

Utrecht University School of Governance - Master thesis

New Way of Working: Match or mismatch for a public sector organisation?

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Abstract

The New Way of Working' (a translation of the Dutch concept 'Het Nieuwe Werken') receives ample attention and is enormously popular in both private and public organisations. However, the empirical evidence about the value and applicability of this concept for the public sector is missing (De Leede et al., 2011). It is interesting to investigate this, because the characteristics of the public sector seem to be conflicting with the values and principles of NWoW. The tendency of public managers to establish increased levels of review and approval, for example, is opposite to working based on mutual trust.

This study aims to contribute to insights in the effects of NWoW in the Dutch public sector. More specifically, this study concentrates on the question if NWoW indeed leads to an improvement in productivity, well-being and the work-life balance of individual employees of a Dutch municipality. Following Bijl (2007, 2009), NWoW is defined as a change in the following four dimensions: technology, physical workplace, organisation and motivation.

This study examines how these four dimensions influence the productivity, well-being and work-life balance of public sector employees. Regression analysis show that the dimensions of NWoW indeed have a positive effect on the productivity and well-being of employees. Further analysis confirmed that the four dimensions of NWoW can be seen as a second order formative construct. The regressions analysis of the second order formative construct reveals also a positive relation between NWoW and the productivity and well-being of employees. However, the results of this study cannot confirm the relation between the dimensions of NWoW and the work-life balance or between the second order formative construct and the work-life balance.

1. Introduction

Some call it a hype, others call it a revolution; 'the New Way of Working' (a translation of the Dutch concept 'Het Nieuwe Werken'). This concept receives much attention these days. Many books and blogs currently cite success stories about this organisational phenomenon. However, are these success stories evidence-based or are they a hype just because this New Way of Working is something 'new'?

According to Bijl, who calls himself the ambassador of the New Way of Working (NWoW) in the Netherlands, NWoW can be defined as follows: *"...a way of working whereby the kind of work - knowledge work - and the kind of worker – knowledge worker – are perfectly matched, so that the required results are obtained: substantial and sustainable improvement of the knowledge worker productivity, coupled with a better well-being and a better work-life balance"* (Bijl, 2007:56).

In 2009 Bijl explained his vision on NWoW as follows: *'... a vision to work effectively, efficiently, but also enjoyably for both the organisation and the employee. This vision is realized by the focus on the employee and to give him - within certain limits - the space and freedom to determine how he works, where he works, when he works and with whom he works'* (Bijl, 2009:27).

Both his definition and his vision are very generic. Therefore, the concept seems to become a collective for new working styles and management principles which often relate to "a higher degree of employee empowerment (autonomy, self-direction, teamwork, responsibility), time-space flexibility (telecommuting) and are 'based on mutual trust'" (Peters, De Bruijn, Bakker & Van der Heijden, 2011:32). The different approaches in how NWoW is implemented in organisations prove the statement that NWoW is generic and multi-dimensional; each organisation is searching for 'the best fit' (Nagtzaam, 2011). Some organisations choose for example to use only teleworking, while others focus more on flexible workspaces within the office. In addition, supervisors appear to add their own preferences to organisational choices, and offer their subordinates varying degrees of freedom as for example where, when and how they do their job. Sometimes, also the employees within the organisation can search for 'the best fit' within the framework which is set by the organisation. Some employees choose to work a couple of days from home, while others prefer working at the office. NWoW is not only different between organisations, but it could also differ between employees.

The concept of NWoW is not strongly founded on academic research or a sound theoretical basis yet (De Leede, 2011). Furthermore, the few academic studies on the topic, mostly done by graduate students, focused only on the organisational changes which are needed to accomplish a good implementation of NWoW. None of these studies question if NWoW indeed leads to an *improvement of the productivity of the knowledge worker, coupled with a positive change in the well-being and the work-life balance* (Bijl, 2007:56). Published books on NWoW state that change is substantial and sustainable, which means that it has a measurable, significant impact and endures for a longer time period. That is a major promise, especially when one realises that NWoW is a relatively young concept.

NWoW receives much attention in Dutch society (Nationaal Onderzoek, 2011). Many companies in the Netherlands, both private and public, have started to work following some principles of NWoW

without knowing exactly how it affects their employees (VNM, 2010). NWoW has also become very popular in the Dutch public sector. With a special program, called 'Civil Servants 2.0' the Dutch government tries to transform itself into a modern organisation working according to the principles of NWoW (Berlo, 2010). By using modern technology and online communities, the Dutch government tries to improve its relation with citizens, their internal management processes and the way their civil servants are working.

On the other hand, with aspects like a higher degree of employee empowerment (autonomy, self-direction, teamwork, responsibility), time-space flexibility (telecommuting) and 'mutual trust', NWoW seems to be in conflict with some core principles of the public sector. For many years, bureaucracy is believed to be the superior form of organisation in the public sector (Rainey, 2009). This bureaucratic system is often related to a hierarchal system of 'command and control'. Previous research already revealed that public managers have less decision-making autonomy and flexibility because of elaborate institutional constraints and external political influences (Rainey, 2009:84). Research also revealed that higher-level public managers express greater reluctance to delegate authority. Public managers have a tendency to establish more levels of review and approval and to greater use of formal regulations to control lower levels (Rainey, 2009:84). This public sector evidence seems to conflict with the values and principles of NWoW, because for example the tendency of public managers to establish increased levels of review and approval is the opposite of working based on mutual trust.

NWoW consists of four dimensions in which change and innovation is needed to create the space and freedom Bijl (2009) is describing: technology, physical workplace, organisation and skills, motivation and mentality (see figure 1). Although most dimensions of NWoW are already researched separately within the HRM field, little is known about the effects when the dimensions are implemented together in an organisation. All four elements combined can result into a significant effect, but it can also be that only one or two dimensions lead to an effect in the assumed benefits.

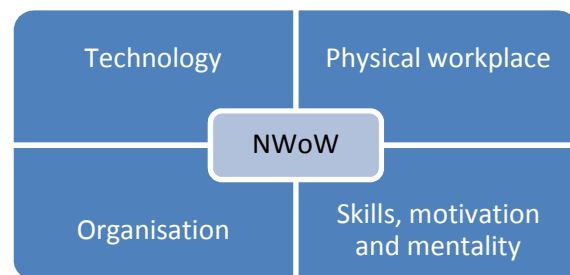


Figure 1 (based on Bijl, 2007)

This study aims to contribute to insights in the effects of NWoW in the Dutch public sector. More specifically, it concentrates on the question if NWoW indeed leads to an improvement in productivity, well-being and the work-life balance of individual employees (knowledge workers) of a Dutch municipality. We will examine civil servants of a Dutch public municipality and assess whether there is a positive relation between NWoW and their productivity, well-being and the work-life balance.

We direct our research on the individual employee because part of NWoW is giving the individual employee the space and freedom to determine how he works, when he works and with whom he works. Therefore, we focus on the perceived efficiency and effectiveness of the individual employee. We expect a higher productivity as result from working according to the principles of NWoW because NWoW allows employees to use more technology and also allows them to work from different locations. Well-being, the overall quality of an employee's experience and functioning at work, is measured by the perception of the employee, in terms of their job satisfaction and engagement to

their work. We think that work-related well-being is higher when employees are managed by the principles of NWoW. Thirdly, we focus on the perceived work-life balance of the employees. By work-life balance, we mean 'the degree to which an individual is able to simultaneously balance the temporal, emotional, and behavioural demands of both paid work and family responsibilities' (Hill, Hawkins, Ferris and Weitzman, 2001:50). Because every employee has a different optimal work-life balance, we believe that the work-life balance can only be measured by the perception of the individual employee.

In addition, this thesis aims to fill the knowledge gap on NWoW. As mentioned before, no academic research has been conducted on the effects of NWoW on employees. This means that organisations cannot make evidence-based decisions when choosing NWoW. And indeed, when questioning the reason behind the choice for NWoW, in most cases organisations answer that 'immediately reducing office costs' is the most important reason for choosing NWoW (Nationaal Onderzoek, 2011). Furthermore, this research can help organisations in how to implement NWoW. Since there is a lack of knowledge and information on this concept, academic research on NWoW is relevant, especially because of the current popularity of NWoW. This study investigates these relations and aims to develop a first step towards a solid academic foundation for NWoW.

The main research questions of this research are formulated as follows:

What are the effects of the NWoW on the productivity, well-being and work-life balance of employees to the extent that they work according to the principals of NWoW? How and to what extent can these effects be related to the dimensions of NWoW?

Next, we will clarify the theoretical framework, based on prior research about the separate constructs of NWoW. In section 3 we will elaborate on our sampling of respondents and measurements of the different concepts. Section 4 focuses on the results and section 5 contains the conclusion and discussion.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1 New Ways of Working

According to Bijl (2007), successful implementation of NWoW is achieved by changing the following four dimensions: the technology that employees work with, the physical workplace where the work is done, the organisation where employees work and the skills, motivation and mentality of the knowledge workers themselves. These four dimensions will be discussed separately below.

For every dimension, a brief description is given to explain what change is needed and the link between the specific dimension and the public sector will be described. Then we separately handle the dimension and the research done about productivity (effectiveness and efficiency), well-being (job satisfaction and work engagement) and the work-life balance of employees. We describe the relation between the dimension and these assumed benefits and we explore previous research. At the end of each dimension our hypotheses are presented.

Technology

A first dimension for NWoW is a fitting technology. NWoW assumes that technology needs to adapt to the user rather than the other way around (Baane, 2011:14). In published works on NWoW this is called 'Bytes'. The assumption seems to be that with this 'fitting technology' an employee is able to work more efficient, enjoys his work more and can create a better balance between his work and private life. This dimension focuses therefore on technology, such as smartphones or groupware.

In the Dutch public sector, using modern technology is controversial. Technological developments continually influence the operation of government agencies; they must struggle to keep up with developments in computer technology, communications and other dimensions (Rainey, 2009:92). Since governments often work with highly secured information or administration including personal information about citizens, it can be a challenge to find modern technologies that are secure enough (although the private sector experiences the same problem). Losing sensitive information can have many consequences for citizens or the government itself. For example, in 2005, a Dutch civil servant lost two disks with secret information which ended up in the press (Elsevier, 2005). Hence, implementing NWoW in the public sector can be more challenging than in the private sector because losing private information of citizens often leads to more social dissatisfaction than if a private organisation loses secret product information of the company (e.g. think about the controversy surrounding the 'electronic patient record system' or the 'public transport card').

Technology and productivity

Literature reveals that there is an indirect relation between technology and productivity which is mediated by the experience of employees with technology.

The impact of computers on productivity has been analysed by several researchers, but nevertheless remains a controversial issue, according to Black and Lynch (1997). Previous research revealed that there is a positive relation between the use of computers and productivity of employees (Brynjolfsson and Hitt, 1993; Illegems and Verbeke, 2004). It was stated that the experience employees and managers had with technology influenced the positive effect of technology on productivity; the more experience the stronger the positive effect on productivity (Illegems & Verbeke, 2004).

Technology and well-being

It is difficult to underpin the assumption that technology has a positive effect on well-being because previous research is conflicting. We therefore will not include this variable in our research.

Most of the popular books about NWoW assume that the more freedom employees have in choosing the technology they use; the more it will positively influence their wellbeing. It is difficult to underpin this assumption and previous research is conflicting. For example, in a research study by Colombier, Martin and Pénard (2007) it was revealed that the use and intensity of use of technologies such as internet, computers or cell phones could have both positive and negative effect on well-being. On the one side it can increase stress and therefore decrease well-being because it can lead to more time pressure on employees or working in the evenings. On the other hand, technology helps employees to work more efficient which balances the negative effect of technology on well-being because work is finished earlier.

Technology and work-life balance

We have not found any research on the relation between technology and the work-life balance. We do not know what constitutes this relation, and we will not include this relation in our research.

Hypothesis 1: Technology will have a positive effect on productivity of employees, which is mediated by the experience employees have with technology.

Physical workplace

A second dimension for NWoW is the physical workplace. This means that employees are flexible in choosing where they work. Employees, for example, are able to work at home, at the normal office or at a remote office. Therefore, the dimension physical workplace focuses on teleworking, also called flexible working.

