (Parker et al., 1998). The hypotheses differentiate between “Control of work pacing” and “Control of decisions”, where hypothesis 2A₁ stated that control of work pacing is positively related to the frequency of home office use. The correlation showed a significant and positive correlation between control of work pacing and home office, which confirmed hypothesis 2A₁. The results imply that when the frequency of home office use increases, workers experience higher degrees of autonomy. Hypothesis 2A₂ stated that control of decisions is positively related to the frequency of home office use. The correlation showed a significant and positive correlation between control of work pacing and home office, which confirmed hypothesis 2A₂. The results imply that when the frequency of home office use

increases, workers experience higher degrees of autonomy. However, it is possible that those who worked from home had more autonomous jobs, than those who worked from the office. Therefore, the increased degree of autonomy will not be a direct cause of increased use of home office alone. These findings are consistent with previous research, which found that worker's autonomy has increased as a result of remote working, and that working from home has given workers increased flexibility (Egeland et al., 2022a; Hill et al., 2003), which confirms and strengthens the validity and reliability of this thesis.

As digital communication is a prerequisite of working from home, the theory related to home office could also apply to WEDC. Hypothesis 2B₁ stated that control of work pacing is positively related to WEDC. The correlation showed a significant and positive correlation between control of work pacing and WEDC. At the same time, control of work pacing was a significantly positive predictor in the second and last stage of the multiple hierarchical regression, and therefore positively related to WEDC. In other words, this means that control of work pacing is higher among those who are satisfied with digital communication than those who are not, which confirmed hypothesis 2B₁. This finding aligns with previous research which found that the use of digital information and communication technologies enable employees to work more autonomously (Gerten et al., 2018). This confirms and strengthens the validity and reliability of this thesis (Gerten et al., 2018).

Hypothesis 2B₂ stated that control of decisions is positively related to WEDC. The correlation showed a significant and positive correlation between control of decisions and WEDC. However, control of decisions was not significant in the regression analysis, and therefore hypothesis 2B₂ was partially confirmed. The relationship between these two variables can therefore not be ignored, in the present context, contribution of control of decisions is no longer significant. The reason is the interaction between control of decisions and the variables that remained significant in the regression analysis. Since there are few previous studies that have researched the concrete connection between control of decisions and WEDC, these results may be a potentially unique contribution to the state of knowledge on this issue.

5.3.3 Predictability

Albert Bandura first introduced the idea of predictability in 1977 through his social learning theory where he argues that people use possible future outcomes to affect their present

behaviour (Bandura, 1977). Predictability has been written about in different contexts (Lau & Knardahl 2008; Miller 1980 referred to in Mineka & Hendersen, 1985; Väänänen et al., 2008), but the existing literature on predictability related to home office and WEDC, proved to be limited. Therefore, there was no basis for creating any hypothesis related to the relationship between predictability and the use of home office, as well as the relationship between predictability and WEDC. The research questions 1A₁, 1A₂, 1B₁, and 1B₂ were developed instead, differentiating between “Predictability of next two years” and “Preference for challenge”.

Changes may occur at a workplace due to economic downturns, restructuring, and acquisitions, to name a few. These changes can affect worker’s perception of job predictability and future employability, which again can deteriorate their mental health. This was particularly apparent during the Covid-19 pandemic, where 54% feared losing their job according to a survey conducted by IPSOS among 12.000 employees in 27 countries (Boyon, 2020). Fløvik et al. (2020) support these findings in their study, and claim that low job predictability is affecting an extensive part of the workforce, and thereby their mental health. Furthermore, they suggest that high predictability is associated with lower levels of stress. The positive correlation between higher predictability and greater mental health found by Fløvik et al. (2020) can apply to the research related to predictability and home office in this thesis. Research question 1A₁ asked what the relationship between predictability of next two years and the frequency of home office use is. Predictability of next two years and home office were positively correlated. Therefore, there exists a positive relationship between these two variables. This also applies to research question 1A₂, which asked what the relationship between preference for challenge and home office is. Since the variables were positively correlated in the correlation analysis, there exists a positive relationship between these two variables. As the existing literature on predictability, in the context of home office has proven to be insufficient and narrow, the results of this thesis may function as a unique contribution to the state of knowledge on this issue.

Research question 1B₁ asked what the relationship between predictability of next two years and WEDC is. Since there was no correlation between WEDC and predictability of next two years, there exists no relationship between these two variables. Lastly, research question 1B₂ asked what the relationship between preference for challenge and WEDC is. There was no correlation between preference for challenge and WEDC. Therefore, there exists no relationship between these two variables. The findings of this thesis may serve as a unique

contribution to the collection of information on predictability, which has shown to be inadequate and limited in the context of WEDC.

5.3.4 Organisational Climate

Few studies have previously studied the relationship between workplace culture and employees' willingness to stay in an organisation (Ahmad et al., 2018; Pradoto et al., 2022, Vong et al., 2018). One of the most decisive aspects of being successful as an organisation is, according to Pradoto et al. (2022), a well-functioning organisational climate. However, very few studies have analysed how home offices and the use of digital communication is related to the organisational climate in an organisation. Based on this, there was no basis for creating any hypotheses related to the relationship between organisational climate and home office, as well as the relationship between organisational climate and WEDC, and research questions 2A and 2B were developed instead. Research question 2A asked what the relationship between organisational climate and the frequency of home office use is. Research question 2B asked what the relationship between organisational climate and WEDC is.

Organisational climate and home office were positively correlated. This means that organisational climate and the frequency of home office use have a positive relationship. However, the correlation shows that there was no statistical significance between organisational climate and WEDC, which means that there was no relationship between these variables. These findings could constitute a unique contribution to the body of knowledge concerning the subjects since there have been few previous studies that have studied how home office and the use of digital communication affect the organisational climate in an organisation.

