

Castaways

A Mixed Methods Study into Leadership, Social Isolation, and Employee Wellbeing of Public Servants during the Covid-19 Pandemic



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1. Introduction

In contemporary society there is a constant decline in social capital: "*the connections among individuals' social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them*" (Putnam, 2000, p.19). This is problematic because the wellbeing of individuals psychologically and biologically depends on the intensity and quality of social interactions (Putnam, 2000; de Vries, Tummers & Bekkers, 2019). According to Putnam (2000) generational differences are the main cause for the decline in social capital. In the workplace for example, millennials, those born after 1982, are way less attached to organisations than their predecessors (Ertas, 2005). Besides this stable decline in social capital due to generational differences, anno 2020 the decline in social capital is intensified as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. Governments forced public organisations into an immediate transformation of working in a virtual environment, whereas public servants suddenly had to work from home. As public servants are detached from their organisations, and excluded from the traditional organisational network, they may feel isolated, potentially affecting the wellbeing of public servants (de Vries et al., 2019). They may feel lonely, experience stress, and be frustrated (Dahlstrom, 2013).

1.1. OPPERTUNITY STATEMENT

Previous studies on employees working in a virtual environment often focused on telecommuting. Telecommuting is generally seen as: "*a work practice that involves members of an organization substituting a portion of their typical work hours (ranging from a few hours per week to nearly full-time) to work away from a central workplace—typically principally from home—using technology to interact with others as needed to conduct work tasks*" (Allen, Golden & Schockley, p. 44, 2014). This type of working already exists since the 1970's and gradually received interest of organisations that aimed to: reduce energy costs, hire rare, specialised staff all of the world, become more sustainable, and improve the work-life balance. The technological revolution further boomed the implementation of telecommuting in the decades that followed (Castells, 2000; Dahlstrom, 2013). Then, in the beginning of 2020, the COVID-19 crisis brought new incentives for public

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organisations to shift to the virtual work environments. As mentioned earlier, governments all over the world urged individuals to work from home. Also, ‘business’ had to be sustained, and the employees protected (Belzunegui-Eraso & Erro-Garcés, 2020). These incentives immediately led to a rapid rise in telecommuting. In the Netherlands, the workforce that worked from home increased by 44 percent within one month after the first case of COVID-19 (Haas, Faber & Hammersma, 2020).

Although scholars within organisational science have studied teleworking since the beginning, the outcomes varied highly between studies (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). The main reason is that studies into telecommuting do not accurately explain the mechanisms and contextual factors that are of influence on the outcomes of telecommuting (Kelliher & De Menezes, 2019). Past research indicated for example that it is relevant to study conditions and showed for example that telecommuting outcomes depend on the culture within organisations (Ansong & Boateng, 2018), the nature of work (Boell, Cecez-Kecmanovic & Campbell, 2016), the modes of communications (Gajedran & Harisson, 2007), and even on the personality traits of individuals (Meymandpour & Bagheri, 2017). Probably the most influential contextual factors on telecommuting outcomes are the teleworking arrangements (Allen et al., 2015). Telecommuting arrangements can be part-time or full-time (and everything in between), voluntary or forced, from home or from any alternative location outside the organisation (e.g., in an internet café), and permanently or occasional (Feldman & Gainey, 1997; Dahlstrom, 2013). Not accounting for teleworking arrangements is problematic because individuals in general feel more isolated as the intensity of telecommuting increases (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). Moreover, some individuals thrive better than others in the virtual work environment such that forcing all individuals to telework may lead to worse outcomes (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). Previous studies also indicate that telecommuting outcomes depend on the quality of the workplace (Allen et al., 2015), and the experience of telecommuters (Gibson, Blackwell, Dominics & Demerath, 2002).

The usual transformation to telecommuting, and the accompanied teleworking arrangements, are highly different from the current transformation to telecommuting because of the COVID-19 pandemic. Firstly, a ‘shift’ to telecommuting requires transformations in organisational structure, organisational culture, leadership, professionalisation, employee selection, work-life balance, and so forth (Beauregard et al., 2019; Kingsma, 2019). Due to the sudden urgency to work fully from home organisations presumably lacked time to adjust properly to the virtual work environment. Secondly, the accompanied telecommuting arrangements are highly different than in previous occasions: public servants must work (nearly) all their working time from home.

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Especially, social isolation is of importance here, as it is believed to be the most prominent ‘pitfall’ for telecommuters (Baruch, 2000). With high levels of social isolation, the ‘promised’ wellbeing benefits of telecommuting are likely to diminish and may even decrease the wellbeing of telecommuters (Feldman & Gainey, 1997; Potter, 2003; Golden et al., 2008; Beauregard et al., 2019). Additionally, because in the current situation telecommuting is involuntary, those individuals who do not thrive in the virtual environment, mostly because they cope less well with isolation, also must work from home, making the impact of isolation on telecommuting outcomes potentially even more substantial (Feldman & Gainey, 1997; Meymandpour & Bagheri, 2017).

Generally, scholars are convinced that there are leadership behaviours that fit with working in the virtual environment more well than others (Malhotra, Majchrzak & Rosen, 2007; Uhle-Bien, 2011; Dahlstrom, 2013). Particularly for leading in the virtual environment, and potentially even more in the current telecommuting situation, it is of importance that leaders deal effectively with employees who are feeling isolated (Golden, Veiga & Dino, 2008; Cheng, Bartram, Karimi & Leggat, 2016; de Vries et al., 2019). Some scholars indicate that appropriate leadership styles consist of relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours¹(Mann, Varey & Button, 2000; Illozor, Illozor & Carr, 2001; Larsson, Sjoberg, Nilsson & Alvinus, 2007). Whereas relations-oriented leadership behaviours emphasise human relations and participative decision making, task-oriented leadership behaviours emphasise organisational structure (Brown, 2003; Yukl, 2012). Both types of op leadership behaviours may contribute to the maintenance of interactions within the virtual environment such that public servants do not feel socially isolated (Beauregard, Basile & Canónico, 2019). Directly on wellbeing, leadership behaviours may have a positive effect by creating and maintaining a relationship of giving and taking ‘things’ (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

As previous studies do not provide a definitive answer on how the current telecommuting situation affect social isolation and the wellbeing of public servants, and how leadership can be of importance, a study into leadership, social isolation and telecommuting outcomes is of importance.