NWoW assumes two advantages of a flexible workplace. The first one is the decrease of travel time between home and work which leads to a better balance between work and private life. Secondly, it leads to a more productive employee because he can adapt his workplace to his work activities (e.g. Bijl, 2007; De Bruin, 2002). This last advantage often results in an office where silenced workplaces and special consultations rooms are established and where employees can choose where they want to work instead of having a permanent desk (Boland, 2010).

NWoW seems to be connected to an office aimed at activities. For a public organisation, which is funded by public taxes, it is more difficult to build (or renovate) such an office in a time when the government needs to cut budgets. However, if a public organisation starts with flexible working this might also lead to a direct downsizing of the facility costs and office space, simply because less office space is needed.

Research revealed that teleworking is mostly done by high educated people who work within policy making or higher management environments (CBS, 2005). Many employees within the public sector are civil servants who develop policies and laws. This kind of work, so called knowledge-work, particularly fit highly for NWoW, because the work is not location- and time-bound.

Thus, NWoW in the public sector might be more complicated because of public funding and therefore there is less possibility for building an activity based office. On the other side NWoW is a concept which highly fits the public sector because most work is done by knowledge workers whose work is not location- and time-bound.

Physical workplace and productivity

Previous research revealed that there is a positive relation between the autonomy of choosing a workplace and productivity

Doing research on productivity and the physical workplace, it was found that the physical aspect of the work environment is one of the critical situational factors influencing the productivity of employees (Peters and O'Conner, 1998). The work environment influences the autonomy and privacy the employee has. Autonomy can be defined as the degree of control in which the employee can choose where he or she works (Lindell, 2010). Privacy can be defined as the protection from sensory stimuli (auditory and visual) so an employee can concentrate, think, or talk about sensitive issues

(Lindell, 2010). Thus, when employees do not have enough privacy to do their jobs, their productivity will decrease, unless they have enough autonomy to choose a different workplace (Lindell, 2010).

So, employees need to have enough autonomy at the office. A solution in line with this idea would be the opportunity for employees to work at home to have less distracting stimuli. Previous research revealed that employees were found to work more efficiently when working at home (Tietze and Musson, 2002), spent more hours working (O'Neill, Hambley, Greidanus, MacDonnell and Kline, 2009) and teleworkers rated themselves as working significantly more hours per week compared with non-teleworkers (O'Neill et al., 2009).

Much research about efficiency is based on self-reporting. Self-reporting on efficiency can lead to unreliable results, because people tend to over- or underestimating their own performance (Hunton, 2005). However, it was revealed that that efficiency of employees also increased when employees were allowed to work at home, where their results were measured on repetitive tasks (Durbrin, 1991; Geisler, 1985). Furthermore, measuring the influence of more than one workplace on efficiency by using experiments also revealed that merely teleworking at home does not lead to more efficiency (Hunton, 2005:134). The results showed that the best combination is to work some days at the office and some days at home. Although those who work at home have more non-work related interruptions, their total interruption time per day was lower than at the office, so employees were able to work more efficiently (Hunton, 2005).

Physical workplace and well-being

Previous research revealed that there is an indirect negative relation between the physical workplace and well-being which is moderated by the amount of contact employees have with their colleagues.

Teleworking is often positively related with engagement to the organisation (Golden, 2006). This is explained by using the Conservation of Resources theory (COR). This theory states that individuals strive to maintain and store resources, such as emotional and mental energy, to use it when they have less access to these resources. An employee is considered healthier if he has more resources. Teleworking influences this positively because it for example reduces travelling which leads to more mental energy.

Nevertheless, research which focused on the well-being of the employee and their relations with co-workers revealed that having well established sources of social support also leads to better well-being (Kalloway & Day, 2005:226). Employees who often work at home, have less contact with their co-workers and therefore experience less social support. This has a negative effect on their well-being (Kalloway & Day, 2005).

Travel time is not influencing all the employees working at an organisation, but only the ones who have to travel far. In the Netherlands most employees have to travel less than eighteen kilometres to their work (CBS, 2009). Thus, we think that social support is more important than travel time because it influences all the employees working at an organisation. Therefore, we focus in this research on this negative relation between the physical workplace and well-being.

Physical workplace and work-life balance

Previous literature showed that the relation between the physical workplace and the work-life balance is positively mediated by the amount of freedom employees have in choosing their working hours.

Much research is done on the influence of teleworking on the work-life balance. There are several factors reported by teleworkers that influence their work-life balance.

One supporting factor is flexibility in location of work. Through a multivariate analysis on several data sources, it was found that the majority of teleworkers reported a positive effect of teleworking on their work-life balance (Maruyama, Hopkinson & James, 2009:85). Only a small part of the investigated teleworkers reported domestic (social) activities being marginalised by work. The two important factors that positively influence work-life balance are flexible use of working hours and being based in a home environment (Maruyama et al., 2009). On the other hand, when domestic and work activities take place at the same time at the same place, these activities might have a negative effect on the work-life balance of teleworkers (Maruyama et al., 2009).

Furthermore, research among highly-educated employees revealed that perceived job flexibility appears to be beneficial for employees (Hill et al., 2001:55). The results validate that perceived job flexibility, given a reasonable workweek, enables more employees to have better a work-life balance (Hill et al., 2001; Tietze and Musson, 2002).

We notice that teleworking in general has both a direct and an indirect positive influence on the work-life balance. Although some teleworkers report that domestic activities are being marginalised by work, this is only a small portion and we therefore choose not to take this into account in our research model.

Hypothesis 2: Physical workplace will have a positive effect on productivity of employees.

Hypothesis 3: Physical workplace will have a negative effect on the well-being of employees, which is moderated by the decrease of contact of the employee with his/her colleagues.

Hypothesis 4: Physical workplace will have a positive effect on the work-life balance of employees which is positively mediated by the amount of freedom employees have to choose their own working hours.

Organisation

A third dimension for NWoW is the change within the organisation to one where employees are managed not based on 'command and control' but on 'trust' (Bijl, 2007:85). Managers should strive for creating a framework wherein these public organisations can let their employees work more autonomously. They trust them because these are competent and motivated (Bijl, 2009:89). In published works about NWoW this is called the 'behaviour' part of NWoW.

Working more autonomously could be very difficult for employees working in the Dutch public sector. A characteristic of the public sector is that there are more external interventions, interruptions and constraints (Rainey, 2009). Therefore, public managers have less decision-making autonomy, because they are highly influenced by political leaders. Furthermore, because of more frequent turnovers of top leaders due to elections and political appointments, it becomes more difficult to implement plans and innovations (Rainey 2009: 84). Besides, decision-making within the public sector is also influenced by external authorities and interest groups.

Another characteristic of the public sector is that their goals are particularly vague and intangible compared to those of private business firms. More often than in the private sector, the public sector has multiple, conflicting goals (Rainey, 2009:149). Research within the public sector confirmed that public managers tend to add even more rules and clearance dimensions in addition to externally

imposed rules and procedures. Moreover, public managers add more hierarchical levels of review and generally resist delegation in an effort to control the units and individuals below them (Rainey, 2009:150).

However, for the last thirty years the government is trying to reform itself, the so called 'Public Management Reforms' (Pollit & Bouckaert, 2004; Hood, 1991). An often used definition of these reforms is the definition of Pollit and Bouckaert, who state that *Public Management Reforms consist of deliberate changes to the structures and processes of public sector organisations with the objective of getting them (in some sense) to run better* (Pollit & Bouckaert, 2004:8). NWoW can be a (new) way to realise these public management reforms, because its objective is to make employees more productive and have organisations run better.

Organisation and productivity

Previous research revealed that there is a direct positive relation between employees who are managed via trust and the productivity of employees.

Mayer, Roger, Davis and Schoorman (1995:712) use the following definition of trust: "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectations that the recipient will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability of the trustor to monitor or control the recipient". According to Dulk et al. (2005:5) leadership based on trust is closely related to this notion since it requires a shift from leadership based on direct control to output control. Furthermore, it is argued that 'leadership based on trust gives employees more autonomy over and responsibility for their work and this may create feelings of obligation which employees may answer in return by inter alia working harder (Dulk et al, 2005; Kelliher and Anderson, 2010).

Organisation and well-being

Previous research showed that that there is a direct positive relation between the organisation and well-being.

Much research in organisational psychology is based on Karasek's (1979) job demands control model. This model states that the influence of job-demands (psychological stressors in the work environment) on the employee's well-being is influenced by job decision autonomy (the degree to which the employee has the potential to control their own work) (Sparks, Faragher & Cooper, 2001:498). Research, based on Karasek's model, revealed that the high level of control on the employee is directly related to a range of negative health and work-related outcomes, such as increased anxiety or depression (Sparks et al., 2001; Kelloway & Day, 2005). Furthermore, research also revealed that leadership based on trust results in employees expressing higher job satisfaction and showing greater work engagement (Dulk et al., 2005).

Some research, however, presents conflicting views (Goodman, Devadas and Hughson, 1988). Research, conducted among autonomous work groups, demonstrated positive effects on productivity, but not an improvement in well-being (Goodman et al., 1988). A cause of this result may be the individual differences between employees in the work groups. Some employees may find it more stressful than others to experience less control in their work (Slijkhuis, 2012).

Although this direct relation was not found when focusing on autonomous work groups (Goodman et al, 1988), the studies which focus on individual employees find this direct relation between well-

being and an organisation which is managed based on trust (Sparks et al., 2001; Kelloway & Day, 2005, Dulk et al., 2005). Since we focus on individual employees, we decide to research this direct relation.

Organisation and work-life balance

We did not find literature on the relation between an organisation managing her employees based on trust and work-life balance. Therefore we do not know if there is a relation between these two variables, and we will not include this relation in our research.

Hypothesis 5: An organisation which manages employees based on trust will have a positive influence on the productivity.

Hypothesis 6: An organisation which manages employees based on trust will have a positive influence on the well-being of employees

Motivation

A fourth dimension for NWoW is the mentality, skills and motivation of knowledge workers. We focus in this research only on motivation. We think that skills and mentality can be trained, but only if someone is motivated. Therefore, motivation is seen as the most important aspect of the fourth dimension. Bijl (2007) states that employees are intrinsically motivated to work. Within NWoW the employee is self-responsible for staying motivated. In published works on NWoW this is also called the 'behaviour' part of NWoW.

Although no research has been conducted on the differences between public and private sectors when looking at the implementation of NWoW, the study of Kamerade and Burchell (2004) offers an interesting perspective. Kamerade and Burchell (2004) examined the relation between telework and participatory capital in Europe. Participatory capital can be seen as a form of social capital, and for instance involves participating in voluntary work or political activities. Although the results are somewhat ambiguous, it seems that teleworkers are more active in their local community and often participate in voluntary work. This is also confirmed for civil servants (Wright, 2001; Perry & Wise, 1990). The question whether this originates in the fact that these employees are capable to work flexible hours and therefore able to participate during work hours, or that employees who like to be active in their community choose to telework, remains unanswered. However, this might be an extra motivation for public organisation to offer flexible working hours, because it is more likely that their employees are more involved in voluntary work or political activities.

Motivation and productivity

Previous literature remains unclear whether employees who are working with flexible working arrangements are more intrinsic motivated, so therefore we will not include this relation in our research.

NWoW assumes that employees are intrinsically motivated to work. Motivation represents energy, persistence, focus, aspects of activation and intentions. Motivation can be seen as a continuum (see figure 3), with on the one side intrinsic motivation, on the other side demotivation and extrinsic motivation in the centre (Deci and Ryan, 1985). According to Ryan and Deci (2000) there are two forms of motivation: autonomous motivation and controlled motivation. Autonomy involves acting

with a sense of volition and having the experience of choice (Gagné and Deci, 2005:333). In contrast, being controlled involves acting with a sense of pressure, a sense of having to engage in the action (Gagné and Deci, 2005:334). Intrinsic motivation is a form of autonomous motivation. Intrinsic motivation means that people have ‘the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one’s capacities, to explore, and to learn’ (Deci and Ryan, 2000:70). Extrinsic motivation can differ in the degree of autonomy or control. External regulation is the prototype of extrinsic motivation and is completely controlled and based on an external need (Gagné and Deci, 2005). Introjected regulation is limited self-determination, identified regulation is moderate self-determination and integrated regulation is complete self-determination.