A couple of other interesting findings that emerged in this thesis' results also showed that organisational climate was positively correlated with low levels of burnout. In practice, this means that if the organisational climate in an organisation improves, the burnout of the employees in this organisation decreases. The correlation also showed that organisational climate was linked to social support, which means that when workers experience high levels of social support, they also experience a satisfactory organisational climate. The findings of this thesis also showed that there was a strong connection between organisational climate and transformational leadership, which indicates that the more transformational leadership that is practised in an organisation, the better the organisational climate becomes. According to the

theoretical examination of the literature in this area, the organisational climate has a beneficial effect on both employees' productivity, and that stressed employees in workplaces with a poor organisational climate have significantly less desire to continue in the organisation (Ahmad et al., 2018; Pradoto et al., 2022, Vong et al., 2018). The findings of this thesis are also confirmed by the literature review of Pradoto et al. (2022). Their literature review found that the organisational climate is the main cause of many challenges in the workplace, especially related to work stress, which is characterised by low satisfaction and performance of the employees, job changes and absenteeism. Since the findings of this thesis related to these connections also emerge from other previous studies in the same area, this helps to confirm the validity and reliability of this thesis.

5.3.5 Social Support

People need resources from other people to function psychologically and socially (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll, 2002; Jolly et al., 2021), and social support in the workplace is an important source of these resources. Social support can have several valuable effects both on individuals, but also on organisations (Holland et al., 2017; Jolly et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2016). The most important component of social support may be people's belief that they have other people who value and care about them, and who are willing to try to help them if they need help or other forms of support (Sarason, et al., 1990). It can also affect how individuals perceive their stress level, and act as a buffer against the negative effects of stressful demands (Jolly et al., 2021; Viswesvaran et al., 1999). Although there has been research on social support for a long time, the theoretical framework shows that this concept has little research related to the relationship between social support and the use of home office, as well as the relationship between social support and WEDC. Considering this, research questions 3A and 3B were created because there was no basis for any assumptions regarding the relationship between these variables. Research question 3A asked what the relationship between social support and the frequency of home office use is. Research question 3B asked what the relationship between social support and WEDC is.

The results of this thesis suggest that there is a strong positive relationship between the variables social support and home office, which implies that home office users experience higher degrees of social support than those who work at the ordinary office. However, the correlation between social support and WEDC shows a different result. The correlations

illustrated that there is no statistical significance between social support and the WEDC, which suggests that there was no relationship between these two variables. Due to the lack of previous studies that have studied how home offices and the use of digital communication affect social support in an organisation, these findings may represent a unique contribution to the body of knowledge on these issues.

5.3.6 Age Discrimination

Research shows that although older workers have many strengths in a working environment, managers and colleagues have negative attitudes towards older workers in relation to adaptability, flexibility, and willingness to change. Older workers are also stereotyped as less competent, that they have a reduced capacity to adopt new technology, and that they do not want to be included in training (Grødem, 2020; Harris et al., 2018; Ng & Feldman, 2012).

The motivation for hypothesis 3A and 3B was based on the fact that if the use of home offices and digital communication tools increased, there would be less age discrimination because of increased distance between colleagues.

There was no statistical significance between age discrimination and use of home office, which means that there is no connection between these variables. Hypothesis 3A stated that age discrimination is negatively related to the frequency of home office use, and was therefore rejected. The correlation between age discrimination and WEDC showed no statistical significance between the variables. This means that there is no relationship between age discrimination and WEDC. Hypothesis 3B stated that age discrimination is negatively related to WEDC, and was therefore rejected.

These findings are in conflict with the findings of previous studies in these areas, where a Norwegian study from 2020 both examined how older employees experienced the use of home offices and digital communication tools, but also how the employees thought others experienced this (Grødem, 2020). This study, which was aimed at industries where the researcher believed that the use of home offices and digital tools was common, concluded that the older workers in home offices mastered the transition to new, digital ways of working just as well as the younger ones. This was contrary to what most respondents assumed, as they believed that older workers struggled the most with home offices and digital platforms

(Grødem, 2020; Madshus, 2021). Grødem's study shows that stereotypes about older workers still exist (Madshus, 2021).

A possible reason why the findings of this thesis differ from other studies may be that, unlike other previous studies that focused on industries where the use of home offices and digital tools is common, this thesis used a general sample of the Norwegian working population. It may be a suggestion for further research that this study is also carried out only in industries where home offices and the use of digital tools are common.

5.3.7 Burnout

The hypotheses belonging to burnout differentiate between "Exhaustion", "Mental distance", "Emotional impairment", and "Cognitive impairment". As the pre-existing literature on burnout is characterised by being vast and extensive, parts of the research on this topic conflict with each other. While some researchers argue that the extended use of home office leads to increased burnout through lack of motivation and increased loneliness, others argue that the extended use of home office allows for more sleep and other chores as a result of less stress and more leisure time (Ingelsrud et al., 2022). It was based on the latter finding that hypothesis 4A₁ was developed, which states that exhaustion is negatively related to the frequency of home office use. The correlation showed a significant and negative correlation between exhaustion and home office, which indicates that workers experience less exhaustion the more they work from home. Hypothesis 4A₁ was therefore confirmed. These findings are consistent with previous research which suggest that the degree of burnout decreases as the frequency of home offices increases, and strengthens the validity and reliability of this thesis (Ingelsrud et al., 2022).