¹ Two other types of leadership behaviours that are included in in Yukl’s (2012) well-known hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behaviours; change-oriented and external leadership behaviours, may be indirectly of importance on employee wellbeing. Change-oriented leaders have for example the potential to adjust the organisation (e.g., modes of communication) to the virtual environment, and thereby may indirectly positively influence employee wellbeing. Those indirect relationships are however beyond the scope of this study.

1.2. PURPOSE STATEMENT

For the abovementioned reasons, the purpose of this study is to examine relation-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours, social isolation, and employee wellbeing in the unique context of telecommuting during COVID-19. An explanatory sequential mixed methods design will be used that involves collecting quantitative data first and then explaining the quantitative results with the use of in-depth qualitative data. In the first, quantitative phase of the study, survey data will be used from public servants of two Dutch public organisations, named and hereinafter referred to as organisation Y and organisation Z, to test the effects of relation-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours on employee wellbeing, mediated by social isolation. To explain the quantitative findings, in the second qualitative phase interviews with public servants of organisation Y and organisation Z will be analysed.

1.3. RESEARCH QUESTION

The question answered in the study is: how do relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours affect the wellbeing of public servants, and how is this mediated by social isolation, in the unique context of telecommuting during the COVID-19 crisis at organisation Y and organisation Z? The following sub-questions are answered in this study

- How does the current telecommuting situation lead to social isolation of public servants of organisation Y and organisation Z?
- How is social isolation related to the wellbeing of public servants from organisation Y and organisation Z in the context of telecommuting during COVID-19?
- How do relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership affect the wellbeing of public servants from organisation Y and organisation Z in the context of telecommuting during COVID-19?
- How is the relation between leadership behaviours and wellbeing mediated by social isolation in the context of telecommuting during COVID-19?

1.4. RELEVANCE

This study contributes to the scientific literature on telecommuting and leadership in mainly three ways. First and foremost, and as previously described, both the effects of leadership behaviours as the effects of telecommuting are context dependent (Bass, 1990;

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Allen et al., 2015). There are barely any studies into the effects of leadership behaviours on employee wellbeing in the virtual environment (Dahlstrom, 2013; de Vries et al., 2019), and especially in the unique context of telecommuting during the COVID-19 crisis. Additionally, the bulk of previous studies into telecommuting outcomes do not include social isolation in their analysis. This is of importance as social isolation is likely to harm telecommuting (wellbeing) outcomes (Beauregard et al., 2019). Studies that treat social isolation justly, as a mediating variable and not solely a dependent variable, are even scarcer. Secondly, teleworking research is dominated by cases of private organisations (De Vries et al., 2013). Being aware that private organisations differ from public organisation (Boyne, 2002), as well as their employees (e.g., in motivation), focus on public organisations and public servants is of value. Thirdly, by using mixed methods, the claims made are based on both quantitative and qualitative data, and the outcomes are therefore generally 'richer' (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). This is particularly of value in telecommuting studies, because of the influence of contextual factors (including teleworking arrangements) on telecommuting outcomes (Allen et al., 2015; Kingma, 2019), and because of the unique telecommuting context created by the COVID-19 pandemic. In contrast with previous studies into telecommuting, which often included solely one type of method, by using both forms of data the presence and influence of the contextual factors could be described in more detail, and contingencies could be revealed.

Besides creating scientific value, current scientific research is increasingly assessed on the societal value it produces (Bornmann, 2012). In other words, for a research to be perceived as successful it must also produce practical knowledge, that politicians, policy makers and even common citizens can benefit from. The societal relevance in this study stems from the gigantic shift to telecommuting as a result from the COVID-19 pandemic. From past research we know that a shift to teleworking leads to drastic transformation of the organisation of work (Kingma, 2019), having all kinds of consequences for public organisations and public servants alike (Allen et al., 2015). By testing and explaining how the current telecommuting situation led to social isolation, and how social isolation in turn affect individual's wellbeing, and how leadership can contribute, this study may provide leaders, supervisors, and policymakers with knowledge on how to deal with public servants in social isolation. Knowledge that will also stay relevant after the COVID-19 pandemic, as is expected that the shift to telecommuting is not temporarily, something being reversed later, but a transformation to be sustained, albeit partly (Haas et al., 2020).

2. Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework is divided in four sections. In the first section (2.1) is explained how telecommuting leads to social isolation and social isolation is conceptualised. In the second section (2.2) is described how social isolation relates to wellbeing, specifically focussing on work engagement and burnout. Thereafter, in the third section (2.3), the attention is shifted from social isolation towards leadership. Here the conceptualisation of relation-oriented leadership and task-oriented leadership is provided, and two typologies presented. In the fourth and last section (2.4), is explained how these leadership behaviours have the potential to decrease social isolation and increase the wellbeing of public servants.

2.1. WORKING IN ISOLATION

Roughly twenty years ago Putnam (2000) wrote in his famous work *bowling alone* that the social capital among individuals declined. Individuals in contemporary society have less interactions and a less strong social network than they had before. Other scholars refer to this process as individualisation (Brannen & Nilsen, 2005). Putnam used the notion 'bowling alone' not only metaphorically, but it was also one of the observations displayed to substantiate his argument. While in the 90's the number of bowlers in the United States increased by 10 percent, the number of league bowlers decreased by 40 percent. Although for most readers this may appear to be a simple change in individual preferences, Putnam (1995) explains "*the broader social significance, however, lies in the social interaction and even occasionally civic conversations over beer and pizza that solo bowlers forgo...*" (p. 5). According to him, individual bowlers miss out on the 'norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness' social networks provide.

