# Unmuting: the variances in teleworkers' affective organizational commitment and perceived work-life interference
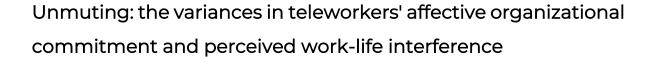
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Department of Marketing, Operation and Management

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**Abstract**

Prompted by the COVID-19 pandemic and technological advancements, telework has profoundly reshaped the work paradigm. Telework has become the new "normal". However, the way it is perceived and how it impacts employees' is still unclear. This study delves into the relationship between telework intensity and employees' affective commitment and work-life interference perception. Two independent studies were conducted for this analysis, employing inferential statistical methods.

In both studies, there was no statistical significance between telework intensity and the two variables. However, the results revealed lower levels of affective commitment for high-intensity teleworkers compared to non-teleworkers. Individuals engaged in low/ moderate telework intensities experience lower levels of work-life interference than those who telework in high intensity. This research contributes to expanding our understanding of the effect of telework intensity on work-life interference and affective commitment in a post-pandemic stage, which remains largely unexplored.

**Resumo**

Impulsionado pela pandemia da COVID-19 e pelos avanços tecnológicos, o teletrabalho veio reconfigurar profundamente o paradigma de trabalho. O teletrabalho tornou-se o novo "normal". No entanto, a forma como é percecionado e como impacta os trabalhadores ainda não está clara. Este estudo investiga como a intensidade do teletrabalho faz variar o comprometimento afetivo dos teletrabalhadores e na interferência entre trabalho e vida pessoal percecionada. Neste âmbito, foram conduzidos dois estudos independentes para esta análise, utilizando métodos estatísticos inferenciais.

Em ambos os estudos, não foram encontradas diferenças estatisticamente significativas entre a intensidade do teletrabalho para as duas variáveis em estudo. No entanto, os resultados revelaram níveis mais baixos de comprometimento afetivo para os teletrabalhadores de alta intensidade em comparação com os não-teletrabalhadores e, adicionalmente, indivíduos envolvidos em intensidades de teletrabalho baixas/moderadas manifestaram níveis mais baixos de interferência entre trabalho e vida pessoal em comparação com aqueles que fazem teletrabalho com alta intensidade. Esta pesquisa contribui para expandir a nossa compreensão sobre o efeito da intensidade do teletrabalho na interferência entre trabalho e vida pessoal e no comprometimento afetivo numa fase pós-pandémica, ainda em grande parte inexplorada.

**Palavras-chaves:** Intensidade do Teletrabalho; Interferência Trabalho-Vida; Conflito Trabalho-Vida; Comprometimento Afetivo; Teoria dos limites; Teoria da Coesão Relacional;

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# 1. Introduction

## 1.1 Theoretical contextualization

Nowadays, teleworking is a reality for millions of employees worldwide.

Telework refers to working outside the ordinary workplace, using Information and Communication Technologies to interact with colleagues and management (Allen et al., 2015).

Although the concept is not new, teleworking experienced a significant increase during the COVID-19 pandemic when companies were forced to adopt home-based work arrangements to respond to the global lockdowns and other related restrictions (ILO, 2020).

Before the COVID-19 pandemic, many organizations offered telework in response to their employees' demands for improved work-life balance (Solís, 2016). The enhanced autonomy and flexibility in managing work and personal tasks this work modality offered, was linked to benefits for workers (Tavares, 2017). In the pre-pandemic context, teleworking was only used sporadically and on a voluntary agreement basis. The unusual circumstances of forced telework during the COVID-19 lockdown caused a shift in the working context (Andrade & Lousã, 2021), profoundly impacting how organizations operate and the relationship between employees and employers (Contreras et al., 2020).

Under normal circumstances, teleworking benefits its users, allowing a better balance between work and family (Vilhelmson & Thulin, 2016). However, some studies have also identified some negative impacts on work–life balance (Felstead & Henseke, 2017).

During the COVID-19 pandemic, new challenges emerged, and the negative effects of this work style were highlighted (Andrade & Lousã, 2021; Maier et al., 2022). During the pandemic, it was observed that teleworking is associated with longer working hours and that the constant connection to work, especially through continuous access to work and electronic devices, makes it challenging to disconnect from work, consequently increasing work-family conflict (Andrade & Lousã, 2021; Samek Lodovici et al., 2021). Furthermore, teleworking has changed how employees emotionally connect with organizations. Reduced social interactions can exacerbate social isolation and deteriorate relationships with colleagues (Golden & Veiga, 2005; Wang et al., 2020).

In this context, the perception of work-life interference and employees' affective commitment towards organizations as significant predictors of organizational behaviour, have emerged as subjects of debate and have generated interest in studying how they are influenced by telework.

The balance between work and personal life has become significant within organizations and individuals in recent decades. It has proven to be the most determinant factor in employee productivity, positively impacting overall organizational performance and reducing turnover (Helmle et al., 2014; Semlali & Hassi, 2016). On the other hand, work-life interference, equivalent to the imbalance between work and personal life, has been associated with various undesirable outcomes, including professional burnout and decreased job satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

As for affective commitment, this factor has gained considerable importance over the years and has become an essential element in research to understand employees, organizations, and their behaviours (Al Momani, 2017). The affective component of organizational commitment, which encompasses the emotional bond between the employee and the organization, has been identified as a central element in employee engagement and in explaining their decision to either remain with or leave the organization (Mercurio, 2015).

## 1.2 Theme relevance

The increasing reliance on telework in contemporary work environments underscores this study's pertinence (Eurofound, 2022).

As organizations intend to continue adopting this work modality, assessing its impact on employees is becoming increasingly important. This is particularly crucial regarding their emotional attachment to the organization and their perception of how work affects their personal life, two critical factors in talent retention. Furthermore, understanding the relationships between telework intensity and these variables can provide important insights for companies implementing this work modality, helping them adapt Human Resources policies and management strategies to mitigate its negative impacts and enhance employee satisfaction. As a relatively new topic, there is still limited literature addressing the impact of this flexible work modality, especially in the post-pandemic context, which differs from the pandemic or pre-pandemic reality (Breda & Kyobe, 2022).

This study's investigation problem lies in understanding how the intensity of telework, measured by the telework frequency, influences two critical aspects of employees' professional lives: affective organizational commitment and work-life interference.

This research has two underlying objectives. The first involves analysing variations in employees' affective commitment levels concerning different levels of telework intensity (including teleworkers and non-teleworkers). The second aims to assess possible variations in

the perception of work-life interference among telecommuters based on different levels of telework intensity.

In line with the research objectives, we have formulated the following research questions that we seek to address with this study: How does telework intensity affect employees' affective commitment? How does the telework arrangement affect employees' perception of work-life interference?

This thesis is structured into several chapters to explore the research questions and objectives comprehensively. Chapter two extensively reviews relevant literature, offering insights into the existing body of knowledge regarding telework, affective commitment, work-life interference, and related constructs. Chapter three details the methodology employed, including data collection and analysis procedures. In this are presented the study findings and their discussion in the context of the research questions and objectives. Chapters four, five and six conclude the thesis, summarizing key findings, their implications, and potential avenues for future research.