The existing literature related to mental distance and home office suggests that employees who are constantly available digitally want to quit their job to a greater extent than before working remotely, and are considering looking for a new job (Tang et al., 2019). Similar findings were uncovered by Jackson and Maslach (1982), who found that workers experiencing burnout have a greater probability of being absent from work, being less productive, and leaving the organisation (Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Leiter & Maslach, 1988). Hypothesis 4A₂ states that mental distance is positively related to the frequency of home office use. Mental distance and home office were negatively correlated, which implies that when the frequency of home office

use increases, worker's experience of mental distance decreases. Hypothesis 4A₂ was therefore rejected. The research that was used as a basis for the hypothesis was carried out in China, unlike the survey utilised in this thesis, which was conducted in Norway. Thus, the data was collected in different cultures. This could be a potential reason for why the findings in this thesis conflict with previous research, and should be further researched.

Hypothesis 4A₃ states that emotional impairment is positively related to the frequency of home office use. Emotional impairment and home office were negatively correlated, which implies that when the frequency of home office use increases, workers experience less emotional impairment in their work, and hypothesis 4A₃ was therefore rejected. These results conflict with previous literature that have found a positive relationship between emotional impairment and the use of home office. According to Mann and Holdsworth (2003), teleworkers are more likely to experience negative emotions such as loneliness, irritability, guilt, and worry than office-workers. A possible explanation for why this thesis' findings appear different may be that the respondents in the mentioned literature are from countries outside Norway, while this thesis' respondents are from Norway. The respondents from the previous study are not necessarily a representative sample of those who work from home, as this study only focused on journalists. Since this thesis' research was conducted on a random sample of the Norwegian workforce, it may represent a wider sample of those who work from home. This could be a suggestion for further research.

According to a global study by Lloyd's Register Quality Assurance (2021 referred to in White, 2021), the majority of the respondents experienced higher levels of stress while working from home. Long-term stress may lead to accelerated cognitive decline, which again may increase the risk of burnout (Habibi, 2021). Hypothesis 4A₄ states that cognitive impairment is positively related to the frequency of home office use. Cognitive impairment and home office were positively correlated, which means that cognitive impairment is higher amongst home office users than those who go to the office. Hypothesis 4A₄ was therefore confirmed. Since the findings of this thesis align with previous studies related to this topic, it contributes to confirm the validity and reliability of the thesis (Habibi, 2021; LRQA, 2021 referred to in White, 2021).

Sing et al. (2022) found that the use of digital work platforms could cause technology exhaustion, which lowered worker's well-being. Hypothesis 4B₁ states that exhaustion is

negatively related to WEDC. Exhaustion and WEDC were not correlated, meaning that there was no relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 4B₁ was therefore rejected. This finding conflicts with previous research on burnout. This could be explained by the sudden transition that followed after the Covid-19 pandemic where workers had to work from home, and the use of digital communication intensified.

Previous research proposes that employees who are constantly connected to work through digital platforms, have a higher interest in resigning now than what they did before they started working remotely (Tang et al., 2019). Hypothesis 4B₂ stated that mental distance is positively related to WEDC. Mental distance and WEDC were positively correlated. At the same time, mental distance was positively and significantly related to WEDC in the last stage of the regression analysis. This suggests that those who are satisfied with digital communication, experience higher degrees of mental distancing, and hypothesis 4B₂ was therefore confirmed. Since the findings of this thesis conform with previous studies related to this topic, it contributes to confirm the validity and reliability of this thesis (Tang et al., 2019).

Hypothesis 4B₃ stated that emotional impairment is negatively related to WEDC. Emotional impairment and WEDC were not correlated, meaning that there was no relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 4B₃ was therefore rejected. Hypothesis 4B₄ states that cognitive impairment is negatively related to WEDC. Cognitive impairment and WEDC were not correlated, meaning that there was no relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 4B₄ was therefore rejected. Since there are few previous studies that have researched the relationship between emotional impairment and WEDC, as well as cognitive impairment and WEDC, these results may be a potentially unique contribution to the state of knowledge on these issues.

5.3.8 Gender

The literature regarding women and the use of home offices suggest that women took care of household chores that include planning, coordination, and administration, as well as childcare duties to a greater extent than men, even when both parents worked from home (Egeland et al., 2022b; Nergaard, 2020). This might result in an extra burden of work for women, especially for those who have young children (Andrew et al., 2022). A report from ILO even suggests that working from home actually may disadvantage women since they often balance the

responsibility between household and child-rearing responsibilities in addition to paid employment (ILO, 2020).

Based on the existing literature on gender and home office, hypothesis 5A states that male workers had more frequent use of home office than female workers. The correlation between gender and home office was not significant, indicating that there is no relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 5A was therefore rejected. To the best of our knowledge, literature on men and the use of home office proved to be non-existing, thus this is an area in need of further research. Since the pre-existing literature on gender and home office proved to be lacking, this finding may be a unique contribution to the research on this topic.

WEDC proved to be relatively similar between the genders. The proportion of workers who find it easy to use digital tools is the same for both genders, and both women and men also agree that they miss face-to-face interactions with their colleagues (Grødem, 2020). Nevertheless, women become more tired of digital meetings, and find it more difficult than men to speak up in these types of meetings as opposed to physical meetings. Therefore, hypothesis 5B states that women's experience with digital communication is worse than for men. The correlation between gender and WEDC was significant in a negative way. At the same time, gender was a significantly negative predictor related to the dependent variable in the last stage of the regression analysis, meaning that men are more satisfied with digital communication than women. Hypothesis 5B was therefore confirmed. Since the pre-existing literature on WEDC and gender proved to be lacking, this finding may be a unique contribution to the research on this topic.

5.3.9 Working Hours

Hypothesis 6A stated that working hours are positively related to the frequency of home office use. This hypothesis was developed upon the basis that working from home has proven to impact employees' work-life balance negatively (Palumbo, 2020). The correlation showed a significant and positive correlation between working hours and home office, which confirmed hypothesis 6A. These findings are in alignment with previous research, which found that employees working from home are constantly connected to their phones and email in their leisure time, and that being in charge over their own working hours when working from home may result in many employees working longer days at home than they would have at the office

(Ingelsrud et al., 2022). This confirms and strengthens the validity and reliability of this thesis (Ingelsrud et al., 2022).