Putnam (1995; 2000) sums up several explanations for the decline in social capital, such as generational differences, globalisation, and the removal of traditional religious and socio-political barriers. Another societal transformation, of which Putnam (1995) pays attention to, is the technological revolution. In the time Putnam (1995) wrote his essay *bowling alone* most influential was the rise of the television that diminished social interactions. Twenty-five years later, technological innovations have probably become the most prominent cause for a decline in social capital. Regarding working, scholars observed that with telecommuting's raisings popularity social capital further declined. The main reason is that telecommuters are excluded from the recurring interpersonal interactions that takes place within the traditional organisational networks (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). On the one hand, this can be the formal interactions that are brought

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forward by organised meetings. On the other hand, there are informal interactions, such as the small talks at the coffee machine or at lunchtime. Telecommuters often miss out on these mostly spontaneous informal conversations with colleagues, and therefore they establish fewer personal relationships than ‘regular workers’ (Cooper & Kurland, 2002).

Anno 2021, the decline in social capital is however not solely the result of diminishing interactions, but also because of the replacement of physical interactions by virtual interactions (Vega & Brennan, 2000). Since Putnam (1995) wrote his essay *bowling alone*, many traditional forms of social interactions are replaced by online forms, such as socialising, dating, gaming, voting, shopping. and central to this study: working. Replacement of physical interactions by virtual interactions matter because interactions in the virtual environment are generally of less quality than physical interactions (Vega & Brennan, 2000; Chang, Cheung & Tang, 2013). Following Putnam’s (2000) jargon, interactions in the physical work environment result in ‘bonding’ social capital, meaning that it creates a shared social identity among the public servants of an organisation, whereas the interactions within the virtual environment result in non-bonding social capital, whereby no social identity is created. Vega & Brennan (2000) note similarly that individuals in contemporary society lose their ‘self’, their social identities, due to the diminishing social interactions. Because humans cannot live without social identities² they seek for their social identity online, but soon find out that “*the more connected you are [online], the more alone you become*” (Vega & Brennan, 2000, p. 471).

When writing about public servants losing the social identity of the organisations, telecommuting scholars often use the term social isolation. Diekema (1992) refers to *isolation* as the aloneness imposed by other external forces. Following Diekema’s (1992) idea of isolation, isolation is not solely the physical separation from the organisation, which is a factual result of shifting to the virtual work environment, but isolation is also ‘the feeling and thoughts’ of being isolated (Diekema, 1992). Similarly, Vegan & Brennan (2002) argue that there is a difference between the objective state of isolation and the subjective state of isolation. Whereas objective isolation is the straight ‘facts’ of isolation, such as the physical separation of an individual from others, subjective isolation is about the feelings and thoughts of being isolated (Vegan & Brennan (2002). Beauregard et al, (2019) describe this subjective form of isolation in the workplace as the: *individual’s feelings of lack of inclusion or connectedness within their work environment* (p. 14).

It is of importance to point out the difference between the objective and the subjective state of isolation because “*some individuals can feel isolated despite working side by side with coworkers... others are able to sustain feelings of connectedness even though they are*

² having barely any or none social interactions is likely to result in schizophrenia (Faris & Dunham, 1939).

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regularly absent from the workplace" (Golden et al., 2008, p.1413). Metaphorically speaking, not everyone is Daniel Defoe's (1872) Robin Crusoe (and even he eventually suffered from schizophrenia). Whether individuals feel isolated namely depends on how they cope with isolation (Feldman & Gainey, 1997). Previous studies showed for example that some personal characteristics are of importance. According to the theoretical idea of the person-environment fit, it is believed that extravert individuals do not fit within an isolated work environment and therefore feel generally more isolated than introvert individuals.

Objective isolation does thus not necessarily lead to feelings and thought of isolation (Golden et al., (2008), although it may have an impact. Diekema (1992) argues: "*physical separation is an unnecessary dimension of isolation, although it may be present. The necessary components of isolation are a recognition by the individual of a lack of extended intimate social relations or mutually responsive interaction*" (Diekema, 1992, p. 484). This is similar to Putnam's theory, arguing that it is not the diminishing of social interactions that matter, but the accompanying 'norms of trust and reciprocity' that arise from social networks: the social capital. Hence, social isolation can be best seen as the perspective of individuals on the sufficiency of their social connectedness to organisational and social networks, instead of the extent of communication with colleagues (Golden et al., 2008). Hence, following Golden et al. (2008), social isolation is conceptualised as: "*a state of mind, or belief, that one is out of touch with others in the workplace*" (p. 1412).

2.2. WORKERS IN ISOLATION

Telecommuting is often believed to have positive effects on the wellbeing of individuals, as it may increase job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee engagement, and lower stress, burn-out and turnover intentions (Feldman & Gainey, 1997, Allen et al., 2015; Beauregard et al., 2019). The main threat for the wellbeing benefits of telecommuting is social isolation³ (Golden et al., 2008). This may harm positive telecommuting outcomes, because individuals biologically and psychologically depend on social interactions (Putnam, 2000). Telecommuters start missing these interactions, feel isolated, and then the wellbeing of public servants decreases (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). The mechanisms whereby social isolation leads to a decrease in wellbeing can be explained in more detail by the social isolation theory.

³ Other forms of isolation are often believed to have different impacts on telecommuting outcomes. Most well-known is professional isolation, that is often linked to performance aspects (Allen et al., 2015; Beauregard et al., 2019), such as decreased career opportunities and lack of personal development (Cooper & Kurland, 2002)

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According to the social isolation theory, by interacting with others, individuals create a social self, which is a piece of someone's personality that connects the individual to the broader society (Thoits, 1983). The social self guides the desired behaviour of individuals by providing a social position: a role in society. This is similar to Stryker's and Burkes (2020) identity theory who see the self as a collection of social identities, that are the self-defined positions in society. Those social identities are created by social interactions and is a shared identity held by a group of individuals (e.g., within an organisation, sports team, or religion). The previously mentioned Putnam's theory (1995;2000) is essentially the macro theory of the social identity theory, where the collective social identities held within society can be seen as Putnam's social capital, and the 'norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness' that arises from social networks, are the 'guidance' in the social isolation and social identity theory. In contrast with Putnam's theory (1995:2000), the social identity theory and social isolation theory also argue that social identities (social capital) provide a sense of belonging – often referred to as 'meaning' (Thoits, 1983; Strykers & Burkes, 2020). Thoits (1983) summarises: having a role in society provides "*purpose, meaning, direction, and guidance to one's life*" (p.175).