## 2. Literature Review

This chapter further explores the constructs of telework, affective commitment, and work-life interference. An extensive review of the existing literature will be presented to help us gain a deeper understanding of the topic at hand and provide a solid foundation for further study.

**2.1 Telework**

**2.1.1 History and Definition**

The concept of telework, initially known as telecommuting, was first introduced by Jack Nilles, who defined it as using telecommunications technology to replace travel partially or totally to and from work (Nilles, 1975).

The roots of telework can be traced back to the 1970s when the United States oil crisis prompted a search for solutions to reduce commuting time in major metropolitan areas and gasoline consumption (Nilles, 1975). Additionally, the advancements in information and communication technologies allowed the possibility of a new work modality outside the traditional central office (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Baruch, 2001).

In telework research, there is no universally accepted definition of "telework" (Martínez-Sanchez et al., 2007). Despite extensive discussion, defining telework remains challenging due to its multifaceted nature. Therefore, Allen et al. (2003) advocate that telework needs to be understood as a multidimensional concept, considering that telework arrangements can differ in frequency, location, autonomy, and formality of policies. Since Nilles (1975) first introduced the term "telecommuting", other researchers have proposed various definitions and terms. A variety of terms, such as telecommuting, remote work, e-work, and agile work, have been used interchangeably in the literature to indicate this type of work, which is not constrained to an office environment and uses communication/ collaboration tools to connect workers (Grant et al., 2019).

Later on, Allen et al. (2015) defined teleworking as a work practice where employees replace a portion of their regular work hours to work away from the employer's headquarters, most commonly from home, using technology to interact and conduct the work tasks. Furthermore, the definition recognizes that telework can be done part-time or as a more flexible work arrangement full-time (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

Regarding location, telework can occur in various settings, such as satellite offices, telecentres, professional workspaces, public spaces, and, more commonly, workers' homes (Donnelly & Proctor-Thomson, 2015).

In Portugal, teleworking is subject to a specific agreement between the parties and cannot be unilaterally imposed. According to Article 165 of the Portuguese Labor Code (Law No. 7/2009, February 12, updated on December 6, 2021), it involves "the provision of labour performed under a legal subordination regime, in a place not determined by the employer, and through the use of information and communication technologies". Accordingly, we used this definition to understand the term under investigation, as our study reflects the Portuguese reality.

Although the adoption of telework has been slowly increasing in recent years, it was only after the COVID-19 outbreak that it experienced exponential growth (Eurofound, 2022). In response to the global COVID-19 lockdowns and other pandemic-related restrictions, most companies worldwide were forced to adopt a telework regime to ensure their employees' safety and business continuity (UGT, 2023).

Working from home became the norm for millions of workers in the European Union and worldwide during the pandemic. Estimates suggest that nearly 40% of employees in the European Union began to telework full-time due to the pandemic (Eurofound, 2020).

In normal conditions, teleworking was used as a voluntary work arrangement by both workers and employers, but the COVID-19 pandemic changed this paradigm, making it mandatory and full-time. Although initially teleworking was faced as a short-term solution, nowadays it is perceived as the new "normal" working modality, as companies continue adopting it (ILO, 2021).

The COVID-19 outbreak exposed discrepancies in telework prevalence among European states, sectors, and careers. Access to telework depended on factors like management styles, work organization, and country legislation, leading to different adoption rates across other countries and industries (European Commission, 2020). Sectors that already relied a lot on information and communication technology and employed high-skilled revealed higher preparedness to adopt telework at a large scale although with still significant differences across European Union countries (European Commission, 2020).

In Portugal, according to data from the National Institute of Statistics, in the 2nd quarter of 2020, 23.1% of the total employed population reported having performed their profession always or almost always from home. Following the mandatory regime in the 3rd quarter of 2022, the proportion of the employed population engaged in teleworking was equal to 17%, a decrease of 2.6 percentage points compared to the 2nd quarter of 2022 (UGT, 2023).

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The main difference from the pandemic period to the present, encompasses the shift from a full-time telework arrangement to a part-time one that combines in-person workdays with remote workdays (Eurofound, 2021).

### 2.1.2 Telework Intensity

The concept of telework depends on different characteristics (Madsen, 2003).

Telework or a teleworker can be defined considering telework intensity, timework, and place (Nakrošienė et al., 2019). It is assumed that these telework characteristics can influence different telework outcomes (Golden & Veiga, 2008). Traditionally, early teleworking studies compared work-related outcomes between teleworkers and non-teleworkers. (Allen et al., 2015; Bloom et al., 2015; Gajendran et al., 2015). However, by not considering telework intensity, those studies led to conflicting results regarding the effect of teleworking intensity on firm-related outcomes (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). In recent studies, telework intensity has been incorporated to better understand how teleworking affects work outcomes. (Allen et al., 2015; Golden & Veiga, 2005).

Telework intensity is the amount of scheduled time employees spend working away from the work site, ranging from low to high (Allen et al., 2015; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

Prior studies suggest that the debate has shifted from telework or non-telework to its frequency or intensity (Urien, 2023).

In this research, we will study the impact of teleworking, according to its intensity, on the affective commitment and work-life interference.

### 2.1.3 Vantages and Disadvantages

Extensive research has delved into the impacts of teleworking on organizations and employees, uncovering a wide array of consequences, some beneficial and some detrimental. It's important to contextualize the specific outcomes of telework highlighted in existing literature, especially at the individual level, to conduct some considerations and relations in the present study.

Regarding the advantages, teleworking fosters employees' sense of autonomy and greater ability to act independently, effectively alleviating perceived stress (Delanoeije & Verbruggen, 2020; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). It also improves work-life balance by saving time on commuting and providing flexibility. (Nakrošiene et al., 2019; Tavares, 2017). Teleworkers can plan their work schedules to better allocate their hours to personal pursuits or additional

work commitments. This flexibility enables them to work during their most productive hours, enhancing productivity while registering fewer interruptions and distractions (Nakrošiene et al., 2019; Tavares, 2017). The advantages continue as teleworkers frequently exhibit elevated morale and job satisfaction (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Tavares, 2017). Moreover, teleworking helps mitigate the challenges of office politics and conflicts, enabling employees to concentrate on task accomplishment and performance (Tavares, 2017).

Conversely, disadvantages also do exist, and social isolation emerges as a potential drawback, in this sense. Teleworkers often work isolated for extended periods, lacking social interactions (Toscano & Zappalà, 2020). The blurring of boundaries between work and home life is another concerning aspect of teleworking, potentially leading to family conflicts and reduced personal time (Tavares, 2017). Additionally, "presenteeism" is also a considered negative consequence of telework, as teleworkers may tend, while working remotely, to dedicate long hours to work when sick or unwell, ignoring the need to rest and take after their health (Nakrošiene et al., 2019; Tavares, 2017). Furthermore, some teleworkers suffer from challenges related to technical support and access to necessary equipment, ultimately hindering their productivity (Tavares, 2017).

The adverse impact of social isolation is further emphasized as teleworkers often spend extended periods working alone, lacking social interaction (Eurofound, 2021; Wang et al., 2020), thereby straining relationships among coworkers. Golden's (2007) study revealed that the more time employees work from home, the more negative the impact of teleworker prevalence on coworker satisfaction.