The current literature on the relationship between working hours and WEDC is limited. Based on the literature related to home office and working hours, hypothesis 6B was developed, and stated that working hours are positively related to WEDC. The correlation between working hours and WEDC was not significant, implying that there is no relationship between the variables. When working hours increase or decrease, this has no effect on the dependent variable. Therefore, hypothesis 6B was rejected. Since the current literature in this area is narrow, this thesis' results may be a potentially unique contribution to the state of knowledge on this issue.

5.3.10 Age

The most important findings during the growing research on older workers over the last 30 years indicates that workers can and should work longer, and that the workforce is, on average, both older and more varied in terms of age (Mykletun, 2023). The research related to the definition around older workers and when one becomes "older" varies widely, ranging from 40 years or older to 58.4 years or older (IPSOS, 2020; IPSOS, 2021; Kossoris, 1948; Mykletun, 2023; Solem & Mykletun, 1997; Tuckman & Lorge, 1953; Zacher & Rudolph, 2023). As shown in Table 1 in this thesis, the average age of the respondents in this thesis was 45.66 years.

Based on the theoretical framework, there was no basis for making any hypotheses related to the relationship between age and home office, as well as the relationship between age and the WEDC. Research questions 4A and 4B were developed instead. Research question 4A asked what the relationship between age and the frequency of home office use is. Research question 4B asked what the relationship between age and WEDC is.

The results of this thesis show that there was a positive correlation between age and home office. This indicates that when the use of home office increases, age also increases. In practice this means that there are more older people than younger people who work from home. This indicates that there is a positive relationship between age and the frequency of home office use.

The correlation between age and WEDC was not significant, which means that there is no relationship between these two variables. Put differently, if age increases, this has neither a positive or a negative effect on the variable WEDC. Due to the lack of previous studies that have examined how age is affected by home offices and the use of digital communication, the findings of this thesis can represent a unique contribution to knowledge on the issues.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

There are at least three limitations of this thesis. First, although the sample was representative and large, it only consists of the Norwegian working life, and the research is limited to Norwegian workers. This creates a limitation linked to the fact that this thesis' research should not be generalised on a global scale. For example, it could be interesting to compare different countries with each other to look at both the similarities and the differences.

Second, a quantitative method was used to collect data from the sample's participants. A questionnaire was utilised as the data collection technique, where the same set of questions was by each participant. However, the circumstances in which the questions were answered, and how accurately they were answered by the respondents is uncertain. Consequently, these results could be affected by participant motivation, individual and subjective responses, and errors in interpretation. This can lead to a misrepresentation of the questionnaire's items. Furthermore, multi-level analyses were not conducted as it would be unrealistic in this setting due to the random sample.

Third, the short timeline and limited resources associated with the thesis constitute the final limitation. This thesis could have been able to create a more comprehensive study and further deepen the knowledge of the results, with more time and resources. Extended time could have been spent to examine if there was more relevant literature related to the independent variables where the existing literature made it impossible to formulate hypotheses, and research questions were formulated instead. Further investigation into the causes of some of the variable's lack of significance or their lack of correlation to the dependent variable would also have been possible.

5.5 Implications for Further Research

Several areas of this thesis would be interesting and important to investigate further for various reasons. The first area in need of further research is predictability, as the current literature on predictability is limited, especially regarding home office and WEDC. Future studies should therefore consider investigating the relationship between predictability, home office, and WEDC. This is essential in order to increase the knowledge surrounding these relationships.

The second area in need of further research is age discrimination. This thesis included a broad sample of the working population in Norway, in contrast to other earlier research in this field that concentrated on industries where home office and digital tools are common. If the study had only included a sample from industries where the use of home office and digital tools is common, one could observe how the results related to home office and digital tools in relation to age discrimination would have changed. Are views toward workplaces where home offices and digital communication tools are common different for older employees than they are for the rest of the Norwegian working population? It could also be interesting to determine if any particular industries in relation to age discrimination were more remarkable than others. Is it true that older worker's opinions on using digital tools and home offices vary depending on the industry? Expanding the knowledge and exploring the reasons behind the results could also be intriguing. This can be accomplished by either adding extra questions about this subject to the questionnaire, or by including a qualitative research component, such as in-depth interviews with various sample respondents.

The third area in need of further research is mental distance (burnout) in relationship to home office. Mental withdrawal and depersonalised attitudes towards one's job increase the mental distance between colleagues working from home, and digital communication will most likely be preferred over personal communication. Further studies could place an emphasis on understanding how, and to what extent, mental distance affects home office, and the other way around.

The fourth area in need of further research is emotional impairment (burnout) in relation to home office, due to limited previous research. Further research should follow up the results of this thesis to investigate whether new research could reproduce the results under other conditions.

The fifth area in need of further research is exhaustion and WEDC. A proposal for further research could be to carry out the same study under conditions where the world is not affected by a pandemic.

The sixth and final area in need of further research is gender, especially in the context of men and home office. There exists a number of studies related to women and remote work, while studies related to men and remote work are, to the best of our knowledge, non-existent. The somewhat one-sided focus on women's roles without relating it to men's roles creates an incomplete picture. One-sided research on men and male roles will create corresponding incompleteness. Further research must therefore include both genders, and how they experience increased use of home offices and digital communication. This is important to ensure a representative sample of the gender's perception of home office and WEDC, and to further strengthen the reliability and validity of the research.