Social identities are not only created but also maintained by social interactions. The more interactions, the more likely it is that an individual maintains his or her social identities, and that the individual keeps the guidance and feeling of belonging the social identities provide (Thoits, 1983). As described in the previous section, telecommuters may miss out on the formal and informal interactions within the organisational network (Cooper & Kurland, 2002), and moreover, the interactions within the physical environment are substituted by less 'bonding' interactions in the virtual environment (Vega & Brennan, 2002). After a period of time, telecommuters may become convinced that they lost the social identity of the organisation. This underlies social isolation: "*a state of mind, or belief, that one is out of touch with others in the workplace*" (Golden et al., 2008, p. 1412). Without the perception of possessing the social identity of the organisation, the isolated telecommuter misses out on the behavioural guidance and the feeling of belonging the social identity provides. Losing the guidance may lead to disorganised behaviour (Thoits, 1983). Socially isolated telecommuters may act contrary to the norms, values, and desires of the organisation. This may for example affect performance (Thoits, 1983). Losing the sense of belonging may affect wellbeing aspects, such as stress and depression (Thoits, 1983, Vega & Brennan, 2002). This brings us to the wellbeing aspects central to this study.

2.2.1. Wellbeing

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Wellbeing is a multi-faceted construct that makes defining wellbeing challenging. (Dodge, Daly, Huyton & Sanders, 2012). There are however all kinds of measurable factors of different dimensions of wellbeing. Broadly, wellbeing can be divided in psychological wellbeing: “*subjective experience and functioning*”, and physical well-being that includes “*bodily health and functioning*” (Grant, Christianson & Price, 2007, p. 53). Most often in leadership studies psychological wellbeing is used, which can be seen as a combination of ‘feeling’ and ‘thinking’ (Inceoglu, Thomas, Chu, Plans & Gerbasi, 2018). Among psychological wellbeing a further divide can be made between positive and negative forms of wellbeing (Dodge et al., 2012). Because social isolation, and leadership behaviours, may have different impacts on different wellbeing factors, one positive and one negative form of psychological wellbeing are used, namely: work engagement and burnout.

Deliberately is chosen for work engagement as it is one of the most prominent wellbeing dimensions studied in telecommuting research (de Vries et al., 2019). Work engagement can be defined as “*a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption*” (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006, p. 702). Vigour includes feeling energetic, powerful, and bold (‘mental resilience’). Dedication is the eagerness to work on the job and “*experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration*” (Schaufeli et al., 2006, p.702). Lastly, absorption is “*characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly, and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work*” (Schaufeli et al., 2006, p. 702).

Previous studies often showed that telecommuting increases the work engagement (Allen et al., 2015; Beauregard et al., 2019). By providing employees with a choice to work from an alternative location, they feel supported (e.g., in balancing between work and life) and trusted. Because the employer fulfils the wishes of the employee, in return the employee becomes more engaged. This premise is however unlikely to hold-up in the context of telecommuting during the COVID-19 pandemic, as telecommuting is often forced by the employer. Moreover, social isolation is believed to negatively impact employee engagement, and as argued before, the levels of isolation in this unique telecommuting context are likely to be higher than in any previous telecommuting occasion. Being aware of the current telecommuting context, the social isolation theory is most likely to prevail.

One of the few studies that included social isolation in the analysis, showed that the higher the levels of social isolation, the lower the levels of work engagement (Arora, 2012). She argued that the relatively high levels of social isolation of telecommuters were likely to be the result of decreased bonding interactions between leaders and colleagues.

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By thwarting the social need of humans for social relationships, social isolation works demoralizing (Arora, 2012; Beauregard et al., 2019). This is in line with the “identity accumulation hypotheses” of the social isolation theory, which says that: the more identities possessed by an actor, the less psychological distress he or she should exhibit (Thoits, 1983). Following the social isolation theory, could be expected that if telecommuters perceive that they lose the social identity of the organisation decreased feeling of belonging and guidance to behaviour will follow. Thereby social isolation affects the engagement of telecommuters, manifesting itself in decreasing levels of vigour, dedication, and absorption. Hence, the following hypotheses is posed:

H1: Social isolation is negatively related to work engagement.

According to Schaufeli et al. (2006) burnout is the antipode of work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2006), and the agony of stress (Maslach & Leiter, 2006). In contrast to public servants who are engaged, those who experience burnout are feeling detached from their job. Burnout is thereby characterized by *exhaustion* and *cynicism*, which are the opposites of vigour and dedication (Schaufeli et al., 2006), and by *inefficacy* (Maslach & Leiter, 2006). Exhaustion refers to the *feelings of being overextended and depleted of one's emotional and physical resources* (Maslach & Leiter, 2006, p. 38). Cynicism is “*a negative, callous, or excessively detached response to various job aspects*” (Maslach & Leiter, 2006, p. 38). And inefficacy are the *feelings of incompetence and a lack of achievement and productivity in work* (Maslach & Leiter, 2006, p. 38). Thereupon, burnout could be defined as a negative, disempowering work-related state of mind that is characterised by, exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy. In the quantitative phase of the study solely the dimension cynicism is used, whereas in the qualitative phase some attention is also given to the dimension's exhaustion and inefficacy.

Previous studies into the wellbeing of telecommuters demonstrated that the higher levels of telecommuting are, the lower are the levels of burnout (Allen et al., 2015; Beauregard et al., 2019). The most prominent explanation is that ‘the job’ is less demanding. Telecommuters are for example less disturbed by colleagues or exposed to office politics (Fonnor & Rollof, 2010). Nonetheless, similarly, to work engagement, the bulk of studies into this topic did not take social isolation into consideration. Following the “identity accumulation hypotheses”, social isolation is likely to increase levels of burnout (Thoits, 1983), especially if public servants are not provided with the choice whether to work from home (Beauregard et al., 2019). Some studies in the physical work environment describe a positive relation between social isolation and burnout. Stephenson & Bauer (2010) for example, studied school principals and found that workplace isolation was positively related to burnout. Following the social isolation

theory, could be expected that social isolation positively relates to burnout, because social isolation invokes negative feelings and thoughts of detachment, exhaustion, and cynicism. Hence, the following hypotheses is posed:

H2: social isolation is positively related to burnout.