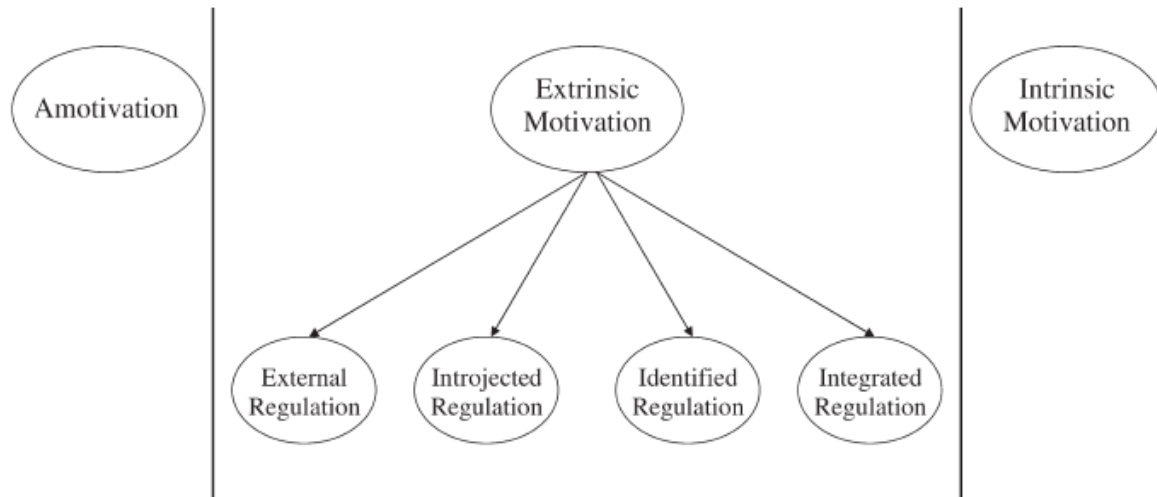


Figure 3 Motivation continuum from Gagné and Deci (2005:336)

Previous research revealed that employees who work from home seem to be more motivated to work more hours than employees who work only at the office (Peters et al., 2008; CBS, 2005). However, the social-exchange theory gives an explanation for the reason why teleworkers seem to be more motivated. It is argued that teleworkers are motivated to do something in return for their manager because the manager allows them to work from home (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). It remains unclear if employees are therefore more motivated to work and become more productive (intrinsic), or that they feel the obligation to do something in return for their manager (extrinsic).

Motivation and well-being

Previous literature shows an indirect positive link between motivation and well-being. This relation is negatively moderated by workaholism. The higher employees score on workaholism, the less effect there is between motivation and productivity.

Flexible working arrangements could lead to intensification of work, but also results in a higher job satisfaction as well (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). Thus, flexible working arrangements could be both an advantage and a disadvantage for the well-being of the employee. The advantage is that employees who are motivated to work via flexible work arrangement experience a higher job satisfaction when they are allowed to work flexible. However, the disadvantage is that employees are more likely to have a burnout because these employees work longer if they do not decide for themselves to stop working. Thus, employees need the skills and mentality to ‘control’ themselves to prevent having a burn-out (Bijl, 2009).

A different word for not being able to stop working is *workaholism*. *Workaholism* can be defined as ‘the compulsion or the uncontrollable need to work incessantly’ (Oates, 1971:11). Workaholics work more hours and work more often in the weekends (Schaufeli, Van Wijhe, Peeters & Taris, 2011). Therefore it can be expected that employees who are scoring high on workaholism, experience less positive effects of motivation on well-being, because they are having more trouble to stop working.

Motivation and work-life balance

We did not find any literature on the relation between motivation and the work-life balance of employees. Therefore, we do not know what this relation is and we will not include this relation in our research.

Hypothesis 7: Motivation will have a positive influence on the well-being of employees which is negatively moderated by workaholism.

2.2. The link between NWoW and productivity, well-being and work-life balance

Based on literature review in section 2.1, it is clear that not all four dimensions of NWoW have an influence on all the three ‘promises’ of NWoW. Table 1 shows the links between the four dimensions and the related promises, based on the literature, which we retrieved in section 2.1

Table 1 Possible relations between NWoW and the three promises as regards the positive effects of NWoW

<u>Cause</u>	<u>Effect</u>		
	Productivity	Well-being	Work-life balance
Technology	Indirect relation, Positive	Unknown	Unknown
Physical Workplace	Indirect relation Positive	Indirect relation Negative	Indirect relation Positive
Organisation	Direct relation, Positive	Direct relation, Positive	Unknown
Motivation	Unknown	Indirect relation, Positive	Unknown

Table 1, based on literature, reveals that the dimensions of NWoW in general should have a positive effect on productivity, well-being and the work-life balance (except the relation between physical workplace and well-being). Therefore, we think that NWoW (i.e. the combination of the four dimensions) has a positive effect on the productivity, well-being and work-life balance of employees.

Hypothesis 8a: NWoW has a positive influence on productivity.

Hypothesis 8b: NWoW has a positive influence on well-being.

Hypothesis 8c: NWoW has a positive influence on work-life balance.

2.3 Interrelation between productivity, well-being and work-life balance

As might be observed from the described research above, the components productivity, well-being and work-life balance are also interrelated. We do not research these interrelations in this current study, because these interrelations are not the main focus of this research

2.4 Theoretical Models

The theoretical models which are studied in this research can be found in figures 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3. They are based on the insights in current literature.

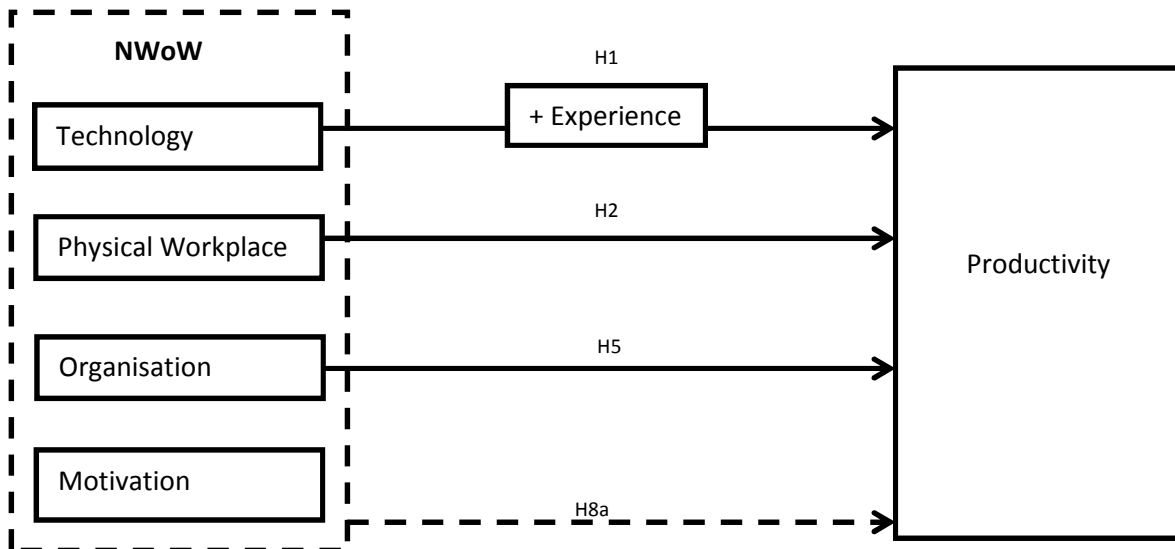


Figure 2.1 Theoretical model NWoW and Productivity

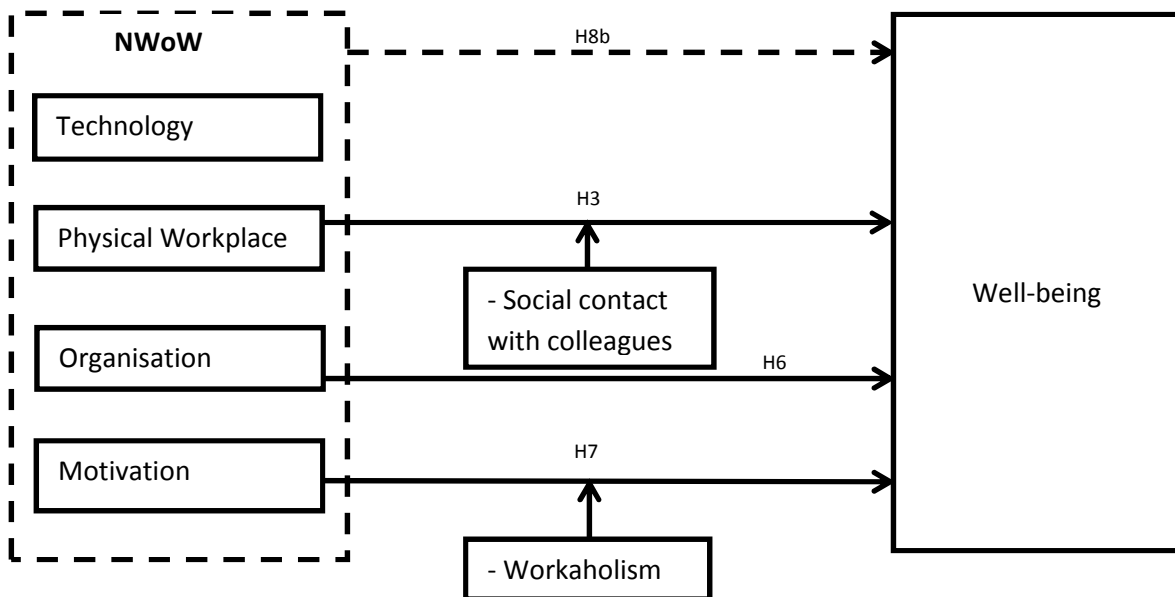


Figure 2.2 Theoretical model NWoW and well-being

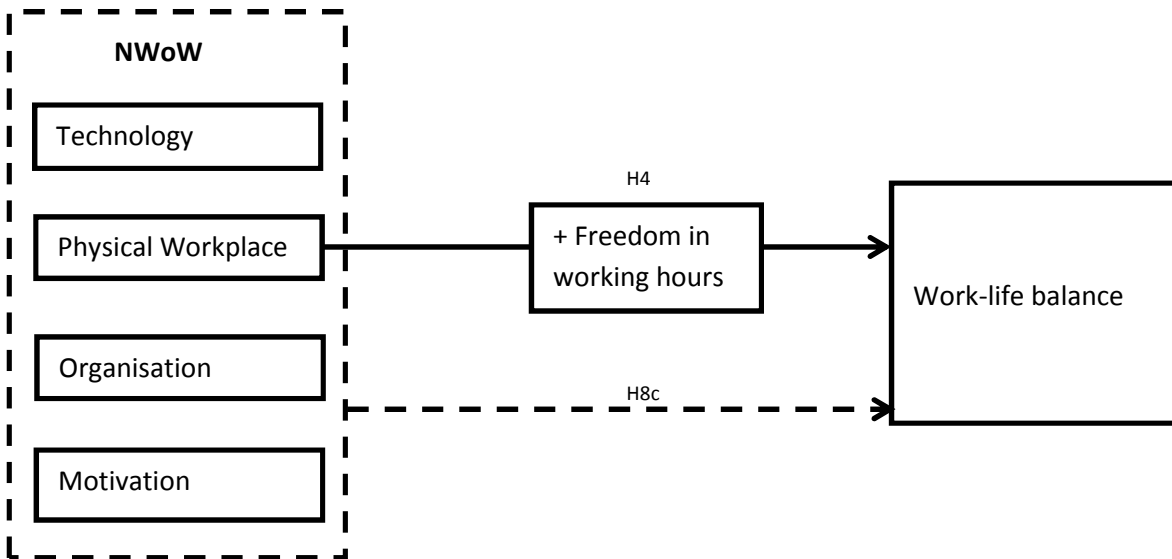


Figure 2.3 Theoretical model NWoW and work-life balance

3. Method

3.1 The sample

This study targeted the employees of the municipality of Veenendaal. Three groups were not invited to fill in the survey: employees who do not have a workplace at the office (e.g. employees of the swimming pool or employees responsible for landscaping), external consultants who are temporally employed and interns (because they had little or no experience with NWoW). 421 surveys were distributed, 225 completed questionnaires were returned. A reason for the amount of surveys that were not returned could be the fact that the period in which the questionnaire was distributed (March and the beginning of April 2012) was right before Queensday in the Netherlands. This was a very busy period for Veenendaal because the Dutch royal family was visiting Veenendaal on that year's national holiday.