In addition to the above-mentioned implications, further research should also be considered on those relationships where little research has previously been done. This is essential in order to increase the knowledge surrounding these relationships. Related to home office, this applies to the variables predictability, organisational climate, social support, gender and age. When it comes to WEDC, this applies to the variables transformational leadership, predictability, control of decisions (autonomy), organisational climate, social support, emotional impairment (burnout), cognitive impairment (burnout), gender, working hours, and age.

5.6 Practical Implications for Norwegian Working Life

How the findings of this thesis can impact Norwegian working life, and what this thesis provides for others to benefit from, are important aspects to consider. The relationship between the two dependent variables home office and WEDC is one of the practical implications. The results of this thesis indicate that satisfaction with digital communication is higher for those who work from home, than those who do not. Leaders should in the future facilitate better opportunities for learning about digital communication for those who do not work from home, so that these employees can have the opportunity to use digital tools in their problem solving.

The relationship between burnout and home office provides another practical implication. The correlation shows that home offices seem to work tolerably well, measured against the four burnout variables exhaustion, mental distance, emotional impairment, and cognitive impairment. It is important to assess the extent to which home offices and digital tools are a risk for burnout. Since there was no overwhelming risk in this thesis' data, the risk of burnout will not be a risk in relation to the use of home office as a hybrid solution.

The results of this thesis show that home office has a positive relationship with transformational leadership. It is important to ask questions related to whether this is a cause-and-effect relationship. If so, leaders should practise transformational leadership when employees work from home. When employees work from home, leaders must work in a different way by adapting to each employee, to accommodate their individual needs. The increased distance between colleagues could perhaps lead to employees experiencing the need to be noticed and acknowledged to a larger extent than before.

The autonomy variables were also two variables that had a positive effect on the use of home office. This thesis argues that autonomy is a benefit in working life that releases energy for employees. Working more from home might help to create a vital workforce. This may also help to influence other variables mentioned in this thesis, such as organisational climate. This may therefore be interesting to investigate in further research. Further research should focus on autonomy as a potential driver of a vital working life.

The data utilised in this thesis was collected while the Covid-19 pandemic caused a state of emergency around the world. An important aspect to consider is whether the findings of this study are affected by this or not. One alternative for further research is performing the same study once the world has begun to normalise. This makes it possible to investigate if the results diverge from the outcomes of this thesis.

Based on the reflection above, home offices will not be a bad solution for organisations that are able to make use of this in the future. A hybrid solution, where organisations combine work at the workplace with home offices, will probably become more common due to experiences gained during the Covid-19 pandemic.

6.0 Conclusion

The aim of this thesis was to investigate the two dependent variables, home office and WEDC, with regard to multiple independent variables. Furthermore, the overall goal was to answer the four research problem statements presented in the problem statement. The results showed that home office was positively and significantly correlated to WEDC, which answers the first research problem statement.

The independent variables transformational leadership, control of work pacing (autonomy), control of decisions (autonomy), predictability of next two years (predictability), preference for challenge (predictability), organisational climate, social support, cognitive impairment (burnout), working hours, and age were positively and significantly correlated with home office. This indicates that an increase in the use of home office might lead to an increase in the independent variables. Exhaustion (burnout), mental distance (burnout), and emotional impairment (burnout) were negatively and significantly correlated with home office. This indicates that an increase in the use of home office might lead to a decrease in burnout. Age discrimination and gender were not significantly correlated with home office. This indicates that there is no relationship between the variables.

Gender, mental distance (burnout), control of work pacing (autonomy), and control of decisions (autonomy) were the only independent variables that were significantly correlated to the dependent variable WEDC. Based on this, these were included in the hierarchical multiple regression. Control of work pacing (autonomy) and mental distance (burnout) were both significantly positive predictors in the regression when all the relevant variables were taken into consideration. This implies that when control of work pacing and mental distance increases, WEDC improves. Gender was a significantly negative predictor in the regression. This implies that women's experience of digital communication is worse than for men. Even though control of decisions (autonomy) was significant and positively correlated to WEDC, this variable was not significant in the regression. Thus, the hypothesis related to the relationship between control of decisions (autonomy) and WEDC became partially confirmed. The relationship between these two variables can therefore not be ignored, in the present context, contribution of control of decisions is no longer significant. The reason is the interaction between control of decisions and the variables that remained significant in the regression analysis.

The relationship between the independent variables transformational leadership, control of work pacing (autonomy), control of decisions (autonomy), exhaustion (burnout), cognitive impairment (burnout) working hours, and the dependent variable home office aligns with previous research. The relationship between the independent variables predictability of next two years (predictability), preference for challenge (predictability), organisational climate, social support, gender, age, and the dependent variable home office contribute to the body of knowledge concerning these subjects. This is due to limited previous research. The relationship between the independent variables age discrimination, mental distance (burnout), emotional impairment (burnout), and the dependent variable home office conflicts with previous research.

The relationship between the independent variables control of work pacing (autonomy) and mental distance (burnout) related to the dependent variable WEDC aligns with previous research. The relationship between the independent variables transformational leadership, control of decisions (autonomy), predictability of next two years (predictability), preference for challenge (predictability), organisational climate, social support, emotional impairment (burnout), cognitive impairment (burnout), gender, working hours, age, and the dependent variable WEDC contribute to the body of knowledge concerning these subjects. This is due to limited previous research. The relationship between the independent variables age discrimination, exhaustion (burnout), and the dependent variable WEDC conflict with previous research.

While several phenomena are linked to home office, few phenomena show a correlation with how satisfied workers are with digital communication. For instance, the variables mental distance (burnout), control of work pacing (autonomy), and control of decisions (autonomy) are correlated with home office and WEDC, however with partial different effects. Mental distance correlates negatively with home office, and positively with WEDC. Control of work pacing, and control of decisions are positively correlated with home office and WEDC. However, the effect is stronger on home office than WEDC.