2.3. LEADERSHIP TYPES

As mentioned in the introduction, leadership behaviours have the potential to mitigate issues with social isolation and wellbeing that may have arose from the full-time homeworking situation public servants find themselves in as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic (Golden, Veiga & Dino, 2008; Cheng, Bartram, Karimi & Leggat, 2016; de Vries et al., 2019). Instead of the current focus on leadership behaviours, the first leadership theories focussed on personality traits of leaders, because theorist, and society in general, assumed that leaders had exceptional qualities that distinct them from followers (Brown, 2003). Individuals where either born to be a leader or a follower (Hackman & Johnson, 2013). When this assumption was contested in the 1940's, the attention gradually shifted towards the behaviour of leaders. Theorist aimed to reveal the behaviour of individuals who fulfilled a role as leaders of groups of individuals, often of or within an organisation (Bass, 2009). Since then, leadership generally was conceptualised as the behaviours of individuals in leadership position that influence the behaviour of followers and the processes within organizations (Gasper, 1992). With the focus on leadership behaviours, Fleishman & Harris discovered that leadership has two main aspects: *consideration* of followers needs and wishes and *initiating structure* by appointing roles and defining in tasks of followers (in Brown, 2003). This was the start of a long-lasting dichotomy between relation-oriented leadership (consideration) and task-oriented leadership (initiating structure)^{4,5}, which are the two types of leadership that may influence social

⁴ Both two mentioned leadership styles are (re)active forms of leadership, Relation-oriented leaders invoke proactive behaviour of followers (e.g., dealing with problems themselves) whereas task-oriented leaders invoke reactive behaviour of followers (e.g., executing predefined tasks). An opposing style is laissez-faire leadership, which is when leaders evade decision-making (Brown, 2003). This inactive leadership style is beyond the scope of this study.

⁵ Some theorists used other concepts to divide between these two types of leadership, such as transactional leadership and transformational leadership, managers behaviour and leader behaviour, or autocrat and bureaucrat leaders (Brown, 2003). Those concepts are however highly similar to relation-oriented and task-oriented leadership, which are the terms often used for leadership behaviours on the organisational ('small-group') level (Bass, 2009).

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and wellbeing (Golden, Veiga & Dino, 2008; Cheng, Bartram, Karimi & Leggat, 2016; de Vries et al., 2019), and are thus central to this study.

The core idea behind relation-oriented leadership is to run organisations democratically. Decisions within the organisations are made collaboratively by employees, and the authority over particular decisions (often with smaller impact) should be delegated towards the employees (Brown, 2003). The relation-oriented leader therefore invites public servants to participate in the decision-making process, put trust in the public servants and encourages them to make decisions themselves. Relation-oriented leaders are ‘role-models’, and a source of motivation and inspiration (e.g., by sharing a vision). They rely heavily on communication to create and maintain relationships with and between followers (Bass, 2009). Gibson, Blackwell, Dominicis & Demerath (2002) summarize: with relation-oriented behaviours the leader “*engages in two-way or multiway communications. The behaviours include listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviour*” (p. 82).

TABLE 1: Typology of Leadership Types

	Relational-orientated leadership	Task-orientated leadership
<i>Core idea</i>	Democratic	Authoritarian
<i>Focus</i>	Human relations	Goals and tasks
<i>Core activity</i>	Motivating and inspiring	Rationalising and controlling
<i>Seeking</i>	Opportunities	Stability
<i>Leveraging</i>	People	System and structures
<i>Steering mechanism</i>	Praise, trust, and encouragement	Rules
<i>Decision-making</i>	Stimulating employee participation	Denying employee involvement
<i>Assessment of work</i>	Rewarding of achievements	Punishment for disobedience
<i>Challenge</i>	Change	Complexity

Note. based on Gibson et al. (2002), Brown (2003) and Bass (2009)

In this manner, public servants become a source for creative and innovative ideas that organisations may adopt to improve organisational processes, products, and services. Eventually, organisational results should be achieved by the people, who may be rewarded for outstanding performances.

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The core idea behind task-oriented leadership is to run organisations autocratically. Authoritarianism, most well-known as a form of governing, centralises power within the organisation (to the ‘top) and denies employee involvement in decision-making (Bass, 2009). Just like autocratic regimes, in autocratic organisations public servants should obey to the rules, and task-oriented leaders seek for stability by maintaining the status quo. They are the ones within the organisations to spell out the duties and tasks and rationalize and control those. Thereby these kinds of leaders aim for maximum efficiency and reliability of work (Yukl, 2012). Eventually, organisational results are achieved by the system and structures, and the public servants who do not function as required are punished for their disobedience (Brown, 2003). Gibson et al., (2002) summarize: with task-oriented behaviour the leader “*engages in spelling out duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. These behaviours including telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who is to do it*” (p. 81). In table 1 a typology is made, combining ideas of leadership scholars to clarify the divide between relational-orientated and task-orientated leadership.

Roughly ten year ago Yukl (2012) noted that since the focus of leadership studies on the behaviours of leaders an immense number of studies were conducted, by which a variety of behaviour taxonomies came to existence – just as the one above. This resulted in a lack of consistency in used leadership behaviours (e.g., planning), behaviour categories (e.g., task-oriented leadership), levels (e.g., managerial), and terms, between studies. Yukl (2012) managed to integrate various taxonomies of the last decades into one comprehensive and measurable hierarchical taxonomy of leadership. Besides relation-oriented and task-oriented leadership Yukl (2012) stated that there are two other broad meta-categories: change-oriented and external leadership. The change-oriented leadership behaviours involve encouraging and facilitating change, whereas external leadership behaviours are concerned with influencing ‘outsiders’ (e.g., networking) (Yukl, 2012). Albeit that those leadership behaviours may be crucial for the performance of transforming organisations, as is the case with the immediate shift of (public) organisations to a virtual work environment, there seem no theoretical grounds to argue that those leadership directly influence social isolation, and via that the wellbeing of public servants – although (other) indirect relationships are most likely present. What is of particular interest for this study is which core leadership behaviours Yukl (2012) linked to the relation-oriented and task-oriented leadership (see Table 2).