Teleworking is also linked to the risk of work overloads and extended work in non-standard hours, prompted by the pressure to be connected 24/7 (Eurofound, 2021). Existing evidence highlights a curvilinear link between the intensity of telework and job satisfaction, where satisfaction tends to plateau at higher levels of telework (Golden & Veiga, 2005).

The perception of teleworking as a "privilege" the employer offers can substantially enhance the employee teleworking experience (Golden, 2006). Employees' perception and understanding of telework are crucial factors in shaping their experience.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, teleworking was abruptly implemented, possibly altering employee perceptions and engagement in telework. These experiences may differ from regular teleworking, considering that the voluntary nature of telework can significantly impact how employees view teleworking arrangements (Kaluza & Van Dick, 2023).

To sum up, telework presents a complex array of positive and negative consequences, which can be influenced by various factors, including the intensity level at which telework is

implemented. After presenting the relevant literature on teleworking, we will discuss affective commitment.

### 2.1 Affective Commitment

### 2.2.1   Definition

Affective commitment encompasses the emotional bond established between an employee and the organization (Chakra & Charef, 2022) and comprises one of the three components of organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Organizational commitment was previously conceptualized as a psychological connection between an employee and their organization that reduces the likelihood of voluntary intention to leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment translates the quality of the relationship binding the individual to the organization: the stronger the commitment, the stronger the connection between the person and the organization (Chakra & Charef, 2022). Commitment prompts individual acceptance and action toward the organization's objectives (Chakra & Charef, 2022).

Organizational commitment has gained significance over the years and is crucial to employee retention and turnover (Mercurio, 2015). Understanding organizational commitment and its components is vital for organizational stability and to reduce staff turnover (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

In addition to affective commitment, organizational commitment also includes the continuance commitment (related to the perceived financial or social costs and risks associated with leaving the organization) and the normative commitment (related to a perceived moral obligation to remain with that organization) compose the three components of organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

All three are essential for a complete understanding of organizational commitment. However, according to recent studies emotion-based commitment demonstrates the strongest connections to various organizational psychology variables and when it weakens, may endanger the organization (Simon et al., 2023).

### 2.2.2 Predictors and Consequences

To study affective organizational commitment, it is important to understand the elements that predict it and the outcomes it encompasses for workers and, consequently, organizations, considering the teleworking paradigm.

Affective commitment levels exhibit a negative association with feelings of social isolation by hindering employees' ability to nurture positive interpersonal relationships and building a favourable reputation within their workplace (Wang et al., 2020). Professionally isolated workers feel less bound to their organization and less satisfied regarding their fundamental need to belong (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Mann & Holdsworth, 2003).

The relational cohesion theory allows us to explain this association, as it explains how individuals form emotional connections with organizations based on their attachments/ relationships to others within the organization (Thye et al., 2002)

The emotional bond between employees and their organizations is associated with various positive organizational outcomes, such as lower absenteeism and turnover, improved performance, and organizational citizenship behaviours (Mercurio,2015). At the individual level, it is associated with less vulnerability to stress, improved work-life balance and exhaustion, enhanced productivity (Meyer et al., 2002; Tang & Vandenberghe, 2020).

Collaborators with higher affective commitment tend to be more enthusiastic about their work and committed to the organization's success, with less intention to leave it (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002).

After reviewing the literature on teleworking and affective organizational commitment, we will now address work-life interference.

## 2.3 Work life interference

### 2.3.1 Definition

Work-life balance is conceptualized as the level of individual satisfaction when the harmony between all living areas and balance between life and work responsibilities is achieved (Grady et al., 2008). Abendroth and Den Dulk (2011) refer to it as the harmonious interface between an individual's personal and professional life, including family, leisure, and other non-work commitments. It is determined by one's ability to efficiently manage personal and professional demands, seamlessly switch roles, and establish clear boundaries between personal and professional spheres (Grant et al., 2019).

Work– life balance arrangements and practices refer to initiatives voluntarily introduced by firms which facilitate the reconciliation of employees work and personal lives (Darcy et al., 2012).

Achieving a harmonious balance between these two domains can increase employee motivation and less stress (Johari et al., 2018). Moreover, it enables them to focus on work, resulting in better performance (Kim, 2014).

Conversely, work–life interference translates the lack of balance, defined as an inter-role conflict when work demands conflict with personal life demands or vice versa (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Initially conceptualized as work-family conflict, this term evolved to encompass all life or non-work interference (Fisher, et al., 2009). This expanded definition, including all non-work domains, was used in the current study because it makes the research applicable to all workers, not just those with families.

Nevertheless, recognizing the limited body of research in this specific domain, our theoretical framework also incorporates insights from the broader field of work-family studies. This inclusion allows us to provide a more comprehensive perspective on the topic.

The more individuals experience job demands, such as work overload and time pressure, the more work–life conflict they experience (Lott & Wöhrmann, 2023). The results revealed that role overload, after-hours work-related technology use, and low job autonomy predicted work–family conflict (Andrade & Lousã, 2021).

Some theories interpreting the relationships between work and family or nonwork-life enable a better understanding of the work-life interference concept. Among them, the role and boundary theories seem the most pertinent for this study (Ashforth et al., 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

The Role Theory delves into how individuals manage their roles in different life domains and the conflicts that may arise (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). It proposes that individuals play multiple roles in their daily life from the work and nonwork domains. Those different roles are often incompatible, which may lead to inter-role conflict.

Conversely, the Boundary theory manages the boundaries between their work and personal lives and the process of transitioning between those different life roles (Ashforth et al., 2000). The boundary theory examines how the permeability and flexibility of these boundaries can influence work-life interference.

Permeability refers to the degree to which elements from one domain trespass upon another domain. In practical terms, high permeability occurs when work-related tasks, for instance, spill over into the individual's personal or family life, and vice versa (Ashforth et al., 2000). This may manifest, for instance, in more frequent interruptions and transitions between work

and non-work tasks and roles which may cause higher work-non-work interference (Allen et al., 2021).

Flexibility, on the other side, comprises the degree to which individuals can perform a role at different times or in various spaces. It's about boundaries and how they can be extended. For instance, individuals with high flexibility can choose when and where to perform their work tasks and personal responsibilities, which happens with teleworkers (Ashforth et al., 2000).

This theory offers insights into how individuals can mitigate work-life interference and achieve work-life balance by effectively managing the boundaries between these two domains (Ashforth et al., 2000).

The teleworking domain reveals high permeability, when associated to frequent interruptions from family members, for instance (Zhang et al., 2020). Telework itself implies both spatial and temporal flexibility, enabling teleworkers to choose from where to telework, and to control autonomously their time schedule to accommodate both professional and personal commitments (Zhang et al., 2020). However, working and personal life boundaries can become blurred with flexi-time and flexi-place working (Zhang et al., 2020). Kossek et al. (2006) found that remote e-workers who separated the boundaries between work and family, had more control over where and when they worked and reported positive individual well-being.