7.0 List of References

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire

JOBBKRAV

	<i>Hvilke krav stiller jobben din til deg?</i>	Mye mindre enn før	Mindre enn før	Ingen endring	Noe mer enn før	Mye mer enn før
15 G1	Har koronarestriksjonene for din del ført til at du jobber hjemmefra	1	2	3	4	5

BRUK AV DIGITALE VERKTØY TIL KOMMUNIKASJON

	<i>I hvilken grad er du enig eller uenig i følgende påstander om bruk av elektroniske kommunikasjonsverktøy? Hopp over denne blokken hvis du aldri bruker slike verktøy.</i>	Helt uenig	Litt uenig	Verken enig eller uenig	Litt enig	Helt enig
17 G3	De digitale kommunikasjonsverktøyene jeg har brukt er lette å bruke	1	2	3	4	5
18 G4	Jeg blir mer sliten av å kommunisere i digitale møter enn ansikt-til-ansikt	1	2	3	4	5
19 G5	Jeg synes det er vanskeligere å ta ordet i digitale møter enn i ansikt-til-ansikt-møter	1	2	3	4	5
20 G6	Jeg synes det er lettere å ta initiativ til digitale møter enn til ansikt-til-ansikt-møter.	1	2	3	4	5
21 G7	Selv om vi har digitale møter, savner jeg ansikt-til-ansikt-samtaler med kollegaer	1	2	3	4	5
22 G8	Jeg ønsker å erstatte ansikt-til-ansikt-møter med digitale møter så ofte som mulig, også etter at koronatiltakene er avsluttet	1	2	3	4	5

KONTROLL I ARBEIDET

	<i>Hva og hvor mye kan du selv bestemme i arbeidet ditt?</i>	Svært sjelden eller aldri	Nokså sjelden	Av og til	Nokså ofte	Svært ofte eller alltid
33 Q17	Kan du selv bestemme ditt arbeidstempo?	1	2	3	4	5
34 Q18	Kan du selv bestemme når du skal ta pauser?	1	2	3	4	5
35 Q19	Kan du selv bestemme lengden på pausene dine?	1	2	3	4	5
36 Q20	Kan du selv bestemme arbeidstiden din (for eksempel fleksitid)?	1	2	3	4	5
37 Q21	Hvis det finnes flere forskjellige måter å utføre arbeidet ditt på, kan du selv velge hvilken framgangsmåte du skal bruke?	1	2	3	4	5
38 Q22	Kan du påvirke mengden av arbeid som blir tildelt deg?	1	2	3	4	5
39 Q23	Kan du påvirke avgjørelser om hvilke personer du skal samarbeide med?	1	2	3	4	5
40 Q24	Kan du påvirke beslutninger som er viktige for ditt arbeid?	1	2	3	4	5

SOSIALT SAMSPILL

	<i>Hvordan fungerer samarbeid i ditt team?</i>	Svært sjelden eller aldri	Nokså sjelden	Av og til	Nokså ofte	Svært ofte eller alltid
41 Q31	Om du trenger det, kan du få støtte og hjelp i ditt arbeid fra dine arbeidskolleger?	1	2	3	4	5
42 Q32	Om du trenger det, er dine arbeidskolleger villige til å lytte til deg når du har problemer i arbeidet?	1	2	3	4	5
43 Q33	Blir dine arbeidsresultater verdsatt av dine arbeidskolleger?	1	2	3	4	5
44 Q34	Om du trenger det, kan du få støtte og hjelp i ditt arbeid fra din nærmeste leder?	1	2	3	4	5
45 Q35	Om du trenger det, er din nærmeste leder villig til å lytte til deg når du har problemer i arbeidet?	1	2	3	4	5
46 Q36	Blir dine arbeidsresultater verdsatt av din nærmeste leder?	1	2	3	4	5

LEDELSE – DEL 1

	<i>Her ber vi deg først ta stilling til hvordan din leder samarbeider med sitt team.</i>	Svært sjelden eller aldri	Nokså sjelden	Av og til	Nokså ofte	Svært ofte eller alltid
47 T1	Min nærmeste leder formidler en klar og positiv visjon om fremtiden	1	2	3	4	5
48 T2	Min nærmeste leder behandler personalet som enkelt-personer, støtter og oppmuntrer deres utvikling	1	2	3	4	5
49 T3	Min nærmeste leder gir oppmuntring og anerkjennelse til personalet	1	2	3	4	5
50 T4	Min nærmeste leder fremmer tillit, involvering og samarbeid	1	2	3	4	5
51 T5	Min nærmeste leder oppfordrer til å tenke på problemer på nye måter og utfordrer antagelser	1	2	3	4	5
52 T6	Min nærmeste leder er tydelig på sine verdier og viser dem i praksis	1	2	3	4	5
53 T7	Min nærmeste leder innprenter stolthet og respekt i andre og inspirerer med sin egen dyktighet	1	2	3	4	5

ORGANISASJONSKLIMA

	<i>Hvordan er klimaet i din arbeidsenhet /team?</i>	Svært lite eller ikke i det hele tatt	Nokså lite	I noen grad	Nokså mye	Svært mye
66Q49	Oppmuntrende og støttende	1	2	3	4	5
67Q50	Mistroisk og mistenksomt	1	2	3	4	5
68Q51	Avslappet og behagelig	1	2	3	4	5
69Q52	Tar de ansatte selv initiativ i din arbeidsenhet?	1	2	3	4	5
70Q53	Blir de ansatte oppmuntret til å tenke ut hvordan en kan gjøre tingene bedre i din arbeidsenhet?	1	2	3	4	5
71Q54	Er det god nok kommunikasjon i din arbeidsenhet?	1	2	3	4	5
72Q55	Får du belønning for velgjort arbeid i din arbeidsenhet?	1	2	3	4	5
73Q56	Blir de ansatte tatt godt vare på i din arbeidsenhet?	1	2	3	4	5
74Q57	Hvor mye er ledelsen i din enhet opptatt av ansattes helse og velvære?	1	2	3	4	5