TABLE 2: Core Leadership Behaviours

Behaviour	Definition
Relation-oriented	
<i>Supporting</i>	“...show positive regard, build cooperative relationships, and help people cope with stressful situations.” (p.71)
<i>Developing</i>	“...increase the skills and confidence of work-unit members and to facilitate their career advancement.” (p.71)
<i>Recognising</i>	“...praise and other forms of recognition to show appreciation to others for effective performance, significant achievements, and important contributions to the team or organization.” (p.71/72)
<i>Empowering</i>	“...empower subordinates by giving them more autonomy and influence over decisions about the work.” (p.72)
Task-oriented	
<i>Clarifying</i>	spelling out roles, duties, and tasks, and spreading the objectives of the organisation
<i>Planning</i>	“...making decisions about objectives and priorities, organizing work, assigning responsibilities, scheduling activities, and allocating resources among different activities.” (p. 70)
<i>Monitoring</i>	“...assess whether people are carrying out their assigned tasks, the work is progressing as planned, and tasks are being performed adequately.” (p.70)
<i>Problem Solving</i>	“...deal with disruptions of normal operations and member behavior that is illegal, destructive, or unsafe.” (p.70)

Note. retrieved from Yukl (2012)

2.4. LEADERSHIP POTENTIAL

All forms of leadership are acted out through communications (Hackman & Johnson, 2013). From a communication perspective leadership can be seen as: “*human (symbolic) communication that modifies the attitudes and behaviours of others in order to meet shared group goals and needs*” (Hackman & Johnson, 2013, p. 33). In the past, behaviours were often studied in the physical work environment. Communication however works differently in the virtual environment, and due to the extensive use of telecommuting during COVID-

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19 the reliance on online communication further intensified. In the physical work environment, the relationship between the leader and the employee is close, while the relationship in the virtual environment between the leader and the employee is distant (Madlock, 2012). Moreover, within the virtual environment the power of nonverbal communication becomes less, such that leaders may experience difficulties in communicating their messages (Dahlstrom, 2013, Van Wart et al., 2019). Managers who do not adjust their behaviours to the virtual environment are unlikely to reap the rewards of the leadership potential (Beauregard et al., 2019).

The lack of close relationships and face-to-face contact influences the used leadership behaviours and the effectiveness of those. In previous leadership studies in the physical environment relation-oriented behaviours were often most present, and perceived as most effective (Madlock, 2012). Some scholars are however convinced that relation-oriented behaviours are more difficult to communicate in the virtual environment than task-oriented leadership behaviours (Jaussi & Dionne, 2003; Dahlstrom, 2013). The reason for this is that relation-oriented behaviours are in essence a more informal way of communicating, in extremis ‘standing on furniture’, whereas task-oriented behaviours rely on formal communication. Others argue that when there is a lack of physical cues, as is the case in the virtual environment, relation-oriented behaviours are adjusted to the available technology (Walther, 2008). Madlock (2012) tested these theoretical assumptions and found that virtual leaders put “*a greater emphasis on task-oriented leadership in the virtual workplace compared to traditional work settings*” (p. 16), and additionally found that both leadership behaviours are less effective in the virtual work environment than they are in the physical work environment (Madlock, 2012).

Albeit that leadership behaviours in the virtual work environment are probably less effective than in the physical work environment, leadership behaviours can make a difference for the wellbeing of individuals (Dahlstrom, 2013). The direct relation between relation-oriented leadership and wellbeing aspects is often explained by the social exchange theory (SET). The general idea is that the behaviour of individuals is guided by recurring interactions between them (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Those recurring interactions create relationships between individuals of giving and taking ‘things’. Particularly for the leader-follower relation is referred to as the Leader-member exchange (LMX). The leader offers something (e.g., support), and receives something (e.g., engagement). High quality relationships between the leader and follower invoke more positive employee attitudes than lower quality relationships because it has higher levels of material and non-material exchange (Golden & Veiga, 2008). Often is believed that relation-orientated leaders can create and maintain high quality relationships with

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followers, because they offer more, such as support, emphasis, and consideration. In contrast, pure task-orientated leaders “*provide followers only with what they need to perform, and followers behave only as required and do only their prescribed job*” (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 230). Task-orientated leaders therefore have generally lower quality relationships with their followers (De Vries, 2013). Following the SET theory can be expected that the direct effect of the two leadership behaviours on wellbeing is the strongest for relation-orientated leadership.

Leadership behaviours can also make a difference for telecommuters who feel isolated, and thereby indirectly influencing the wellbeing of public servants (Golden et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2016; de Vries et al., 2019). The mechanism whereby this is done can again be explained by the social isolation theory. Previously was described that telecommuters may lose their social identities from the organisation due to the relatively low amount of quality interactions telecommuters have in comparison to ‘regular’ workers in the physical environment. Telecommuters may not identify themselves with the social group, which in this case is the organisation, thus feel socially isolated, and forego on the guidance and sense of belonging the social identity provides (Vega, Brennan, 2002). In similar fashion, due to the diminishing of quality interactions after the shift to the virtual environment, public servants may gradually lose the social identity of the organisation.