Moreover, with the information and communications technologies development, employees are pressured to be constantly available to meet professional demands, beyond typical working hours, opening boundary breaches that can harm individuals' ability to detach from work and switch off (Andrade & Lousã, 2021).

In addition, the permanent connectivity to the workplace via technological devices, smartphones in particular, might lead to more interruptions of the non-working time, increasing stress levels and, thus, reducing the amount of time left for recuperation (Fernández-Fernández, et al., 2023).

The inability to fully disengage from work can lead to increased family-to-work conflict, negatively impacting their family-oriented roles (Eddleston & Mulki, 2017).

We have finished presenting the relevant concepts and theories that elucidate the behaviour of the variables in study. In the following section, we will delve into the impact of teleworking, more specifically its intensity, on the affective commitment and perception of work-life interference of employees.

## 2.4 Telework Intensity and Affective Commitment

Although telework is not a recent concept, it only gained significant attention with the pandemic. As such, the literature in this field, especially concerning the impact of teleworking intensity on affective commitment, remains vague. Nonetheless, some authors suggest, directly or indirectly, that teleworking intensity influences affective commitment, and we will address this.

Guilbert et al. (2022) suggested that the increase in telework frequency is directly associated with a decrease in workers' work-life satisfaction and affective organizational commitment, due to the deterioration of their work-family balance satisfaction.

Telework is linked to increased job demands and longer working hour, however the extension of the workday reduces affective commitment and increases emotional exhaustion. (Torner, 2023).

Indeed, Gajendran and Harrison (2007) concluded that only employees who telework more than twice a week felt isolated and reported lower engagement with their organization. Similarly, a meta-analysis of telework research found that 'high-intensity' telework, defined as working at home more than 2.5 days per week, had a negative relationship with co-worker relationship quality; however, this effect was not found with 'low-intensity' telework (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

Moreover, Simon et al. (2023) studied the impact of time spent working from home on affective commitment. They concluded that the more time employees spend away from their workplace, the harder it becomes for them to maintain their social relationships. Thus, from a social perspective, the negative impacts in their relationships, cannot be compensated by the extra time they spend with their family. Since the time spent working from home weakens social contact, the experience of collective purpose will also be affected, leading to a decline in affective commitment (Simon et al., 2023).

Based on the literature presented, hypothetically, we consider that the intensity of telework may negatively influence employees' affective commitment. This consideration acknowledges the crucial role of social components and interpersonal relationships in employees' sense of being an integral part of the organization (Thye et al., 2002).


## 2.5 Telework Intensity and Work-life Interference

Telework has, firstly, been considered in the literature as a flexible work modality with potential benefits for workers to manage work–family needs (Gajendran & Harrison 2007),

and, consequently, as a means of lessening work–family conflict (Madsen, 2003). Golden et al. (2006) reported that work interference on family reduces with an increase in the extent of teleworking. As telecommuters have more control and flexibility in setting their work schedules, allocating time to work and family properly, they are more likely to experience decreased work-life conflict (Sarbu, 2018).

In contrast, other scholars present a contrary point of view and express concerns about the risk of exacerbating role conflicts due to teleworking, particularly in managing family and professional responsibilities (Lonska et al., 2021). Telework may increase work-life conflict by blurring the lines between the work and non-work domains, making boundary violations more likely and, as a result, create conflict (Beauregard et al., 2019).

Studies found that teleworking could be the reason for work-family conflict because teleworkers tend to work longer hours and consequently extending their working hours into family time (Eddleston & Mulki, 2017).

Teleworking may have adverse effects on employees' work-life balance, particularly by making it challenging to disconnect from work and take breaks, potentially undermining long-term balance (Felstead & Henseke, 2017).

Furthermore, evidence shows that increased teleworking intensity negatively impacts work-life balance, the longer an employee teleworks, the lower their work-life balance is (Alfanza, 2021). In this line, Juchnowicz and Kinowska (2021), found that exclusive remote working (permanently engaged in teleworking) had a negative impact on employees' work-life balance.

Whereas teleworking literature from the pre-COVID-19 era has argued that the flexibility and more autonomy introduced by teleworking, benefited work-life balance, and have found empirical support for this (Allen et al., 2013; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Such positive effect was doubted during the pandemic (Alfanza, 2021; Juchnowicz & Kinowska, 2021; Palumbo, 2020;). The disparities between the conducted studies can be explained as in pre pandemic times, teleworking was mainly agreed on voluntary basis (Kaltiainen & Hakanen, 2023). Kaduk et al. (2019) found that involuntary flexible work arrangements are associated with higher conflict between work and family responsibilities.

Considering these findings and the boundary theory, it is reasonable to hypothesize that greater telework intensity may lead to higher levels of work-life interference perceived.

**2.6 Hypothesis**

At this stage, it is crucial to introduce the hypotheses we will examine in our study. These hypotheses serve as a well-defined structure for our investigation and allow us to answer to the initial investigation questions formulated.

Considering the literature reviewed and aligned with the research questions and objectives previously introduced, we have formulated the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 1:** Affective commitment varies significantly depending on the telework intensity.

Our first hypothesis is based on the extensive literature that highlights the correlation between telework intensity and affective commitment. As employees engage in varying levels of telework, we anticipate significant differences in their emotional attachment and identification with their organizations. We predict that increased telework intensity is associated with lower levels of affective commitment.

**Hypothesis 2:** Work-life interference varies significantly depending on the telework intensity.

Our second hypothesis delves into the examination of how telework intensity influences the perceived inter role conflict between professional and personal life, we predict that increased telework intensity is associated with higher levels of work-life interference perceived.

Concluding this chapter, the next one will approach the studies developed. We will conduct two independent studies to test the hypotheses presented above.

### 3. Methodology

In this chapter, we will describe our methodology for testing the previously formulated hypothesis and present the results, followed by a discussion of the findings.

Therefore, two distinct studies will be conducted, to test each hypothesis and provide a more comprehensive understanding of the results. The data collection procedure was the same for both studies, and therefore we will analyse the studies separately after presenting the instrument measures.

### 3.1 Procedure

In this study, we used a quantitative approach to analyse variables and obtain results through statistical techniques (Apuke, 2017). The data was collected through an online survey created on the Qualtrics platform. The questionnaire was distributed through social networks, specifically on LinkedIn, WhatsApp, and Instagram. Additionally, participants were encouraged to share the questionnaire within their networks. The online survey method was chosen due to its convenience and efficiency in reaching a broader audience.

A minimum requirement was established to ensure the study focused on its objectives, where participants had to work for at least 6 months. Furthermore, the questionnaire was presented in portuguese, as the target population was portuguese, making it more appealing and accessible for the participants.

The questionnaire's structure began with a brief study introduction, followed by a question regarding informed consent to ensure anonymity and confidentiality. Subsequently, it was divided into two parts: (1) sociodemographic and contextual questions relevant and appropriate to the subject, and; (2) questions related to the scales corresponding to each variable under study (affective commitment and work-life interference). Only participants who responded positively to the question "Are you currently engaged in teleworking?" proceeded to the second part of the questionnaire to assess their perceptions of work-life interference while teleworking. Other participants were directed to complete the questionnaire.