Table 2 Demographic statistics

Gender	Frequencies	Percentages
Male	113	50.2
Female	112	49.8
Age		
Born before 1957	46	20.4
Born between 1958 and 1967	69	30.7
Born between 1968 and 1977	85	37.8
Born after 1978	25	11.1
Educational Level		
Primary education	1	.4
Lower vocational education	3	1.3
Higher general secondary education	15	6.7
Secondary science education / Secondary vocational education	121	53.8
University of applied sciences	16	7.1
University (academic education)	69	30.7

The sample consists of 112 females and 113 males, and the average age of the employees is 45 years (SD = 9.56). This is corresponding with the average age of the employees of Veenendaal compared with official data from the municipality. The average education level is university of applied sciences, the average working time per week is 32 hours (SD = 7.0) and employees work an average of ten years at the municipality of Veenendaal.

3.2 Measurements

NWoW To measure the concept *NWoW* we use the four dimensions as described in chapter 2.

-Technology is defined as 'the amount of different technologies employees use for their work'. To measure the use of technology within jobs, we asked employees how much they use certain modern technologies for their work, which enables them to share knowledge and work flexible in time and space. This is measured by providing eight questions based on a 5-point Likert scale varying from 'never' (1) to 'every day' (5). The questions concern the use of (1) e-mail, (2) internet (3) a normal standard mobile phone, (4) a smartphone, (5) a VPN connection (email) (6) a VPN connection (desktop), (7) groupware and (8) a chat program. Because using a smartphone is assumed to be more technical than a standard mobile phone, the scores of a mobile phone were weighted with 0.5, while the other questions are weighted with a value of 1. Cronbach's alpha for the eight questions is 0.52. In social science research, an acceptable reliability is considered at least 0.70 (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1978). After removing the items on groupware, a chat program and a normal mobile phone, Cronbach's alpha for the five questions is 0.59, which is still not satisfactory. Removing more items does however not lead to a higher Cronbach's alpha. An exploratory factor analysis shows that the factor loadings are between 0.59 and 0.67, which is acceptable. Although the scale loads on two factors, the cross loadings are high. The items e-mail and internet are one factor. The items smartphone, VPN with e-mail access and VPN with desktop access load on the second factor. Since the two factors are highly correlated, the items show high cross loadings on both factors, have an eigenvalue above 1, and the content of both factors are theoretically highly correlated as well, the two factors can be treated as one factor. The scale is thus validated enough and included in further analysis.

-Physical Workplace is defined as 'the flexibility employees have to choose their own workplace and the amount of interruptions they experience'. To measure this variable we focus on how flexible employees are in choosing where they work. This means that we focus on how employees use the possibility to work at home, but also the possibility to choose a desk within the office. To measure the flexibility employees have in choosing their workplace we use a question developed by Hill et al. (2001). The question is concerned with how much flexibility employees have in choosing the location where they work. Furthermore, we added four questions about how much flexibility employees have within the office, if the information they need for their work is available outside the office and if they work from home. The five questions consist of 5-point Likert items ranging from none (1) to very much (5) or from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). After recoding the one reversed item, Cronbach's alpha for the five items is 0.65, which is too low. After removing one item on flexibility on choosing the location of work, Cronbach's alpha for the four remaining questions is 0.71 which is acceptable.

-Organisation is defined as 'how employees experiences that they are managed based on trust'. We measure this variable by using the scale developed by Internet Spiegel and validated by Den Dulk et al. (2011) which consists of five questions. Managing based on trust is measured via five 5-points Likert items ranging from 'never' (1) to 'very often' (5). Cronbach's alpha for the scale is 0.85, which is very good.

-Motivation Every type of motivation can be weighted to the degree of autonomy in the Relative Autonomy Index (RAI; Ryan and Connel, 1989). The RAI is a single score which presents the degree to which an individual is more or less self-determined in the regulation of his/her behaviour (Mullan and Markland, 1997).

The RAI is obtained by initially applying a weighting to each behavioural regulation subscale as follows: external regulation (-2), introjected regulation (-1), identified regulation (+1), and intrinsic regulation (+2). Integrated regulation cannot be measured because it cannot be sufficiently distinguished from intrinsic motivation. The RAI is then computed by adding up the products of these weighted subscale scores (Mullan and Markland, 1997). The theoretical minimum is -12 and the maximum is 12. Positive scores indicate stronger autonomous motivation and negative scores represent stronger controlled motivation (Milette and Gagné, 2008:12).

This index, based on the self-regulation theory of Deci and Ryan (1985) and designed for the work situation by Vandenabeele (2008), is used to measure the motivation of employees. The RAI score is measured by seven 5-point Likert items ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). There are 2 items for external regulation, which have a Cronbach's alpha of 0.70. For introjected regulation Cronbach's alpha is 0.71, for identified regulation there is only 1 item and for intrinsic regulation Cronbach's alpha is 0.81.

Intervening variables

Experience with technology is defined as 'how experienced employees are in using technology'. We developed our own scale for measuring how much experience employees have with (modern) technology. This was measured by providing six questions to see if employees use certain technologies at home as well. We assume that the more an employee uses certain technology at home, the more experience the employee has with this technology. The answers are based on 5-point Likert scale varying from 'never' (1) to 'every day' (5). The questions concerned the use of (1) e-mail, (2) internet (3) a standard mobile phone, (4) a smartphone, (5) groupware and (6) a chat program. Cronbach's alpha for the six items is 0.53, which is too low. Further analysis shows that removing the item of a standard mobile phone leads to a Cronbach's alpha of 0.59. After doing a factor analysis, we see that all the items load on one factor and that 70 per cent of the variance is explained. Since this scale is developed by the researcher herself, the fact that the exploratory factor analysis suggests one factor, has an eigenvalue above 1 and the explained variance is 70 per cent, the scale is not removed from further analysis.

Contact with colleagues is defined as 'how frequently the respondents had discussions with their co-workers, manager, sub-ordinates or clients the last month'. To measure this, we used the scale from Duxbury and Neufeld (1999). The scale consisted of four items based on a 5-point Likert scale and measured the interaction employees have with their colleagues varying from never (1) to every day (5). Cronbach's alpha for the four items is 0.45, which is too low. An explorative factor analysis shows

that the items load on one factor and the factor loadings are between 0.54 and 0.77. The explained variance, however, is only 39 per cent and therefore we chose to remove this scale from further analysis.

Workaholism can be defined as ‘the compulsion or the uncontrollable need to work incessantly’ (Oates, 1971:11). To measure workaholism we use the scale developed and validated by Schaufeli, Van Wijhe, Peeters & Taris (2011). The scale measured how high employees score on being a workaholic and consists of ten 5-point Likert questions ranging from ‘never’ (1) to ‘always’ (5). Cronbach’s Alpha is high (0.83).

Flexibility in working hours To measure the flexibility employees have in choosing their working hours we use a question developed by Hill et al. (2001). The question is about how much flexibility employees have in choosing their working hours. The question consists of a 5-point Likert item ranging from ‘none’ (1) to ‘very much’ (5).

Dependent variables

Productivity refers in economy to the relation between efficiency and effectiveness with which an organisation or an entire economy converts the means of production into results. However, this study focuses on the individual productivity, which is difficult to measure objectively. When objective performance data are not available, subjective (i.e., perceptual) performance measures may be a reasonable alternative (Kim, 2005:250). Although there is always some doubt whether self-reported and perceptual measures of performance are in line with ‘the objective reality’, there is evidence of a high correlation between perceptual and objective measures at the organisational level (Kim, 2005). Therefore, we define productivity as the ‘perceived efficiency and effectiveness of the individual’ and choose to use a measurement for productivity inspired by Den Dulk et al. (2011) and Kim (2005). Individual efficiency is measured by five 5-point Likert items. Individual effectiveness consists of seven 5-point Likert items. Both have a range from strongly ‘disagree’ (1) to ‘strongly agree’ (5). Cronbach’s Alpha is very high at 0.86.

Well-being is often defined as the overall quality of an employee’s experience and functioning at work (Grant, Christianson and Price, 2007:52). This can be divided into three aspects: (1) psychological well-being, (2) physical well-being and (3) social well-being. Previous research has focussed mostly on the first two aspects (Van de Voorde, Paauwe and Van Veldhoven, 2011). This study focuses on the first aspect of well-being, and therefore measures well-being through job satisfaction and work engagement.

Job satisfaction can be defined as ‘a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience’ (Locke 1976:1304). Work engagement can be defined as ‘a positive, fulfilling, and affective-motivational state of work-related well-being that can be seen as the reverse of a job burnout (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter and Taris, 2008:187-188). Job satisfaction is measured by one single question using a 5-point Likert scale: ‘All things considered, how satisfied are you with your job?’

Work engagement is measured by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The answers consist of seven 5-point Likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ (1) to ‘strongly agree’ (5). Cronbach’s Alpha for the eight items was 0.90, which is very high.

Work-life balance is defined in various ways in literature. This research uses the definition of Hill et al. (2001:49) and defines the work-life balance as ‘the degree to which an individual is able to simultaneously balance the temporal, emotional, and behavioural demands of both paid work and family responsibilities’. To measure the work-life balance of the employees, we use the scale designed and validated by Hill et al. (2001). This scale consists of five questions, using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). After recoding one negatively stated item, Cronbach’s Alpha was acceptable at 0.76.

Control variables

We control for the following variables: gender, age and educational level. Gender will be coded as a dummy (1 = female). Age is measured by the year of birth. Educational level is subdivided by 6 categories, ranging from primary education to academic education.

3.3 Data analysis

We are using latent constructs (i.e. constructs which are not directly measurable (Black, 2005:40)) in our theory, and because of that we have to consider the directional relationship between the indicators and the latent construct.

The four dimensions of NWoW (technology, physical workplace, organisation and motivation) are latent constructs and are therefore measured by several indicators. We have to distinguish if these dimensions are formative or reflective, because “failure to properly specify measurement relations can threaten the statistical conclusion validity of a study’s findings” (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Jarvis, 2005:711). If the variation in a construct leads to variation in its measures, the construct is considered to be reflective (Edwards and Bagozzi, 2000; Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2006). If measures are viewed as causes of constructs, they are termed formative, meaning the construct is formed or induced by its measures (Edwards and Bagozzi, 2000:155-156).

MacKenzie et al. (2005:713) mention four criteria to distinguish if a construct is reflective or formative:

1. Consider whether the indicators are defining characteristics of the constructs or manifestations thereof.
2. Consider whether the indicators appear to be conceptually interchangeable.
3. Consider whether the indicators would be expected to covary with each other.
4. Consider whether all of the indicators are expected to have the same antecedents and/or consequences.

It can roughly be said that if these considerations are answered with ‘yes’ we deal with a reflective construct, and if the answer is ‘no’ we deal with a formative construct.

From our four dimensions, three can be seen as reflective constructs, namely physical workplace, organisation and motivation. This means that, for example, the indicators of organisation are defining characteristics, appear to be conceptually interchangeable, covary with each other and are expected to have the same antecedents and/or consequences. The same accounts for physical workplace and motivation. Technology, however, is a bit difficult to decide. The indicators are not the same (e.g. using internet or e-mail is something different than using groupware), but they are all examples of using technology. Because we focus on the use of technology and on not which type of technology, we see technology also as a reflective construct.

We deal not only with these four dimensions, but also with the construct of NWoW itself. Constructs are often 'specified at a more abstract, second-order level, with multiple first-order sub-dimensions (MacKenzie et al., 2005:713). Second-order level constructs are therefore sometimes called multidimensional constructs (Edwards 2001). "A construct is multidimensional when it refers to several distinct but related dimensions treated as a single theoretical concept" (Edwards, 2001:144). This is different than a one-dimensional construct, which refers to a single theoretical concept. NWoW, as can be seen in our research model, is assumed to be a multidimensional construct that has four dimensions, which each can be treated as a single theoretical concept.