Compensating for the lack of ‘face-to-face’ interactions is the main communication challenge leaders in the virtual environment should overcome (Beauregard et al., 2019). Leaders are namely the responsible individuals in conveying the organisations ‘message’ (Bass, 2009), and thus responsible for the maintenance of a shared identity. As within the virtual environment a lack of support from co-workers is often present, the challenge of maintaining the social identity becomes even greater (De Vries et al., 2019). Nonetheless, as all leadership is acted out through communications, leaders have the potential to keep the interactions going within the virtual environment, or even increase the interactions, such that public servants maintain the social identity of the organisation, and thus do not feel socially isolated. Simply put, leaders can maintain the connectedness of telecommuters (Illozor et al., 2001; Timmerman & Scott, 2006; Dahlstrom, 2013). The indirect effect of relation-oriented leadership and task-oriented leadership on wellbeing of telecommuters through social isolation is thus essentially the same. This leads to the following hypotheses:

H3: Relation-oriented leadership has a positive effect on engagement, partially mediated by social isolation

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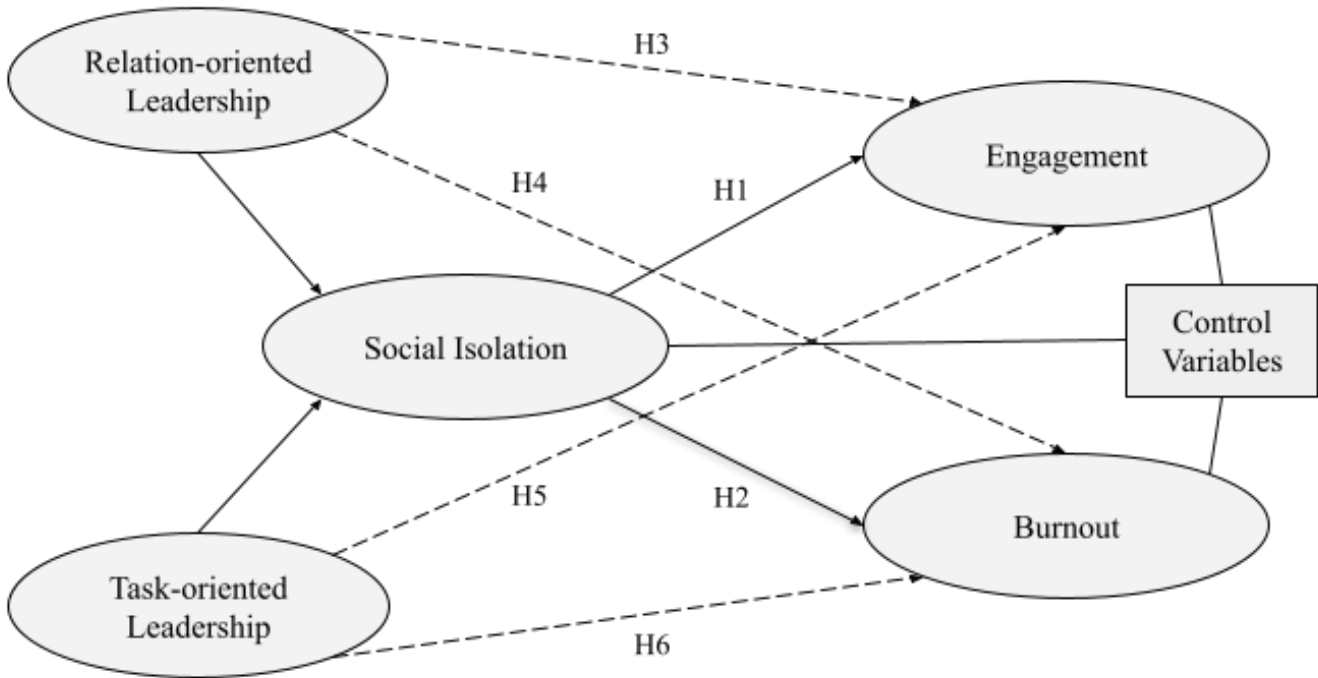
H4: Relation-oriented leadership has a negative effect on burnout, partially mediated by social isolation

H5: Task-oriented leadership has a positive effect on engagement, partially mediated by social isolation

H6: Task-oriented leadership has a negative effect on burnout, partially mediated by social isolation.

It is likely, however, that there are different mechanisms underlying the effect of relation-oriented leadership and task-oriented leadership on social isolation, as the way in which those leadership behaviours contribute to the maintenance of social identities may differ. Mann et al., (2000) suggested “that managers reduce social isolation among teleworkers by scheduling regular staff meetings, providing intranet systems with which teleworkers and office-based staff can communicate with one another, releasing information bulletins to keep all employees informed of work-related news, and organising social events at which teleworkers and office-based staff can interact” (in Beauregard, 2019, p.25). This indicates that on the one hand leaders can apply task-oriented leadership to keep telecommuters aware of what is going on in the organization, and what is expected from them as organisational members, and in this manner reduce the possibility that telecommuters lose the social identity of the organisation. Unsurprisingly then, to reduce social isolation among public servants, some scholars emphasise the importance of information-sharing behaviours of leaders

FIGURE 1: Conceptual model



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over other key task-oriented behaviours, such as monitoring and controlling, (Illozor et al., 2001; Wu, Ma, Xiong, Xu & Li, 2020).

On the other hand, the leader can take a more supportive stance, by providing means for communication or organise social events, which are behaviours linked to relation-oriented leadership. In this manner relation-oriented leaders invite telecommuters to actively engage themselves in the maintenance of the organisation's social identity. Moreover, relation-oriented leaders motivate and inspire (e.g., by sharing a vision), and praise and encourage telecommuters (Beauregard et al., 2019). Larsson et al., (2007) showed for example that what they call image-oriented influence: leaders acting as a "role model", has a positive influence on the identification of public servants with the organisation. In such ways, relation-oriented behaviours potentially reduce social isolation. Nonetheless, these mechanisms underlying the relation between leadership behaviours and social isolation are barely studied, such that a more detailed explanation should be provided in the qualitative phase of this study.

3. Methodology

The methodology is divided in (3.1) the design, (3.2) philosophical approach, (3.3) quantitative phase, (3.4) qualitative phase, (3.5) quality criteria, and (3.6) ethical considerations.

3.1. DESIGN

To answer the research question mixed methods was used; a research design that involves both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell & Poth, 2016). Because both quantitative data collection and qualitative data collection have their own biases, results may be misinterpreted. The strengths of the quantitative method can however compensate for the weaknesses of the qualitative method, and vice versa (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Thus, by using both ‘numbers and words’ researchers can be more certain that their interpretations are valid and reliable (Johnsen, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007).