It is worth noting that the questionnaire was designed to require participants to respond to all fields, ensuring completeness of responses for further analysis.

After data collection, the survey data was transferred to Microsoft Excel, to be organized and coded. Subsequently, it was analysed using the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 29.

### 3.2 Instrument Measures

The variables postulated in the hypotheses were measured through the following scales.

Firstly, to measure affective commitment, we used the Portuguese validated version scale proposed by Meyer & Allen (1997) to assess the affective component of organizational commitment (Nascimento et al., 2008). This scale consists of six items rated on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 signifies "strongly agree" and 5 signifies "strongly disagree." It presents a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.91.

Secondly, the Work-life interference was assessed using the Portuguese validated version of the E-Work Life Scale (EWLS) developed by Grant et al. (2019) and translated by Junça-Silva (2023). This study focused on the seven items related to the work-life interference dimension. Participants rated these items on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 ("strongly agree") to 5 ("strongly disagree"). It presents a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0,67.

To assess the telework intensity, participants were asked to indicate the number of days they engaged in telework per week. The range of options for this question extended from zero to five days per week, allowing respondents to measure their telework intensity precisely.

As mentioned, two studies will be conducted to test each hypothesis and provide a more comprehensive understanding. Therefore, the analysis from this point onward will be fragmented by study to facilitate the understanding and discuss the results.


### 3.3 Study 1

### 3.3.1 Participants

For this study, we verified 202 valid responses from a total of 203, which we consider adequate for robust analysis and statistical validity.

Our sample consisted of 133 females (65.8%) and 69 males (34.2%), aged between 21 and 65 years old (M= 34.7; SD: 13,69%).

The sample encompassed individuals from distinct geographical regions of Portugal, career fields, and organizational seniority levels, contributing to a diversified representation.

Regarding the participants' educational qualifications, it was found that all participants completed secondary education, with 10.4% (n=21) holding a high school diploma (12th grade), and the remaining 89.6% (n=179) having a higher education degree.

On average, participants also reported different locations for teleworking. However, 86.6% indicated home as the designated workplace for teleworking.

Of the 202 participants, 57 do not engage in teleworking (28.2%), while 145 (71.8%) practice this work.

Concerning the teleworking intensity, the respondent's majority teleworked 3 days per week (27.1%), followed by 2 days (14.3%).

### 3.3.2 Data Analysis Procedure

For this study, we divided participants into four groups based on the intensity of telework: Group 1, consisting of individuals not engaged in teleworking ($M=3.68$; $SD = 0.87$), Group 2, comprising individuals with low/moderate intensity for telework translated in 1–2 days/week ($M=3.44$; $SD = 0.96$) and, group 3, including individuals with high intensity for telework, 3-5 days/week ($M=3.39$; $SD = 0.79$). In this context, we started by categorizing the data according to the groups we intended to analyse.

To analyse the data, we performed additional mean comparison analyses between the groups for the variable under investigation. In this regard, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA-One Way) was conducted to assess whether there were differences in affective commitment among individuals with varying levels of telework intensity (high intensity, low/moderate intensity, and no telework). The ANOVA is used to compare the means among three or more group and, for that reason, is the statistical method chosen to test the study hypothesis (Mishra et al., 2019).

To conduct this type of analysis, we needed to validate the following assumptions (Perry Hinton et al, 2004):

- Observations are independent of each other.

- Observations within each group follow a normal distribution.

- The assumption of variance homogeneity, meaning that variances across all groups are equal.

The normality of the data was assessed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. The assumption of variance homogeneity was evaluated using the Levene test.

Bootstrapping procedures (5000 resamples; 95% BCa CI) were carried out to enhance the reliability of the results, correct for deviations from normality in the sample distribution, account for differences in group sizes, and provide a 95% confidence interval for the mean difference.

### 3.3.3 Results

Regarding the results obtained, the tests for normality of distribution indicated the variable affective commitment did not exhibit a normal distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov = 0,093, p< 0,001; Shapiro-Wilk = 0.963, p < 0,001).

The Levene test demonstrated no statistically significant differences in variances between the groups based on the mean, indicating homogeneity across groups (Levene (2,199) = 1.108, p = 0.332).

The results of the ANOVA indicated that at p = 0.05, there were no significant differences among the means of the groups. However, considering p = 0.12, the ANOVA suggests that there might be a difference in the means of some of the groups analysed [F(2) = 2.158, p = 0.118].

Consequently, we performed a post-hoc Bonferroni test to determine which groups exhibited differences. Interpreted through bootstrapping procedures, this difference was observed between the group that did not engage in telework and the group with high intensity telework (participants in Group 1 (M = 3.68; SD = 0.87) reported lower levels of AC than those in Group 3 (M1 = 3.39; SD1 = 0.79), with the difference being statistically significant (CI:0.0142, CIS: 0.549)). On the other hand, the low/moderate telework group did not show significant differences with any of the other groups. In this context, we conclude that the observed difference is relatively minor but becomes significant at a p-value of 12%.

### 3.3.4 Results discussion

The results have provided valuable insights into the relationship between telework intensity and affective commitment.

The ANOVA results at the conventional significance level (p = 0.05) did not reveal significant differences among the groups, rejecting the initial study hypothesis. However, it is noteworthy that at a higher significance level (p = 0.12), a potential difference in affective commitment among certain groups would be verified. This difference was most pronounced between high-intensity teleworkers and non-teleworkers.

Conversely, the group that teleworked at low to moderate intensity did not show any significant differences in affective commitment compared to other groups. This suggests that low to moderate telework might not significantly impact employees' emotional connection to their organizations compared to no telework or high intensity telework.

According to Simon et al. (2023), the explanation behind these results is that the more time employees spend away from their workplace, the harder it becomes for them to maintain their social relationships, and the experience of collective purpose weakens, leading to a decline in affective commitment. As previous studies revealed, positive social exchanges and emotional connections between individuals within the organization shape affective commitment (Wang et al., 2020). Social and professional isolation were predicted to be the most reported teleworking disadvantages (Antunes et al., 2023).

The Relational Cohesion theory can also explain these findings (Thye et al., 2002). It suggests that individuals may develop emotional connections with organizations based on their emotional attachments to other individuals (Thye et al., 2002). However, extensive teleworking can limit opportunities for employees to engage in informal, face-to-face interactions in the workplace (Golden & Veiga, 2005). This can lead to a lack of honest exchange of feelings, which cannot be replicated through digital interactions (e.g., video calls or emails). As a result, the emotional bond with the organization can be weakened or more challenging to establish.

Telework can also cause work-life imbalance due to longer working hours and blurred boundaries (ILO, 2021). In this sense, Guilbert et al. (2022) suggested that teleworking frequency negatively affects affective commitment through the deterioration of work-life balance, which seems to align with our results.

Moreover, employees' experiences with teleworking are likely to reflect whether this work modality was implemented in a supportive way and can reflect the impacts on affective commitment levels (Lott & Abendroth, 2023). In this sense, teleworking is less likely to lead to greater affective commitment when users experience blurred boundaries and no improvement in their work–home balance. The greater autonomy and flexibility given to employees may be illusory, due to greater demands of work, which obligate to an extension of the working day (Antunes et al., 2023). In this line with this, employees reciprocate teleworking with greater affective commitment only if they interpret this arrangement as a signal that the organisation cares about their well-being (Lott & Abendroth, 2023).