FORUTSIGBARHET I ARBEIDET

	<i>Hvordan tenker du om fremtiden i jobben din?</i>	Svært lite eller ikke i det hele tatt	Nokså lite	I noen grad	Nokså mye	Svært mye
108Q25	Vet du hva som kreves for at du skal kunne få et arbeid som du synes er attraktivt om to år?	1	2	3	4	5
109Q26	Vet du hvilke nye kunnskaper og ferdigheter du bør skaffe deg for å ha en attraktiv jobb om to år?	1	2	3	4	5
110Q27	Tror du at du om to år har en jobb som du synes er like attraktiv som den nåværende?	1	2	3	4	5
111Q28	Liker du utfordringer som følger med det å få nye arbeidsoppgaver?	1	2	3	4	5
112Q29	Liker du utfordringer som følger med det å arbeide med nye kolleger?	1	2	3	4	5
113Q30	Liker du utfordringer som følger med det å arbeide på nye steder?	1	2	3	4	5

ALDER OG ARBEID (NAD)

Nedenfor følger noen påstander om arbeidsforholdene for eldre arbeidstakere på din arbeidsplass. Vennligst oppgi i hvilken grad du er enig eller uenig i hver av disse påstandene.

	<i>Hvor enig eller uenig er du i følgende påstander om hvordan eldre og yngre blir behandlet på i ditt team?</i>	Helt uenig	Delvis uenig	Verken uenig eller enig	Delvis enig	Helt enig
125 FM1	Eldre forbigås ved forfremmelse og intern rekruttering	1	2	3	4	5
126 FM2	Eldre får sjeldnere være med på kurs og opplæring i arbeidstida	1	2	3	4	5
127 FM3	Yngre arbeidstakere blir foretrukket når ny teknologi (nye maskiner), aktiviteter eller arbeidsmåter skal innføres	1	2	3	4	5
128 FM4	Eldre får sjeldnere enn sine yngre medarbeidere være med på samtaler om videreutvikling / egen karriere / kurs med leder	1	2	3	4	5
129 FM5	Eldre stopper mer opp i lønnsøkning enn hva yngre medarbeidere gjør	1	2	3	4	5
130 FM6	Det forventes ikke at eldre medarbeidere skal være med på omstilling, endringer og nye arbeidsmåter i samme grad som de yngre	1	2	3	4	5

UTBRENTHET

	<i>Hvordan reagerer du på jobben din?</i>	Aldri	Sjelden	Av og til	Ofte	Alltid
156 e1	På jobb føler jeg meg mentalt utmattet	1	2	3	4	5
157 e2	Etter en dag på jobben synes jeg det er vanskelig å få tilbake energien	1	2	3	4	5
158 e3	På jobb føler jeg meg fysisk utmattet	1	2	3	4	5
159 md1	Jeg sliter med å finne entusiasme for arbeidet mitt	1	2	3	4	5
160 md2	På jobben tenker jeg ikke så mye på hva jeg holder på med og fungerer på autopilot	1	2	3	4	5
161 md3	Jeg bryr meg lite om hva arbeidet mitt betyr for andre	1	2	3	4	5
162 ei1	På jobb føler jeg meg ikke i stand til å kontrollere følelsene mine	1	2	3	4	5
163 ei2	Jeg kjenner meg ikke igjen i måten jeg reagerer følelsesmessig på jobben	1	2	3	4	5
164 ei3	På jobben kan jeg overreagere utilsiktet	1	2	3	4	5
165 ei1	På jobb har jeg problemer med å holde meg fokusert	1	2	3	4	5

171 Hvor mange timer pr. uke arbeider du vanligvis? _____

175 Hvilket år er du født? _____

176 Er du mann () kvinne () annet ()

Appendix 2: Reliability and Factor Analysis

Transformational leadership

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.950	7

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.936
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	9914.893
	df	21
	Sig.	.000

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
Min nærmeste leder fremmer tillit, involvering og samarbeid	.910
Min nærmeste leder gir oppmuntring og anerkjennelse til personalet -	.903
Min nærmeste leder behandler personalet som enkelt-personer, støtter og oppmuntrer deres utvikling	.890
Min nærmeste leder innprenter stolthet og respekt i andre og inspirerer med sin egen dyktighet	.888
Min nærmeste leder er tydelig på sine verdier og viser dem i praksis -	.873
Min nærmeste leder formidler en klar og positiv visjon om fremtiden -	.838
Min nærmeste leder oppfordrer til å tenke på problemer på nye måter og utfordrer antagelser	.830

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Autonomy 1: Control of work pacing

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.867	4

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.802
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3296.205
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
Kan du selv bestemme lengden på pausene dine?	.908
Kan du selv bestemme når du skal ta pauser?	.900
Kan du selv bestemme arbeidstiden din (for eksempel fleksitid)?	.810
Kan du selv bestemme ditt arbeidstempo?	.776

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Autonomy 2: Control of decisions

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.760	4

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.753
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1437.857
	df	6
	Sig.	<.001

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
Kan du påvirke beslutninger som er viktige for ditt arbeid?	.791
Kan du påvirke avgjørelser om hvilke personer du skal samarbeide med?	.783
Kan du påvirke mengden av arbeid som blir tildelt deg?	.756
Hvis det finnes flere forskjellige måter å utføre arbeidet ditt på, kan du selv velge hvilken framgangsmåte du skal bruke?	.725

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Predictability 1: Predictability of next two years