A second-order concept can have multiple first-order dimensions serving as reflective or formative indicators. Thus, a second-order construct has a measurement model relating its measures to its first-order sub-dimensions and a different measurement model relating its sub-dimensions to the second order-model (MacKenzie et al, 2005). Furthermore, these measurements can have a mixture of reflective and formative indicators. A multi-dimensional construct should be properly operationalised, especially the distinction between formative and reflective indicators, because measurement model misspecifications can have very serious consequences for the theoretical conclusion drawn from that model (MacKenzie et al., 2005:711).

We define our construct of NWoW as a second-order formative latent construct. The four dimensions are viewed as cause of the construct; this means that NWoW is formed or induced by its four dimensions. Thus, variance in NWoW is caused by variance in the four factors. The four dimensions of NWoW are not interchangeable and represent different dimensions of NWoW. Second, the dimensions may have different antecedents and consequences as well as different characteristics and theoretical backgrounds (Edwards and Bagozzi, 2000).

Thus, we deal with four first-order reflective constructs and a multidimensional second-order formative construct.

It is often argued that researches should seek an optimal level of correlation of indicators and that high correlations are desirable (Bollen and Lennox, 1991). This is correct for a reflective construct; high-correlations suggest a good reliability. However, it is a different story for formative constructs. For indicators of the formative construct the magnitude of the indicator correlations is not explained by the model. Therefore it is difficult to say much about the validity of the dimensions of the construct based on the correlations. We can say for formative constructs that high correlations make it difficult to separate the impact of the dimensions on the construct and that high correlations create the problem of multicollinearity. Low correlations will decrease this latter problem (Bollen and Lennox, 1991). However, the dimensions should correlate significantly and there must be a solid theoretical basis why the dimensions belong to the construct (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer, 2001).

Another way of validating a construct is through external validation (comparing the index to measures of other variables). This is in our case difficult because there are not yet other variables or scales measuring NWoW. Furthermore, literature remains unclear about how this should be done and how it can be decided if variables should be added or removed (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer, 2001).

Table 3 Correlation Matrix

	Mean	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
A Technology	2.52 (.57)	1										
B Physical Workplace	2.72 (1.11)	.47**	1									
C Organisation	4.03 (.85)	.18**	.29**	1								
D Motivation	6.11 (3.13)	.16**	.21**	.23**	1							
E Experience	3.18 (.80)	.41**	.15*	-.06	.02	1						
F Social contact colleagues	4.51 (.67)	.14*	.20**	.17**	.08	.14*	.10	1				
G Workaholism	2.87 (.73)	.20**	.13*	.09	-.16**	.13*	.07	.22**	1			
H Flexibility in working hours	3.38 (1.32)	.16*	.64**	.30**	.14**	.10	.35**	.06	.09	1		
I Productivity	4.08 (.49)	.24**	.28**	.30**	.33**	.09	.20**	.12*	.04	.28**	1	
J Well-being	3.92 (.65)	.19*	.21**	.39**	.49**	.04	.23**	.13*	-.05	.20**	.50**	1
K Work-life balance	3.69 (.65)	-.05	.00	.13*	.26**	-.02	-.01	-.00	.04	.04	.22**	.36**

*p.05, **p < .01 (1-tailed)

Table 3.1 Descriptive cluster analysis

	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	116	51.6
Group 2	109	48.4

Table 3.2 T-Test groups independent variables

	Group 1	Group 2
Technology	2.27 (.36)**	2.80 (.63) **
Physical Workplace	1.90 (.58) **	3.70 (.68) **
Organisation	3.68 (.89) **	4.42 (.56) **
Motivation	5.39 (3.32) **	6.93 (2.72) **

**p < .01

Table 3.3 T-Test groups dependent variables

	Group 1	Group 2
Productivity	3.94 (.48)**	4.22 (.46)**
Wellbeing	3.77 (.67)**	4.08 (.59)**
Work-life balance	3.67 (.68)	3.70 (.62)

**p<.01

Table 3.4 Descriptive cluster analysis

	Frequency	Percent
Group 1	131	51.6
Group 2	94	48.4

Table 3.5 T-Test groups independent variables

	Group 1	Group 2
Technology	2.24 (.33)**	2.91 (.61)**
Physical Workplace	2.04 (.66)**	3.79 (.67)**
Organisation	3.83 (.91)**	4.31 (.62)**
Motivation	5.81 (.3.31)	6.58 (2.82)

**p < .01

Table 3.6 T-Test groups dependent variables

	Group 1	Group 2
Productivity	3.98 (.49)**	4.21 (.46)**
Wellbeing	3.82 (.66)**	4.07 (.60)**
Work-life balance	3.70 (.64)	3.68 (.67)

**p<.01

Table 4

Factor Analysis for variables used for NWoW

	Factor 1
Technology	.72
Physical Workplace	.80
Organisation	.60
Motivation	.53

As can be seen in table 3, the four different dimensions of NWoW correlate significantly. There is a positive correlation between technology and physical workplace ($r=.47$, $p<.01$), technology and organisation ($r=.18$, $p<.01$), and technology and motivation ($r=.16$, $p<.01$). Furthermore, there is a significant correlation between the physical workplace and organisation ($r=.29$, $p<.01$) and the physical workplace and motivation ($r=.21$, $p<.01$). There is also a positive correlation between organisation and motivation ($r=.23$, $p<.01$).

These results show that the correlations are not that high (never above .47). Motivation, although significant, correlates even low with the other dimensions. We wonder if motivation is therefore part of the construct of NWoW or not.

We performed an additional cluster analysis to verify this. It revealed that we can distinguish two groups within our data; a group which has a low average score on the four dimensions of NWoW and a group which has a higher average score on the four dimensions of NWoW (see table 3.1 and 3.2). We compare these groups on our dependent variables. The independent T-Test shows that there is significant difference between the two groups and that the group which has a higher average score on NWoW also has a significant higher average score on productivity and wellbeing, but not for work-life balance (see table 3.3).

A cluster analysis with motivation left out, reveals that there are again two groups in our data (see table 3.4); a group which has a lower average score on the three dimensions of NWoW and a group which has a higher average score on the three dimensions of NWoW (see table 3.5). There is no significant difference for motivation (see table 3.5). If we now compare these groups on our dependent variables, a T-Test reveals that the results are not different compared to the analysis where we did include motivation. Once more there is significant difference between the two groups and the group which has a higher average score on NWoW also has a significant higher average score on productivity and wellbeing, but not on work-life balance (see table 3.6).

To conclude, the cluster analysis reveals that there is not much difference in- or excluding motivation in the construct looking at our dependent variables. However, because we have theoretical good reasons for using motivation and motivation has a significant correlation with the three other variables, we choose to include motivation in our construct.

Reflective and formative latent constructs are often operationalised by summing scores on their dimensions (Edwards, 2001). However, for formative latent constructs other methods are also used. Sometimes, empirically derived weights are assigned to dimensions obtained from principal components analysis (PCA) or factors analysis. In some cases, dimensions weights are estimated by specifying the dimensions of the construct in a structural equation model (Bollen & Lennox, 1991; Edwards, 2001). Because we are not able to apply this technique, we chose to use PCA if our dimensions correlate significantly. This means that the construct of NWoW is not made by summing up the four dimensions, but that the weight of the dimensions is on the PCA.

The Bartlett's *test of sphericity* and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin *measure of sampling adequacy* (.62) revealed that the basic requirements for a PCA were met. The PCA shows us that there the four dimensions are one factor with a first component with an eigenvalue above 1 (1.79, see figure 4 in the appendix) and that the dimensions have different weightings (see table 4). Furthermore, 44 percent of the variance is explained, which is a moderate result. In line with the cluster analysis, we

see that motivation has the lowest weighing (.53, see table 4) and physical workplace has the highest weighing (.80, see table 4).

The evidence that technology, physical workplace, organisation and motivation are the four dimensions of NWoW is not as strong as we would have liked. Furthermore, the explained variance is moderate. We chose anyway, based on the theoretical assumptions, the cluster analysis and the significant correlations between the four dimensions, to make an index construct of NWoW based on the weights obtained from PCA.

We also have some mediating and moderating variables in our research. To demonstrate a mediating effect, according to Baron and Kenny (1986), a mediator variable is present if:

- the independent variable significantly accounts for variations in the mediator variable,
- the independent variable significantly accounts for variations in the dependent variable,
- the mediator variable significantly accounts for variations in the dependent variable when controlling for the independent variable.

Usually, a mediating effect is tested by the casual step approach. However, Preacher and Hayes (2008) argue that this casual step approach can only be recommended for large samples. Therefore, they suggest using bootstrap analysis, a nonparametric resampling procedure that does not impose the assumption of normality of the sampling distribution (Preacher and Hayes, 2008:880). We will use this method to test our mediating variables.

When the strength of the relation between two variables is dependent on a third variable, moderation occurs. The third variable, or moderator, interacts with independent variable in predicting the dependent variable if the regression weight of dependent variable on the independent variable varies as a function of the moderator (Preacher, Rucker & Hayes, 2007:191). To test for a moderation effect we centralized our independent and moderating variable, using regression analysis to test if the effect was significant.

The data analysis in the next section involves a number of steps. First, some descriptive statistics for the independent and dependent variables used in the analyses are presented.

Next, regression analyses are carried out to see if and how the causal relations are between the dimensions of NWoW and productivity, well-being and the work-life balance. To test for the expected mediation and moderation effect of experience (H_1), freedom of choice regarding working hours (H_4) and workaholism (H_7) the procedure described by Preacher and Hayes (2008) is followed. We also test the effect of our second order formative construct of NWoW, based on the PCA weightings, on productivity, well-being and work-life balance (H_{8a} , H_{8b} and H_{8c}).

4. Results

As shown in table 3, the respondents attain a high average score on organisation (4.04) and a positive average score on motivation (6.11). They report a relatively low average score on technology (2.52) and physical workplace (2.72).

The results also reveal that the respondents reach a high score on productivity (4.08), well-being (3.92) and work-life balance (3.69). Furthermore, we see that productivity and well-being have a

rather high correlation ($r=.50$, see table 3). This could mean that there is a causal relationship between these two variables. However, we will not focus on this (inter)relation in this study.

The respondents score relatively low on experience (3.18), flexibility in workplace (2.72), flexibility in working hours (3.38) and workaholism (2.87, see table 3).

The correlation matrix also reveals that flexibility in working hours has a moderate correlation with physical workplace ($r=.64$, see table 3). This is not unexpected because these concepts are theoretically closely related. We also see that well-being and motivation have a moderate correlation ($r=.49$, see table 3). Although these are two theoretical different concepts, it is not unlikely that there is relation between those two variables. If a respondent is feeling well, it would be more likely that this respondent is motivated to work. We test this relation when testing hypothesis H_6 .

In hypothesis H_1 , experience with technology is expected to be a mediating variable between technology and productivity. From table 5.1.1¹ the conclusion can be drawn that technology has a strong positive relation with experience ($B=.56$, see table 5.1.1). However the relation between experience and productivity is non-significant (see table 5.1.1). The bootstrap analysis (table 5.1.2) reveals that there indeed is no mediating effect of experience between technology and productivity. A regression analysis shows that there is a direct positive relation between technology and productivity ($B=.61$, see table 5.1.3). Therefore we have to reject hypothesis H_1 .

Hypothesis H_2 states that the physical workplace has a positive effect on productivity. The regression analysis reveals that the physical workplace is indeed a significant positive predictor of productivity ($B=.10$, see table 5.2). This confirms hypothesis H_2 .

Hypothesis H_3 defines social contact with colleagues as a moderating variable between the physical workplace and well-being. However, because the scale used for this variable was not reliable enough, we only test the direct relation between the physical workplace and well-being. A regression analysis shows that the physical workplace does significantly predict the well-being of the respondents ($B=.10$, see table 5.3). We reject however Hypothesis H_3 because we cannot test this relation within this study.