Findings may highlight the importance of maintaining positive relationships and social interactions in the workplace, especially while teleworking, to ensure that employees remain emotionally connected to their organizations. This is particularly important in the current paradigm with teleworking becoming more common.

These findings emphasize the need for organizations to carefully consider the implications of high intensity telework on affective commitment.

Based on our results, we believe that managers must aim to provide opportunities for teleworkers to experience the social advantages of their workplace. In this context, it may be beneficial to limit remote work hours and offer a hybrid work schedule, while also providing opportunities for employees to receive social validation for their work contributions (Simon et al., 2023). Organizing social events and creating a digital space for remote workers to stay connected can also be beneficial (Simon et al., 2023).

**3.5 Study 2**

**3.5.1 Participants**

For this second study, our sample includes the respondents from study 1 who were currently engaged in telework, corresponding to 145 individuals. From the 145 participants considered, 92 are females (63.4%) and 53 males (36.6%). The age range of the participants spanned from 21 to 65 years (M= 31.5; SD: 11,65%).

Regarding the participants' educational qualifications, it was found that all participants completed secondary education, with 6.9% (n=10) holding a high school diploma (12th grade), and the remaining 93.1% (n=135) having a higher education degree.

On average, participants also reported different locations for teleworking. However, 86.6% indicated home as the designated workplace for telecommuting.

Concerning the number of days dedicated to teleworking, most respondents teleworked 3 days per week (37.9%), followed by 2 days (20%).

**3.5.2 Data Analysis Procedure**

For this second study, we divided participants into two groups based on the telework intensity, whether they were engaged in full time telework or not: Group 1, consisting of individuals with low to moderate telework, comprising 1 to 4 days/ week in telework (M=2.1762; SD = 0.75), and Group 2, comprising individuals engaged in full-time telework, translated in 5 days/week (M=2.3943 (SD = 0.51). In this context, we started by categorizing the data according to the groups we intended to analyse.

To analyse the data, we performed additional mean comparison analyses between the groups for the variable under investigation. In this regard, a two-group independent samples t-test was conducted to examine if there were differences in the levels of work life interference perceived by individuals engaged in full time telework and the others. The Student's t-test is

used to compare means between two groups and, for that reason, is the appropriate statistical test for this study (Mishra et al., 2019).

To conduct this type of analysis, we needed to validate the following assumptions (Perry Hinton et al, 2004):

- Observations within each group follow a normal distribution.

- Observations are independent of each other.

- The assumption of variance homogeneity, meaning that variances across all groups are equal.

The normality of the data was assessed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. The assumption of variance homogeneity was evaluated using the Levene test.

### 3.5.3 Results

Before conducting the t-test, the assumption of equal variances was assessed using Levene's test. The test indicated that the assumption of equal variances was violated, as indicated by a significant Levene's test statistic ($F(1,143) = 3.992$, $p = 0.048$). Therefore, we proceeded with the t-test with unequal variances assumed.

Regarding the results, before performing the t-test, data normality was assessed. The variable work-life interference did not exhibit a normal distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov=0,143, $p < 0,001$; Shapiro-Wilk = 0.963, $p < 0,001$). In this case, as we used a large sample size (n=145), we can rely on the Central Limit Theorem to assume normality and use parametric tests (in this case, the t-test). The CLT justifies using parametric tests even in cases where the data is not perfectly normal, but the sample size is relatively large (n > 30).

Next, Levene's test assessed the assumption of equal variances. The test indicated that this assumption was violated, as shown by a significant Levene's test statistic ($F (1,143) = 3.992$, $p=0.048$). Consequently, we proceeded with the t-test assuming unequal variances.

The independent sample t-test with unequal variances ($t = -1.783$, $p = 0.040$) revealed that the mean of Group 1 (M=2.176) is lower than the mean of Group 2 (M=2.394), even though the test was not significant (p=0.081). The 95% confidence interval for the mean difference ranged from [-0.46382; 0.02763]. It is important to note that with a significance level of 10%, would be significant.

### 3.5.4 Results Discussion

Our hypothesis predicted that work-life interference levels would vary based on telework intensity. Although not statistically significant, we observed interesting differences between the two groups with different telework intensities, consistent with our predictions. High-intensity teleworkers verify a higher level of work-life interference than low to moderate teleworkers.

These findings are consistent with previous studies, mainly from COVID-19 pandemic-context studies (Alfanza, 2021; Juchnowicz & Kinowska, 2021) and can be explained by the boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000).

The boundary theory suggests that teleworking, especially at high intensities, can blur the lines that traditionally separate work and personal life (Ashforth et al., 2000). The higher flexibility and autonomy associated with telework is often accompanied by greater work intensity and longer working hours, with negative effects on workers' work-life balance (Samek Lodovici et al., 2021). Additionally, it may result in increased friction between work and non-work responsibilities (Fonner & Stache, 2012), having a detrimental effect on work-life balance and increasing potential work-life conflict (Nemțeanu & Dabij, 2023; Palumbo, 2020).

Furthermore, constant connectivity and accessibility to work-related tasks may blur the boundaries between work and personal lives, making it more challenging to detach from work during non-working hours (Andrade & Lousã, 2021; Felstead & Henseke, 2017). Employees' feel pressured to be constantly available to meet professional demands, beyond typical working hours, opening boundary breaches that can harm individuals' ability to detach from work and switch off. The inability to fully disengage from work can lead to increased family-to-work conflict, negatively impacting their family-oriented roles (Kimberly & Mulki, 2017).

In this line, the permanent connectivity to the workplace via technological devices, smartphones in particular, might lead to more interruptions of the non-working time, increasing stress levels and, thus, reducing the amount of time left for recuperation (Fernández-Fernández et al., 2023). As high-intensity teleworkers are confined to the digital workspace and digital interaction tools, become more exposed this situation, unlike low to moderate teleworkers, who can disconnect a bit from them in office days.

Moreover, aligned with the principles of the social exchange theory, pressure to meet employer expectations can drive high-intensity teleworkers to increase their working hours, either to reciprocate the opportunity of teleworking (in the case where it is perceived as a benefit) or to compensate the saved commuting time (Abendroth & Reimann, 2018; Cook et al., 2013). In this case, the perceived benefit of teleworking may lead employees to work longer

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hours, but this risks their work-life balance (Lott & Abendroth, 2023; Rodríguez-Modroño & López-Igual, 2021).

The contrast between our results and some prior studies can be attributed to the changing landscape of telework, especially in the COVID-19 pandemic. While earlier research suggested that telework could enhance work-life balance by providing flexibility and control over work schedules, our study reflects the challenges posed by high-intensity and involuntary telework during a pandemic (Kaduk et al., 2019; Palumbo, 2020).

In conclusion, the findings of this study emphasize that high-intensity telework, characterized by longer working hours, increased connectivity, and challenges in setting clear boundaries, is associated with greater work-life interference. These results emphasize the importance of balancing the telework benefits of flexibility with the potential drawbacks of heightened work-life interference.