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.796	3

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.656
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1677.537
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
Vet du hva som kreves for at du skal kunne få et arbeid som du synes er attraktivt om to år?	.894
Vet du hvilke nye kunnskaper og ferdigheter du bør skaffe deg for å ha en attraktiv jobb om to år?	.889
Tror du at du om to år har en jobb som du synes er like attraktiv som den nåværende?	.748

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Predictability 2: Preference for challenge

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.807	3

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.705
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1515.297
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
Liker du utfordringer som følger med det å arbeide med nye kolleger?	.877
Liker du utfordringer som følger med det å arbeide på nye steder?	.845
Liker du utfordringer som følger med det å få nye arbeidsoppgaver?	.830

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Organisational Climate

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.878	8

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.891
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5494.798
	df	28
	Sig.	.000

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
Blir de ansatte tatt godt vare på i din arbeidsenhet	.821
Er det god nok kommunikasjon i din arbeidsenhet?	.792
Oppmuntrende og støttende	.792
Hvor mye er ledelsen i din enhet opptatt av ansattes helse og velvære?	.751
Blir de ansatte oppmuntret til å tenke ut hvordan en kan gjøre tingene bedre i din arbeidsenhet?	.748
Avslappet og behagelig	.695
Tar de ansatte selv initiativ i din arbeidsenhet?	.678
Får du belønning for velgjort arbeid i din arbeidsenhet?	.620

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Social Support

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.884	6

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.811
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5364.901
	df	15
	Sig.	.000

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
Om du trenger det, kan du få støtte og hjelp i ditt arbeid fra din nærmeste leder? -	.856
Om du trenger det, er din nærmeste leder villig til å lytte til deg når du har problemer i arbeidet?	.850
Blir dine arbeidsresultater verdsatt av din nærmeste leder? -	.813
Om du trenger det, er dine arbeidskolleger villige til å lytte til deg når du har problemer i arbeidet?	.778
Blir dine arbeidsresultater verdsatt av dine arbeidskolleger? -	.759
Om du trenger det, kan du få støtte og hjelp i ditt arbeid fra dine arbeidskolleger?	.717

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Burnout 1: Exhaustion

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.859	.860	3

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.735
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2070.422
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
Etter en dag på jobben synes jeg det er vanskelig å få tilbake energien	.891
På jobb føler jeg meg mentalt utmattet	.885
På jobb føler jeg meg fysisk utmattet	.874

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted

Burnout 2: Mental distance

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.672	.672	3

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.656
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	686.124
	df	3
	Sig.	<.001

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
På jobben tenker jeg ikke så mye på hva jeg holder på med og fungerer på autopilot	.798
Jeg sliter med å finne entusiasme for arbeidet mitt	.794
Jeg bryr meg lite om hva arbeidet mitt betyr for andre	.738

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Burnout 3: Emotional impairment

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.806	.806	3

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.712
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1463.146
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
Jeg kjenner meg ikke igjen i måten jeg reagerer følelsesmessig på jobben	.863
På jobb føler jeg meg ikke i stand til å kontrollere følelsene mine	.846
På jobben kan jeg overreagere utilsiktet -	.839

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Burnout 4: Cognitive impairment

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.841	.839	3

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.673
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2161.397
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
Når jeg jobber, har jeg problemer med å konsentrere meg -	.911
På jobb har jeg problemer med å holde meg fokusert	.911
Jeg gjør feil i arbeidet mitt fordi jeg tenker på andre ting	.785

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Appendix 3: Multiple Hierarchical Regression

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
						F Change	df1	df2	
1	,148 ^a	,022	,021	,79499	,022	15,925	2	1417	<,001
2	,155 ^b	,024	,022	,79439	,002	3,137	1	1416	,077
3	,210 ^c	,044	,040	,78709	,020	9,804	3	1413	<,001

a. Predictors: (Constant), Mental distance, Er du mann eller kvinne?

b. Predictors: (Constant), Mental distance, Er du mann eller kvinne?, Aldersdiskriminering

c. Predictors: (Constant), Mental distance, Er du mann eller kvinne?, Aldersdiskriminering, Nyhetsorientert, Autonomi intensitet, Autonomi arbeidsmåter

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta			
1	(Constant)	2,522	,090			27,915	<,001
	Er du mann eller kvinne?	-,179	,042	-,111***		-4,208	<,001
	Mental distance	,104	,028	,098***		3,727	<,001
2	(Constant)	2,610	,103			25,308	<,001
	Er du mann eller kvinne?	-,179	,042	-,111***		-4,222	<,001
	Mental distance	,115	,029	,108***		4,023	<,001
3	Aldersdiskriminering	-,045	,025	-,048		-1,771	,077
	(Constant)	2,280	,188			12,126	<,001
	Er du mann eller kvinne?	-,124	,044	-,077**		-2,828	,005
	Mental distance	,126	,030	,119***		4,252	<,001
	Aldersdiskriminering	-,040	,025	-,043		-1,597	,110
3	Autonomi intensitet	,102	,023	,148***		4,512	<,001
	Autonomi arbeidsmåter	-,002	,032	-,002		-,070	,944
	Nyhetsorientert	-,032	,027	-,032		-1,167	,243

a. Dependent Variable: Worker's experience with digital communication

Significance level: ** p < .05, ***p < 0.01

Appendix 4: Distribution of the Home Office Variable

Har koronarestriksjonene for din del ført til at du jobber hjemmefra - Hvilke krav stiller jobben din til deg?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Mye mindre enn før	51	3,4	3,4	3,4
	Mindre enn før	17	1,1	1,1	4,5
	Ingen endring	697	46,4	46,4	50,9
	Noe mer enn før	288	19,2	19,2	70,1
	Mye mer enn før	450	29,9	29,9	100,0
	Total	1503	100,0	100,0	