In hypothesis H_4 freedom in working hours is expected to be a mediating variable between the physical workplace and the work-life balance of employees. The results of our analysis show that there is a large significant effect between the physical workplace and freedom in working hours ($B=.84$, see table 5.4.1). However, the relation between freedom in working hours and the work-life balance is not significant (see table 5.4.1). The bootstrap analysis reveals that there is no indirect effect (see table 5.4.2). When testing for a direct effect between the physical workplace and the work-life balance, it reveals that the physical workplace does not significantly predict the work-life balance (table 5.4.3, model I). However, when controlling for educational level, it turns out that educational level has a significant negative influence on work-life balance (see table 5.4.3, model II). However, physical workplace still is not a significant predictor for work-life balance. To conclude, we reject hypothesis H_4 because there is no significant relation.

Hypothesis H_5 predicts that an organisation which manages her workers based on trust has a positive relation with productivity. The regression analysis reveals that organisation does significantly predict the perceived productivity of the respondents ($B=.18$, see table 5.5).

Hypothesis H_6 predicts that an organisation which managed his workers based on trust has a positive relation with well-being. The regression analysis reveal that organisation does significantly predict

¹ See the appendix for this table and the following ones.

the perceived well-being of the respondents (B=.30, see table 5.6). Hence, hypotheses H₅ and H₆ are confirmed.

In hypothesis H₇, workaholism is a negative moderating variable between motivation and well-being. As table 5.7.1 shows there is significant negative relation between motivation and workaholism (B=.22, see table 5.7.1). However there is no significant relation between workaholism and well-being. Also bootstrap analysis shows that there is no indirect effect of workaholism on motivation and well-being (see table 5.7.2). Yet, motivation is a positive predictor for well-being (B=.10, see table 5.7.3). This means that we have to reject hypothesis H₇.

Hypothesis H_{8a} is stating that NWoW has a positive effect on the productivity and hypothesis H_{8b} is stating that NWoW has a positive effect on well-being. The results show that NWoW has a positive significant effect on productivity (B=.19, see table 5.8.1) and on well-being (B=.29, see table 5.8.2). This means that Hypothesis H_{8a} and H_{8b} are confirmed.

If we test if NWoW also has an effect on the work-life balance (hypothesis H_{8c}) we see that NWoW has a significant positive relation with work-life balance (B=.08, see model II table 5.8.3) but that the control variable educational level is also negatively significant (B=.14, see model II table 5.8.3). This means that the educational level has a negative influence on the work-life balance of the respondents. Furthermore, the effect of NWoW on the work-life balance is only present if the control variable is included in the regression analysis (see model I, table 5.8.3). Educational level is therefore a covariate in the relation between NWoW and work-life balance.

We therefore reject hypothesis H_{8c} because there is not a direct positive effect of NWoW on work-life balance.

In figures 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 the results of this study are graphically shown (*p<.05, **p<0.01).

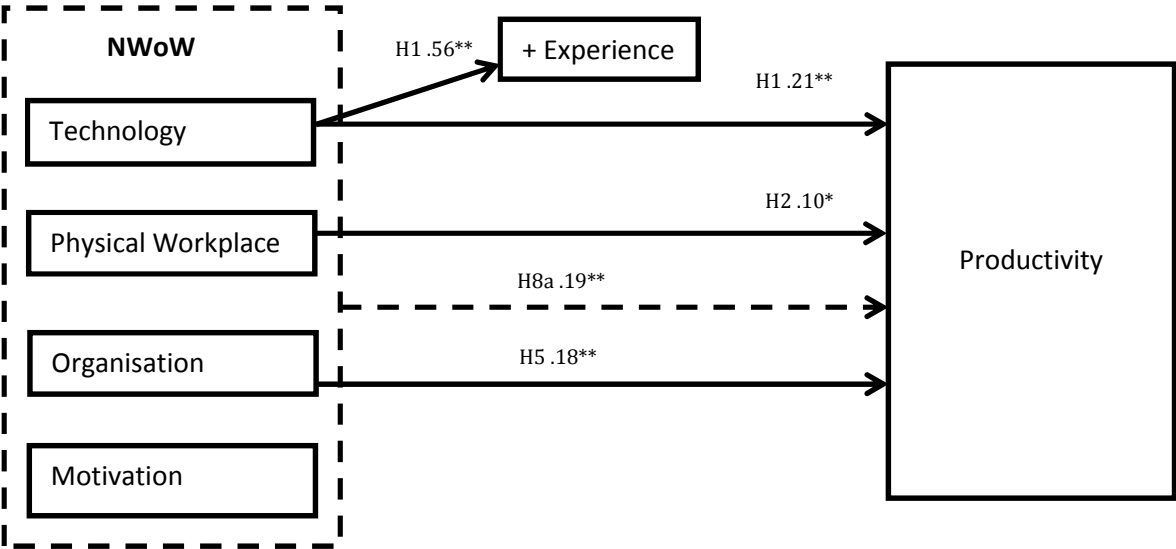


Figure 5.1 Final model NWoW and Productivity

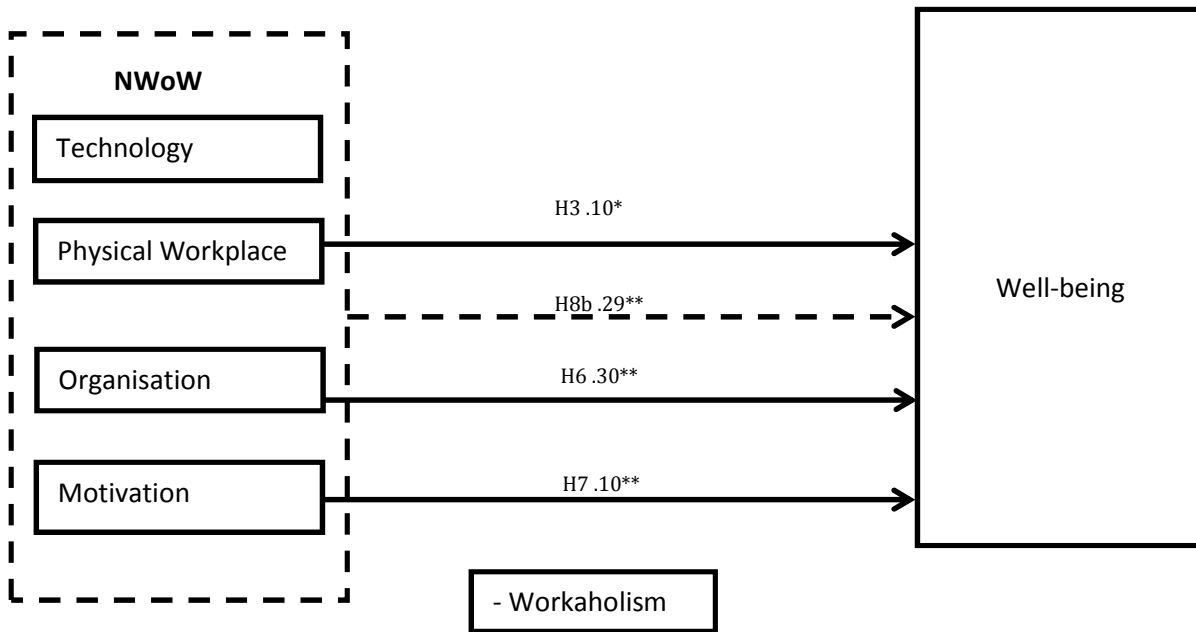


Figure 5.2 Final model NWoW and well-being

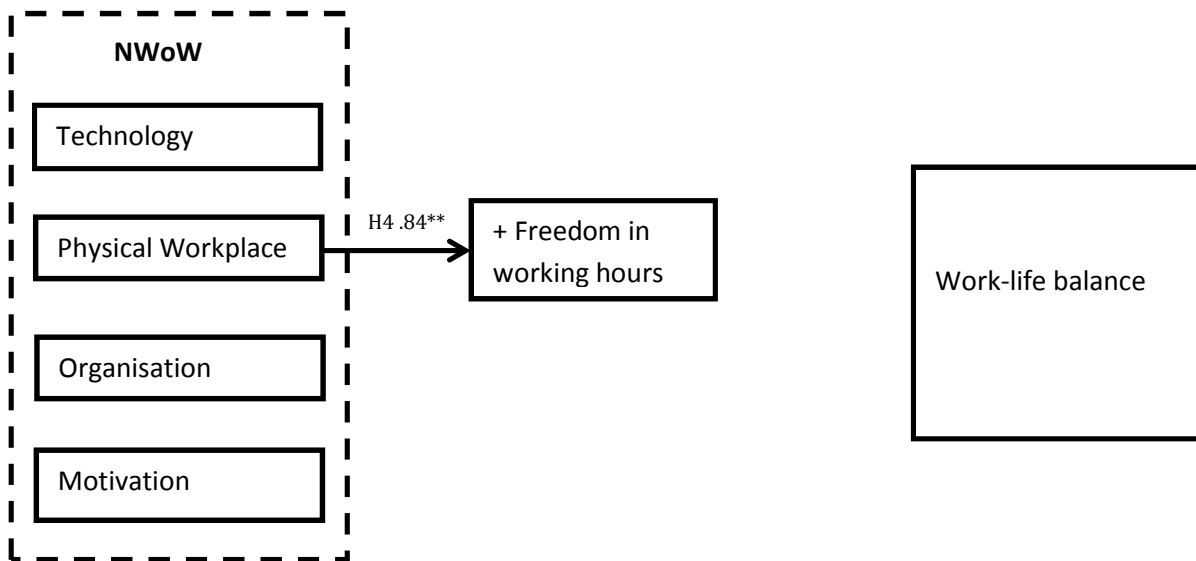


Figure 5.3 Final model NWoW and work-life balance

5. Conclusion and discussion

This study examined the effect of NWoW on productivity, well-being and the work-life balance and how and to what extent these effects can be related to the dimensions of NWoW.

It appeared that the respondents gave themselves high scores on their productivity, well-being and their work-life balance. They also reported that they often are managed via trust and the results showed that most of them are intrinsically motivated to do their work. Respondents did not use much technology and did not often work from different places, although it should be noted that the standard deviations of these two variables are rather high. This indicates that some respondents use more technology than others and that some respondents work more often from different places than

others. The cluster analysis confirms that there are two groups in our data; one group with an average low score on the dimensions of NWoW and one group with an average higher score on the dimensions of NWoW.

Based on our regression analysis we can conclude that the dimensions of NWoW and the second order formative construct NWoW have a positive effect on the productivity and the well-being of employees in this public organisation. There is not significant effect between the tested dimensions and the work-life balance. The results for the effect of the second order formative construct NWoW on the work-life balance of employees are influenced by the covariate educational level. We will explain this in more detail now.

Based on the bootstrap analysis of our mediating and moderating variables, it must be concluded that none of the variables we expected to be a mediator acts as a mediator. Instead, there was a direct relation between the use of technology and the perceived productivity, meaning that the more technology employees (can) use, the more productive they become. There also was a direct relation between the flexibility in the physical workplace and the perceived productivity of employees and between the physical workplace and the well-being of the employees. This means that the more flexibility employees have in choosing their own workplace the more productive they become and the better their well-being will be.

Our moderating variable did also turn out not to be significant. Here also a direct relation was found between the motivation of the respondents and their well-being. This means that the more intrinsic motivated employees are, the better they score their wellbeing.

Although hypothesized, we did not find a direct effect between flexible working from different places (teleworking) and work-life balance. Considering this relation, we found that the educational level of employees influences the work-life balance of our respondents negatively ($B=-.13$, see model II table 5.4.3). Could it be that highly-educated employees have more work to do and therefore experience more pressure on their work-life balance? Or do highly-educated people more often have a job with many responsibilities and are therefore less likely to take a day (or a few hours) off, resulting in an increased sense of pressure on their work-life balance? Further research would be necessary to research this relationship.

We did find a direct positive relation between an organisation which managed her employees based on trust and the perceived productivity of employees, meaning the more employees are managed through trust the more productive the employees will be. Furthermore, we also found a positive relation between an organisation which managed her employees based on trust and the wellbeing of the employees, meaning the more employees are managed through trust the better their wellbeing will be.