This understanding is crucial for organizations aiming to implement effective telework policies and for individuals seeking to balance their work and personal lives in an era where remote work is becoming increasingly prevalent.

In conclusion, our results suggest that low or moderate-intensity telecommuting is seen as the most suitable telework alternative to mitigate the previously presented negative consequences, capturing the best combination between on-site work and telework (Urien, 2023).

While these findings are promising, further exploration is necessary to validate and deepen our understanding on this relationship.

## 4. Conclusions

This research provides meaningful insights into the relationship between telework intensity and key work-related factors: affective commitment and work-life interference.

The results of our first study indicated that employees engaged in high intensity telework verify lower levels of emotional attachment towards the organization when compared to those who don't telework. This suggests that the more time employees spend away from their workplace, the harder it becomes for them to maintain positive relationships with their colleagues, which can negatively impact their emotional connection with the organization. These findings can enhance the importance of fostering positive social interactions within the workplace, even in telework scenarios, to ensure employees remain emotionally attached to their organizations (Simon et al., 2023).

In our second study, differences in levels of work-life interference for different telework intensities were also noted. The high-intensity teleworkers perceived greater work-life interference compared to low to moderate teleworkers. High intensity telework is associated with blurring boundaries between work and personal life, caused by constant connectivity, longer working hours, and difficulties in setting clear boundaries. This study highlights the telework complexity and the need to balance its advantages with potential drawbacks, especially in the context of high-intensity and involuntary telework derived from the pandemic.

In conclusion, this research emphasizes the importance of considering telework intensity when examining its impact on work-related factors, as results revealed that affective commitment and work-life interference are sensitive to it. With telework becoming the new normal, it's essential to figure out its implications on workers, allowing organizations to align their practices and strategies accordingly, and mitigate any potential downsides.

## 5. Practical and Theoretical Contributions

This study explores the impact of telework intensity on two crucial work-related aspects: affective commitment and work-life balance.

The existing literature on teleworking is still limited, therefore, this study expands our knowledge about its impacts by contributing with fresh insights. Additionally, a significant portion of the existing literature is based on the pandemic or pre-pandemic era, which isn't aligned with the present work environment. Hence, this study lays the groundwork for future research on teleworking and its impact on employees in post-pandemic era.

Regarding the examined concepts, namely affective commitment and work-life interference, the study revealed they are sensible to variations in the teleworking intensity. This aspect holds promise for further in-depth exploration.

Furthermore, this research has shed light on the negative impacts of high-intensity teleworking. This includes decreased emotional connection between workers and the organization, as well as compromised work-life balance, both of which are essential factors in maintaining productivity and retaining talent.

In practical terms, these findings have important implications for organizations and professionals aiming to benefit from telework while mitigating its negative impacts.

Organizations can benefit from the insights provided by this research to gain a better understanding of the impacts of telework. This will enable them to optimize their telework policies and practices. By comprehending the potential effects of telework intensity on employees' affective commitment and work-life balance, organizations can design telework policies that balance the benefits and drawbacks of this flexible work model. This will allow them to enjoy the flexibility offered by telework while ensuring that neither the work-life balance nor the relationships among coworkers are negatively impacted.

Organizations can take steps to mitigate the negative impacts of telework, mainly in high intensity scenarios. This includes providing opportunities for teleworkers to stay socially connected, organizing events that foster social interaction, and providing hybrid work options (Simon et al., 2023).

However, these findings suggest further research to validate and deepen our understanding of the relationship between telework intensity and the two analyzed work-related factors.

## 6. Limitations and future studies

Certain limitations must be acknowledged regarding the two studies conducted, alongside suggestions for more comprehensive future investigations.

One of the first limitations of this study is the use of a questionnaire for data collection. The study was conducted by administering an online questionnaire to collect data cross sectionally. Although we requested the respondents to focus on their experiences of working/teleworking, this was done partly retrospectively. This introduces the possibility of response bias, as participants may provide answers influenced by various external factors. Both affective commitment and work-life interference are dynamic concepts and can be influenced by daily factors. To address this variability and the limitations associated to the instrument chosen, future studies could opt for a longitudinal study design, incorporating diverse data collection methods, such as interviews or behavioural observations, to gain insight into how these constructs change over time and what factors influence them (Simon et al., 2023).

Furthermore, the adequacy of the sample size is another limitation. Regarding the second study, the results analysis might have been influenced by the relatively small sample size of the full-time teleworker's subgroup. To mitigate this, future studies could consider larger and more diverse samples that enable a more robust statistical analysis and provide more conclusive evidence.

In this research, the telework intensity was measured on self-reported frequency values (according to the options we gave). Future studies may be improved by adopting more objective metrics to classify telework intensity.

Additionally, this study does not allow the comparison between the gender and the telework location, however those factors would allow for a more detailed analysis as they are predicted to influence the variables (Çoban, S., 2022; ILO, 2020; Rodríguez-Modroño & López-Igual, 2021). Thus, we recommend future studies to discriminate the analysis according to those factors. Also, regarding the second study, about the perceived work-life interference, future studies could analyse the impact of telework among those who have and don't have children, as it could have interesting results (Kaltiainen & Hakanen, 2023).

Our study provides valuable insights into the effects of telework intensity on affective commitment and work-life interference. However, it is important to acknowledge the limitations of our study and address them in future research. By assessing these limitations and making recommendations for future studies, we hope to deepen the understanding of teleworking, which remains largely unexplored.

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## 8. Appendix

Appendix A. Table of descriptive statistics for the total sample and separated by groups (Study 1)

<table>
<tr><th colspan="6">Descriptive Statistics</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2"></th><th>Statistic</th><th colspan="3">Bootstrap Statistics</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2"></th><th>Descriptive</th><th>Std.</th><th colspan="2">BCa 95% Confidence</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2"></th><th></th><th>Error</th><th colspan="2">Interval</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2"></th><th></th><th></th><th>Lower</th><th>Upper</th></tr>
<tr><td>Group 1</td><td>N</td><td>57</td><td>6</td><td>46</td><td>69</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Mean</td><td>3,6813</td><td>,1145</td><td>3,4444</td><td>3,8957</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Std. Deviation</td><td>,86962</td><td>,08812</td><td>,70784</td><td>1,00831</td></tr>
<tr><td>Group 2</td><td>N</td><td>42</td><td>6</td><td>32</td><td>52</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Mean</td><td>3,4444</td><td>,1486</td><td>3,1392</td><td>3,7202</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Std. Deviation</td><td>,96037</td><td>,11202</td><td>,74808</td><td>1,12714</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Maximum</td><td>5,00</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Group 3</td><td>N</td><td>103</td><td>7</td><td>90</td><td>116</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Mean</td><td>3,3932</td><td>,0786</td><td>3,2333</td><td>3,5511</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Std. Deviation</td><td>,79379</td><td>,05769</td><td>,68417</td><td>,88974</td></tr>
<tr><td>Total</td><td>N</td><td>202</td><td>0</td><td>.</td><td>.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Mean</td><td>3,4851</td><td>,0606</td><td>3,3639</td><td>3,6019</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Std. Deviation</td><td>,85683</td><td>,04496</td><td>,77045</td><td>,93582</td></tr>
</table>