Concluding, this means that the individual dimensions of NWoW which are included in our research all have a positive effect on the productivity and wellbeing of employees, but not on the work-life balance. Although not all our hypotheses could be confirmed, we are glad that the results reveal that there are direct significant relations between the dimensions of NWoW and productivity and well-being.

We will now look into NWoW as a construct, combining the four dimensions. Although the evidence is not as strong as we would have liked, the principal component analysis, cluster analysis and the correlations tend towards the conclusions that the four dimensions NWoW can be add together as one second order formative construct.

The results of the regression analysis of NWoW on productivity, well-being and the work-life balance were interesting. We found that NWoW has a positive effect on the productivity of our respondents ($B=.19$, see table 5.8.1) and on their well-being ($B=.29$, see table 5.8.2). This means that when implementing all the four dimensions at once (thus the total concept of NWoW) in the organisation has a positive effect for the productivity and well-being of the employees.

When testing the relationship between NWoW and work-life balance the positive effect of NWoW on the work-life balance of the employees is only present when controlling for the educational level (see table 5.8.3, model II). The educational level is a covariate in the relation between NWoW and work-life balance. It would be very interesting to research if this covariate is also present in other organisations or if this is something unique for our case. Furthermore, it would be interesting to research why educational level has a negative influence on the work-life balance of the employees. A few possible explanations for this relationship are already given earlier.

Additionally, further research is necessary for the interrelationships between our dependent variables. Although we did not focus on these relationships, theoretical information and our correlation matrix show that these variables seem to be related.

To conclude, this research confirms that the dimensions of NWoW have a positive effect on the perceived productivity and the wellbeing of these employees. Unfortunately, we cannot confirm that the dimensions have a positive effect on the work-life balance of employees. Furthermore, we also found little evidence that NWoW can be seen as a second formative order concept. NWoW as a construct has a positive effect on the productivity and well-being of these public sector employees but not for the work-life balance. We can therefore conclude that NWoW is not only a hype, but that it can be expected that implementing NWoW indeed leads to more productive employees with a better well-being for this organisation.

This research adds to the current literature about NWoW by confirming that there is a positive relation between NWoW and the productivity and well-being of employees. Furthermore, this research gives a first step towards the operationalization of NWoW as a second order formative concept with four different dimensions. Although we realise that there is moderate explained variance and motivation has a low correlation with the other three dimensions, it has resulted in more insights in how the dimensions of NWoW are related. It revealed that physical workplace has the biggest impact and motivation the smallest impact on the construct. This research also contributes to the literature on public sector organisations, although the results of this study should not be used as a generalization for every other organisation in the public sector. This is because NWoW is a flexible concept which can and should be shaped in the desired form of the organisation and more research is needed to claim that NWoW is a good concept for all the public sector organisations because we have only researched one public organisation in the Netherlands. Nevertheless, this research seems to indicate that NWoW might also be a valuable concept for other public organisations which are similar to our organisation, because our result seems to indicate a match between NWoW and the public sector despite our doubts at the beginning. Therefore it would be very interesting to do a broader research on this topic within more public organisation, both similar and not similar to our organisation.

This brings us to some limitations of the present study. First of all, not all scales which were developed by the researcher herself had a high enough Cronbach's Alpha (above 0.7). This means

that the reliability of some dimensions in this study could have been better. Further research should therefore be carried out to develop the scales and increase their reliability to measure the different dimensions of NWoW.

Secondly, this research relies on perceived results. The respondents had to report their own productivity. In this study, employees assessed their own productivity rather high (4.08, see table 3), which could indicate that there is a positive bias. Yet, the respondents also reported high scores on the independent variables organisation and motivation. This can mean that both high reports on the dependent as the independent variables do not really bias the results as far as their relationship is concerned. Still, it would be interesting to develop a measuring instrument for productivity where respondents are scored by a more objective approach on their productivity, for example by others or by setting concrete goals.

Thirdly, our operationalization of the physical workplace does not include the aspect of interruptions, which are mentioned by Lindell (2010). It would be interesting to do more research on this specific aspect of the physical workplace. How do interruptions influence the productivity of employees who work in an activity based office? Besides, a T-Test revealed that the employees working in the new part of the office of Veenendaal (which is an activity based office) have an average higher score on the dimensions of NWoW than the employees working in the old part of the office. Does an activity based office contribute to make working through NWoW possible? This would be very interesting for further research.

Many researchers argue that correlations between variables measured with the same method, are inflated by common method bias (CMB). Spector (2008), however, shows that this argument is rarely true in reality. He argues that this bias is real and endemic to research, but also that laboratory experiments have problems with biases and that multi-method research in most cases have not led to different results. To minimize the effect of common method bias, we have provided verbal labels for the midpoint of our scales, allowed the respondents' answer to be anonymous and assured that there were no right or wrong answers (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff, 2003:888). Unfortunately, it was not possible to have respondents complete the measurement of the independent variable under different conditions than under which they completed the measurement of the dependent variables. However, we defined ambiguous or unfamiliar terms, we provided examples by vague concepts and we kept questions simple, specific and concise (Podsakoff et al., 2003:888).

We also have to deal with common method variance (CMV). Whereas CMB refers to the degree to which correlations are inflated due to a methods effect, CMV implies that variance in observed scores is partially attributable to a methods effect (Meade, Watson, and Kroustalis, 2007:1). Therefore, a factor analysis (or also called the Harman's single-factor test), as suggested by Podsakoff and Organ (1986) and Podsakoff et al. (2003) was carried out and revealed that there is not a single factor that accounts for the majority of the covariance in the variables.

Further this research is executed by using cross-sectional data. Therefore, this research does not allow us to say anything about how the effects of NWoW develop over time. Unfortunately, the time that was available for this study was not enough to do such a research. It is therefore desirable to conduct a longitudinal research on the effects of NWoW. Questions that are relevant to research are for example the following ones: 'Do the effects perhaps decrease after some time or are the effects still present after a few years? And how does the concept itself develop over time? Are some dimensions becoming more important or do organisations leave out a dimension?'

It would also be good to perform structural equation modeling to research how the four independent dimensions of NWoW influence the three dependent variables of NWoW at the same time. With this method it is possible to test our whole model in one analysis. Unfortunately, with the program SPSS, which was used to do analysis of the data for this study, this was not possible. In future research this would be interesting, because it can reveal even better how NWoW influences the productivity, well-being and work-life balance of employees in a public sector. This can also lead to more insights into why the influences of some dimensions of NWoW changes when the dimensions are combined. That remains unclear in this study.

Much is written on what NWoW is and how organisations can implement it. Still, it would be interesting to test different implementations and descriptions of NWoW. Do all the different concepts lead to the same positive results, or are some concepts 'better' than others? Our results seem to suggest that organisations which focus on creating flexible working receive better results than organisations focussing more managing her employees through trust. And how does the organisational environment influence the outcomes of NWoW? Does a public organisation which has to deal with many different actors, have different results than an organisation dealing with just a few actors?

This research confirms that NWoW is not only a hype, but NWoW indeed leads to a positive effect on the productivity and well-being of the public sector employees we researched. In that sense we can speak of a match between NWoW and the public sector, answering the question in the title of this study. All four different dimensions of NWoW individually contribute to the positive benefits on the productivity and the well-being of employees, although not all dimensions are significant for both productivity and well-being. NWoW as a second order formative construct has a positive significant relation with the productivity and well-being of employees. Even though there seems to be a positive trend between NWoW and the work-life balance of employees, this relation is not significant. We therefore conclude that to achieve more productive employees with a better well-being NWoW could be a match organisations which are similar to our case.

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Tables

Table 5.1.1 Results of the regression analyses H1

IV to mediator	.56 (.09)**
Mediator to DV	-.01 (.05)
Total effect	.21 (.06)**
Direct effect	.22 (.07)**
F	6.34
R	0.25
R ²	0.06
Adjusted R ²	.042

a. **p<.01

Table 5.1.2 Bootstrap analysis H1

	Bootstrap analysis BC 95%	
	Lower	Upper
		Indirect Effects
Experience	-.0738	.0466
Total	-.0738	.0466

a. BC, bias corrected; 1000 bootstrap samples.

Table 5.1.3 Results of the regression analyses H1

Technology	.21 (.14)**
Constant	.21 (.06)**
F	14.02
R	.24
R ²	0.6
Adjusted R ²	0.6

a. Dependent variable productivity, unstandardized regression coefficients are shown. Standard error between parentheses.

b. **p<.01

c. The control variables gender, age and level of educational level are added (all non-significant).

Table 5.2 Results of the regression analyses H2

Physical Workplace	.10 (.03)**
Constant	3.81 (.09)**
F	11.04
R	.22
R ²	.05
Adjusted R ²	.04

a. Dependent variable productivity, unstandardized regression coefficients are shown. Standard error between parentheses.

b. **p<.01

c. The control variables gender, age and level of educational level are added (all non-significant).

Table 5.3 Results of the regression analyses H3

Physical Workplace	.10 (.04)*
Constant	3.7 (.12)**
F	5.4
R	.15
R ²	.02
Adjusted R ²	.02

- Dependent variable well-being, unstandardized regression coefficients are shown. Standard error between parentheses.
- *p<.05, **p<.01
- The control variables gender, age and level of educational level are added (all non-significant).

Table 5.4.1 Results of the regression analyses H4

IV to mediator	.84 (.07)**
Mediator to DV	.04 (.04)
Total effect	-.01 (.04)
Direct effect	-.04 (.06)
F	.36
R	.06
R ²	.004
Adjusted R ²	-.007

- **p<.01

Table 5.4.2 Bootstrap analysis H4

	Bootstrap analysis BC 95%	
	Lower	Upper
	Indirect Effects	
Freedom in workplace	-.0992	.0732
Total	-.0992	.0732

- BC, bias corrected; 1000 bootstrap samples.

Table 5.4.3 Results of the regression analyses H4

	I	II
Educational Level		-.13 (.04)**
Physical workplace	.00 (.04)	.03 (.04)
Constant	3.69 (.12)**	4.10 (.22)**
F	.001	3.11
R	.002	.21
R ²	.000	.04
Adjusted R ²	-.005	.03

- Dependent variable work-life balance, unstandardized regression coefficients are shown. Standard error between parentheses.
- **p<.01
- The control variables gender, age and level of educational level are added (level of education is significant).

Table 5.5 Results of the regression analyses H5

Organisation	.18 (.04)**
Constant	3.37 (.15)**
F	21.90**
R	.30
R ²	.09
Adjusted R ²	.09

- a. Dependent variable productivity, unstandardized regression coefficients are shown. Standard error between parentheses.
- b. **p<.01
- c. The control variables gender, age and level of educational level are added (all non-significant).

Table 5.6 Results of the regression analyses H6

Organisation	.30 (.05)**
Constant	2.7 (.20)**
F	40.14**
R	.39
R ²	.15
Adjusted R ²	.15

- a. Dependent variable well-being, unstandardized regression coefficients are shown. Standard error between parentheses.
- b. **p<.01
- c. The control variables gender, age and level of educational level are added (all non-significant).

Table 5.7.1 Results of the regression analyses H7

Motivation Centred	.10 (.01)**
Workaholism Centred	.02 (.05)
Motivation Centred * Workaholism Centred	.03 (.02)
Constant	3.93 (.04)**
F	24.57
R	.50
R ²	.25
Adjusted R ²	.24

- a. Dependent variable well-being
- b. **p<.01

Table 5.7.2 Results of the regression analyses H7

Motivation	.10 (.01)**
Constant	3.30 (.08)**
F	70.91
R	.49
R ²	.24
Adjusted R ²	.24

- a. Dependent variable well-being, unstandardized regression coefficients are shown. Standard error between parentheses.
- b. **p<.01
- c. The control variables gender, age and level of educational level are added (all non-significant).

Table 5.8.1 Results of the regression analyses H8a

NWoW	.19 (.03) **
Constant	4.08 (.03)**
F	41.31
R	.40
R ²	.16
Adjusted R ²	.15

- Dependent variable productivity, unstandardized regression coefficients are shown. Standard error between parentheses.
- **p<.01
- The control variables gender, age and level of educational level are added (all non-significant).

Table 5.8.2 Results of the regression analyses H8b

NWoW	.29 (.04)**
Constant	3.9 (.04)**
F	55.24
R	.445
R ²	.20
Adjusted R ²	.20

- Dependent variable well-being, unstandardized regression coefficients are shown. Standard error between parentheses.
- **p<.01
- The control variables gender, age and level of educational level are added (all non-significant).

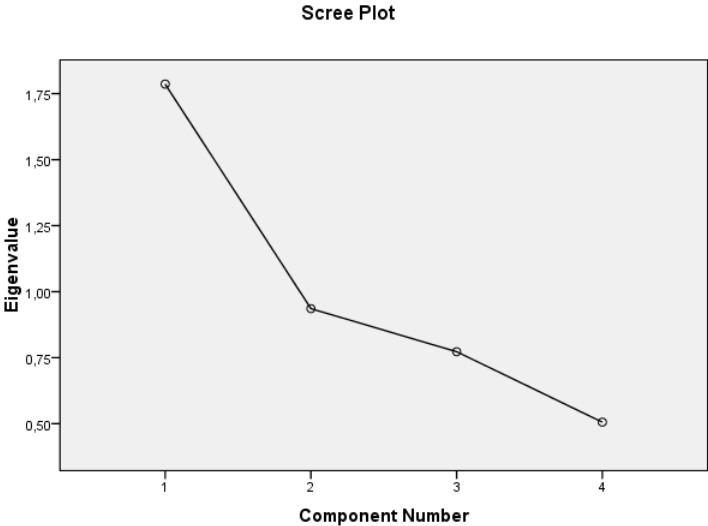
Table 5.8.3 Results of the regression analyses H8c

	I	II
Educational Level		-.14 (.04)**
NWoW	.06 (.04)	.09 (.04)*
Constant	3.70 (.04)**	4.31 (.19)**
F	1.75	6.29
R	.09	.23
R ²	.008	.05
Adjusted R ²	.003	.05

- Dependent variable work-life balance, unstandardized regression coefficients are shown. Standard error between parentheses.
- *p<.05,**p<.01
- The control variables gender, age and level of educational level are added (only educational level was significant).

Figures

Figure 4 Scree plot



Attachment 1 – Questionnaire in Dutch

Controle

- 1) Ik ben een
 Man
 Vrouw
- 2) Ik ben geboren in [jaartal]
- 3) Mijn hoogst genoten opleidingsniveau is:
 Basisschool
 Lager beroepsonderwijs
 MAVO
 MBO
 Hoger niet-universitair onderwijs/HBO (geen masterdiploma)
 WO
- 4) Ik ben werkzaam bij de afdeling:
 Beleid & Ontwikkeling
 Projecten
 Publiekszaken
 Wijk en stadsbeheer
 Veiligheid & Handhaving
 Administratie & Informatie
 Facilitaire zaken
 Management ondersteuning
 Concernstaf
 Personeel & Organisatie
- 5) Ik heb een leidinggevende functie Ja/nee
- 6) Ik ben werkzaam bij de gemeente Veenendaal sinds [jaartal]
- 7) Hoeveel uur bent u werkzaam voor de gemeente Veenendaal? [aantal uren]
- 8) Ik werk in het
 Oude gedeelte
 Nieuwe gedeelte

Technologie

9) Op mijn werk gebruik ik de volgende technologieën :

	Nooit	Eens per kwartaal	Eens per maand	Elke week	Elke dag
A) E-mail	0	0	0	0	0
B) Internet	0	0	0	0	0
C) Mobiele telefoon (zonder internet)	0	0	0	0	0
D) Mobiele telefoon (met internet)	0	0	0	0	0
F) Token (alleen e-mail)	0	0	0	0	0
G) Token (mail en desktop)	0	0	0	0	0
H) Groupware	0	0	0	0	0
I) Chatprogramma	0	0	0	0	0

Werkplek

	Helemaal Oneens	Oneens	Niet mee oneens/ niet mee eens	Eens	Helemaal Eens
10) Ik werk met enige regelmaat thuis	0	0	0	0	0
11) Ik werk altijd achter hetzelfde bureau op het kantoor	0	0	0	0	0
12) Hoeveel flexibiliteit heeft u in het kiezen van de locatie waar u werkt? (bijv. Op kantoor, thuis of in een café etc.)	0	0	0	0	0
13) Hoeveel flexibiliteit heeft u in het kiezen van een bureau op uw kantoor?	0	0	0	0	0
14) Ik heb ook buiten het kantoor toegang tot (bijna) alle informatie die ik nodig heb voor mijn werk.	0	0	0	0	0

Organisatie

	Helemaal Oneens	Oneens	Niet mee oneens/ niet mee eens	Eens	Helemaal Eens
15) Mijn leidinggevende is ervan overtuigd dat ik mijn werk goed doe, zelfs als ik niet fysiek aanwezig ben.	0	0	0	0	0
16) Mijn leidinggevende focust op de resultaten van mijn werk, niet op mijn fysieke aanwezigheid.	0	0	0	0	0
17) Mijn leidinggevende heeft een faciliterende rol in plaats van een regisserende rol.	0	0	0	0	0
18) Mijn leidinggevende geeft mij genoeg vertrouwen in het uitvoeren van mijn werk.	0	0	0	0	0
19) Mijn leidinggevende geeft mij het gevoel dat ik fouten mag maken.	0	0	0	0	0

Motivatie

Geef aan in hoeverre u het eens bent met de volgende stellingen:

	Helemaal Oneens	Oneens	Niet mee oneens/ niet mee eens	Eens	Helemaal Eens
20) Ik doe mijn werk omdat ik anders in de problemen kom	0	0	0	0	0
21) Ik doe mijn werk omdat ik anders een slechte evaluatie krijg	0	0	0	0	0
22) Ik doe mijn werk omdat ik me anders schuldig voel	0	0	0	0	0
23) Ik doe mijn werk omdat ik me anders slecht voel	0	0	0	0	0
24) Ik doe mijn werk omdat ik een goede ambtenaar wil zijn	0	0	0	0	0
25) Ik doe mijn werk omdat ik er plezier in schep	0	0	0	0	0
26) Ik doe mijn werk omdat ik mijn baan leuk vind	0	0	0	0	0

Ervaring

27. Geef aan hoe vaak u de volgende technologieën thuis gebruikt:

	Nooit	Eens per kwartaal	Eens per maand	Elke week	Elke dag
A) E-Mail	0	0	0	0	0
B) Internet	0	0	0	0	0
C) Mobiele telefoon (zonder internet)	0	0	0	0	0
D) Mobiele telefoon (met internet)	0	0	0	0	0
E) Groupware	0	0	0	0	0
F) Chatprogramma	0	0	0	0	0

Contact met collega's

28) Hoe vaak heeft u de afgelopen maand gesprekken gevoerd met:

	Geen contact	Elk kwartaal	Elke maand	Elke week	Elke dag contact
a) uw collega's	0	0	0	0	0
b) uw manager	0	0	0	0	0
c) uw ondergeschikten	0	0	0	0	0
d) 'klanten' van de gemeente	0	0	0	0	0

Workaholism

Geef aan in hoeverre u het eens bent met de volgende stellingen:

	Helemaal Oneens	Oneens	Niet mee oneens/ niet mee eens	Eens	Helemaal Eens
29) Ik heb vaak haast en werk tegen deadlines aan	0	0	0	0	0
30) Ik werk door terwijl mijn collega's al naar huis zijn	0	0	0	0	0
31) Ik vind het belangrijk om hard te werken, zelfs als ik eigenlijk geen plezier heb in mijn bezigheden	0	0	0	0	0
32) Ik ben vaak druk en heb vaak veel ijzers tegelijk in het vuur	0	0	0	0	0
33) Ik besteed meer tijd aan mijn werk dan aan mijn vrienden, hobby's, of andere vrijetijdsactiviteiten	0	0	0	0	0
34) Ik heb het gevoel dat iets in mijzelf me dwingt hard te werken	0	0	0	0	0
35) Ik voel me verplicht hard te werken, ook al vind ik dat niet altijd prettig	0	0	0	0	0
36) Ik ben met meerdere dingen tegelijk bezig, ik schrijf bijvoorbeeld een memo terwijl ik eet en met iemand telefoneer	0	0	0	0	0
37) Ik voel me schuldig als ik vrij neem van mijn werk	0	0	0	0	0
38) Ik vind het moeilijk om me te ontspannen als ik niet aan het werk ben	0	0	0	0	0

Flexibiliteit werktijden

	Geen	Een beetje	Gemiddeld	Veel	Heel Veel
39) Hoeveel flexibiliteit heeft u in het kiezen van wanneer u werkt? (bijv. Welke dagen u werkt, wanneer u begint/stopt met werken)	0	0	0	0	0

Productiviteit

	Helemaal Oneens	Oneens	Niet mee oneens/ niet mee eens	Eens	Helemaal Eens
40) Als ik een taak/opdracht moet doen voor mijn werk probeer ik altijd het gebruik van tijd en geld te minimaliseren	0	0	0	0	0
41) Ik verspil geen tijd op mijn werk	0	0	0	0	0
42) Ik verspil geen geld op mijn werk	0	0	0	0	0
43) Ik leer van mijn fouten	0	0	0	0	0
44) Als ik samenwerk met andere mensen/externe partijen, dan werk ik efficiënt	0	0	0	0	0
45) Ik bereik mijn doelen	0	0	0	0	0
46) De kwaliteit van het werk wat ik doe is hoog	0	0	0	0	0
47) Ik verzet veel werk.	0	0	0	0	0
48) Ik doe een succesvolle bijdrage aan het bereiken van de doelen van de gemeente Veenendaal	0	0	0	0	0
49) Ik rond projecten succesvol af	0	0	0	0	0
50) Het werk wat ik doe is het waard voor dat burgers belasting betalen.	0	0	0	0	0
51) Alles bij elkaar genomen, lever ik goed werk.	0	0	0	0	0

Welzijn

	Helemaal ontevreden	Ontevredem	Niet ontevreden / niet tevreden	Tevreden	Helemaal tevreden
52) Alles bij elkaar genomen; hoe tevreden bent u met uw werk?	0	0	0	0	0

Geef aan in hoeverre u het eens bent met de volgende stellingen:

	Helemaal Oneens	Oneens	Niet mee oneens/ niet mee eens	Eens	Helemaal Eens
53) Ik ben trots op het werk wat ik doe	0	0	0	0	0
54) Mijn werk inspireert mij	0	0	0	0	0
55) Ik ben trots op mijn beroep	0	0	0	0	0
56) Ik ben enthousiast over mijn werk	0	0	0	0	0
57) Ik voel me gelukkig als ik intensief werk	0	0	0	0	0
58) Als ik 's ochtends op sta, heb ik zin om te gaan werken	0	0	0	0	0
59) Op mijn werk heb ik het gevoel dat ik barst van energie	0	0	0	0	0

Work-life balans

	Heel moeilijk	Moeilijk	Niet moeilijk / niet makkelijk	Makkelij k	Heel gemakkelijk
60) Hoe gemakkelijk of hoe moeilijk is het voor u om te balanceren tussen de eisen van uw werk en uw privé leven?	0	0	0	0	0

	Helemaal Oneens	Oneens	Niet mee oneens/ niet mee eens	Eens	Helemaal Eens
61) Ik heb voldoende (vrije) tijd buiten mijn werk bij de gemeente Veenendaal om mijn werk en privé/gezinsleven in een goede balans te houden	0	0	0	0	0
62) Als ik vakantie neem, ben ik in staat om mijn werk los te laten en te genieten	0	0	0	0	0

	Helemaal niet succesvol	Niet succesvol	Niet onsuccesvol maar ook niet succesvol	Succesvol	Heel succesvol
63) Alles bij elkaar genomen, hoe succesvol voelt u zich in het balanceren tussen uw werk en uw privé/gezinsleven?	0	0	0	0	0

	Nooit	Elk kwartaal	Elke maand	Elke week	Elke dag
66) Hoe vaak voelt u zich uitgeput wanneer u thuiskomt van u werk als gevolg van de werkdruk en problemen?	0	0	0	0	0