Appendix B. Table of the homogeneity Levene test (Study 1)

<table>
<tr><th colspan="6">Tests of Homogeneity of Variances</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2"></th><th>Levene<br>Statistic</th><th>df1</th><th>df2</th><th>Sig.</th></tr>
<tr><td>Affective<br>Commitment</td><td>Based on Mean</td><td>1,108</td><td>2</td><td>199</td><td>,332</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Based on Median</td><td>1,022</td><td>2</td><td>199</td><td>,362</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Based on Median and with adjusted df</td><td>1,022</td><td>2</td><td>195,146</td><td>,362</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Based on trimmed mean</td><td>1,011</td><td>2</td><td>199</td><td>,366</td></tr>
</table>

Appendix C. Table of the normality tests (study 1)

| Tests of Normality |
|---|

| | Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] | | | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| Affective Commitmen t | ,093 | 202 | <,001 | ,963 | 202 | <,001 |
| a. Lilliefors Significance Correction | | | | | | |

Appendix D. Table of the ANOVA test (study 1)

| ANOVA | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
| Between Groups | 3,133 | 2 | 1,567 | 2,158 | ,118 |
| Within Groups | 144,433 | 199 | ,726 | | |
| Total | 147,567 | 201 | | | |

Appendix E. Table of the bonferroni test post-hoc test with Bootstrapping (95% CI Bca) (Study 1)

| Bootstrap for Multiple Comparisons | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bonferroni test | | | | | | |
| (I) Group | (J) Group | Mean Difference (I-J) | Bootstrap[a] | | | |
| | | | Bias | Std. Error | BCa 95% Confidence Interval | |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| 1,00 | 2,00 | ,23684 | ,00408 | ,18657 | -,12784 | ,62162 |
| | 3,00 | ,28808 | -,00206 | ,13797 | ,01417 | ,54867 |
| 2,00 | 1,00 | -,23684 | -,00408 | ,18657 | -,60791 | ,10656 |
| | 3,00 | ,05124 | -,00614 | ,16880 | -,29322 | ,37065 |
| 3,00 | 1,00 | -,28808 | ,00206 | ,13797 | -,55463 | -,00412 |
| | 2,00 | -,05124 | ,00614 | ,16880 | -,38474 | ,31109 |
| a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 5000 bootstrap samples | | | | | | |

Appendix F. Table of the normality tests (study 2)

| Tests of Normality | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] | | | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
| | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statist ic | df | Sig. |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Work life interferenc e | ,143 | 145 | <,001 | ,963 | 145 | <,001 |
| a. Lilliefors Significance Correction | | | | | | |

Appendix G. Table of the descriptive statistics for the sample groups (study 2)

| **Descriptive Statistics Statistics** | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Groups | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| Work life interefrence | 1,00 | 120 | 2,1762 | ,75360 | ,06879 |
| | 2,00 | 25 | 2,3943 | ,50555 | ,10111 |

Appendix H. Table of the independent Samples Test (study 2)

| **Independent Samples Test** | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | | |
| | F | Sig. | t | df | Significance | | Mean Differe nce | Std. Error Differe nce | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | One Sid ed p | Two Sid ed p | | | Lower | Upper |
| Equal variances assumed | 3,992 | ,048 | -1,382 | 143 | ,085 | ,169 | -,21810 | ,1579 | -,5301 | ,0939 |
| Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,783 | 49,24 | ,040 | ,081 | -,21810 | ,1223 | -,4638 | ,0276 |

Appendix I. **Questionnaire**

O meu nome é Matilde Monteiro e sou estudante do segundo ano do mestrado de Gestão no Iscte Business School, em Lisboa. No âmbito da minha tese de mestrado estou a realizar uma pesquisa online para investigar o equilíbrio entre a vida profissional e pessoal e o comprometimento dos colaboradores para com a organização.

Para tal, caso estejas a trabalhar há 6 meses ou mais, agradecia muito a tua participação no seguinte questionário.

As tuas respostas são muito importantes e serão mantidas estritamente confidenciais, utilizadas exclusivamente para fins de pesquisa.

_ Aceito participar no estudo.

_ Não aceito participar no estudo.

Informações demográficas

1-      Qual é o seu sexo?

- Feminino

- Masculino

- Prefiro não responder

2-      Idade?

_____

3-      Habilitações literárias

- Ensino básico;

- Ensino secundário/ curso profissional;

- Licenciatura/curso profissional;

- Mestrado;

- Doutoramento ou grau superior

4-      Região laboral:

- Alentejo;

- Algarve;

- Centro;

- Lisboa;

- Norte;

- Açores

- Madeira

5-      Que opção está mais próxima do seu campo de carreira escolhido?

- Tecnologia da Informação

- Administrativo

- Indústria/Produção

- Educação

- Finanças/Contabilidade

- Atendimento ao Cliente

- Marketing

- Recursos Humanos

- Consultoria

- Outro:_____

6-      Há quanto tempo trabalha na sua atual organização?

- Anos __

7-      Atualmente, quantos dias por semana está em teletrabalho?

- 0;

- 1;

- 2;

- 3;

- 4;

- 5;

8-      Qual é o seu local de trabalho designado para o teletrabalho?

- Casa;

- Espaços de coworking;

- A minha situação não se aplica;

- Outro:

Peço agora que pense na empresa onde trabalha atualmente.

1-Usando a escala abaixo ("1: discordo totalmente, 2: discordo, 3: não conconcordo, nem discordo, 4: concordo e 5: concordo totalmente"), por favor avalie o grau em que concorda com cada afirmação:

-Não me sinto "emocionalmente ligado" à empresa onde estou atualmente.

-A empresa onde trabalho tem um grande significado pessoal para mim.

-Não me sinto como "fazendo parte da família" na minha empresa.

-Sinto os problemas da minha empresa como se fossem os meus.

-Ficaria muito feliz em passar o resto da minha carreira na empresa onde trabalho atualmente.

-Não sinto que faça parte da empresa onde trabalho atualmente.

2- Estás atualmente em regime de teletrabalho (total ou parcial)?

- Sim;

-Não;

3- Usando a escala abaixo ("1: discordo totalmente, 2: discordo, 3: não concordo, nem discordo, 4: concordo e 5: concordo totalmente"), por favor avalie o grau em que concorda com cada afirmação:

- O meu teletrabalho consome tempo que eu gostaria de despender com a minha família/amigos, ou noutras atividades não relacionadas com o trabalho.

- Quando estou em regime de teletrabalho, penso frequentemente em problemas relacionados com o trabalho fora do meu horário normal de trabalho.

- Eu sinto-me feliz com o meu equilíbrio vida-trabalho quando estou em regime de teletrabalho.

- Ter acesso constante ao trabalho, através do teletrabalho, é muito cansativo.

- Quando estou a trabalhar a partir de casa, sei quando desligar/parar o trabalho para poder descansar.

- A minha vida social é pobre quando estou em regime de teletrabalho.

- Eu sinto que as exigências do trabalho são muito maiores quando estou em regime de teletrabalho.

Obrigada pela tua participação!!