According to Johnsen et al. (2007) the power from mixed methods does not solely stem from the combination of methods, but also from the integration of methodologies. Theories can be verified, and in-depth understanding of cases can be gained. This can be done by applying a mixed-method sequential explanatory design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Hence, in the first phase, hypotheses were tested using quantitative data, which led to questions for clarification, mainly on why certain relations were (non)significant. In the second phase, qualitative data was used to answer these questions. Finally, the quantitative and qualitative results were integrated in the discussion and conclusion.

The above-mentioned advantages of a sequential explanatory mixed method design reveal why this design was used for answering the research question. Namely, the research question firstly asked for the verification of existing theories on the relation between leadership behaviours, social isolation, and employee wellbeing. This verification was of importance as most of the used theories were build on studies in the physical work environment, especially regarding the leadership behaviours. Moreover, theories on social isolation were build ‘outside’ organisational management studies, mostly within the fields of sociology and psychology, and ‘outside’ public organisations. Within organisational managements studies, less extensive and obtrusive telecommuting arrangements were studied in the past. Hence, theories should have been tested in the unique context of telecommuting during Covid-19. Secondly, to inform leadership and social isolation theories, it was essential to gain understanding why leadership theories hold or not hold in the unique context of telecommuting during the Covid-19 crisis – and not only ‘if’.

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Particularly little was known about the mechanisms underlying the relation between traditional leadership behaviours and social isolation. Simply put, the research question could not have been satisfactorily answered by using quantitative or qualitative methods alone.

3.2. PHYLOSOPHICAL APPROACH

According to Greene (2007) mixed methods studies are also: *“about multiple ways of seeing and hearing, multiple ways of making sense of the social world, and multiple standpoints on what is important and to be valued and cherished”* (p.20). Mixed methods are thus a way of thinking; a worldview (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). A mixed method design is often believed to entail a pragmatic approach to inquiry– doing ‘what works’ (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010). The primary focus of the pragmatist is to solve the research problem while not bothering particularly much about how this is done (positivistic), the individual perspectives of participants (constructivist), or the empowering of minority groups (transformative). Moreover, the pragmatist aims to provide valuable knowledge for the ‘real-world’, and not perse to confirm theories (positivistic), to generate theories (constructivist), or change the world (transformative).

In practice, pragmatism may not completely be a distinct worldview, because multiple approaches were used throughout the inquiry – ‘whatever works whenever’. Specifically, for this explanatory sequential design, in the first (quantitative) phase was relied on post-positivistic assumptions by applying deductive reasoning, testing multiple hypotheses, assuming research unbiasedness, and using a formal writing style (Creswell & Poth, 2016). In the second qualitative stage was relied on constructivist assumptions applying for example: abductive reasoning, displaying different perspectives (multiple worldviews), revealing the biases of the researcher, and using a more informal writing style. When bridging the two phases in the end of the quantitative phase, and in writing the discussion and conclusion, a dialectic perspective was applied. That is a reflexive account on the worldviews used throughout the study and the consequences for the research findings; a so-called dialogue between the two worldviews (Greene, 2007; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). In sum, in this study was shifted from a post-positivistic approach to a constructivist design throughout the process, and a dialectic perspective in between and after the two phases.

3.3. QUANTITATIVE PHASE

In the first quantitative phase of the research secondary data was used from the organisation Y and organisation Z. In March 2021 this data was collected by researchers from the Erasmus University under the research project: ‘working from home during COVID-19’. The dataset included numerous topics related to telecommuting, and among others on leadership, social isolation, and wellbeing. A subset was made consisting of indicators of relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours, social isolation, and two indicators for employee wellbeing, namely: employee engagement and burnout. Additionally, ten control variables were added: communication intensity with colleagues, telecommuting frequency, level of autonomy, work pressure, workplace satisfaction, level of education, age, gender, and organisation.

3.3.1. Sample

In this study 1873 participants (n=889 for organisation Y, n= 984 for organisation Z) were included, of which 1638 remained after omitting observations with missing data⁶. The sample was overall representative considering the population of organisation Y and organisation Z. Regarding organisation Y the sample consisted of 39.8 percent woman participants (37.1 percent in population), 59.9 percent male participants (62.9 percent in population). 51.3 percent of them was older than 55 years (44.4 percent in population), and 48.6 percent was younger than 55 years (55.6 percent in population). Regarding organisation Z the sample consisted of 34.1 percent woman participants (32.6 percent in population), 64.8 percent male participants (67.4 percent in population)⁷. Minor differences were present due a potential small sampling error.

3.3.2. Operationalisation

As can be seen in Figure 2, within the model there were three exogenous variables. Those exogenous variables consisted of two types of leadership behaviours of which relation-oriented was measured by two subtypes, namely: servant leadership and compassion of leaders. The main reason for this is that the dataset did not consist of a relation-oriented leadership measurement but did consist of leadership behaviours that fit under the umbrella of relation-oriented leadership. The choice to measure relation-oriented leadership by measuring two sub-types is justified, as Yukl (2012), but also Bass (2009) and Brown (2013), noted that in the past leadership scholars often came up with new meta-categories that after closer examination were not completely distinct leadership categories. In this case, the indicators of servant leadership and compassion are identical, or almost

⁶ Based on the power analysis was decided to combine organisation Y’s and organisation Z’s data.

⁷ Other comparable information on population characteristics were not made available by the organisations.

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identical, to some of Yukl's (2012) core relation-oriented behaviours, and the indicators used to measure these.

Relations-oriented leadership was previously defined as leaders who “*engages in two-way or multiway communications. The behaviours include listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviour*” (Gibson et al., 2020, p. 82). Servant leadership lacks a proper definition and is often simply seen as behaviours that serve others (van Dierendonck, 2011). These kinds of behaviours involve mainly empowering and developing subordinates. This is identical to two of Yukl's (2012) four core relation-oriented leadership behaviours, namely also empowering and developing. Servant leadership is measured with 5 indicators on a 5-point Likert scale ($\alpha=.91$). Those indicators were retrieved from van Dierendonck & Nuijten (2011) leadership survey. The researchers posed: “my immediate supervisor...”⁸:

1. “encourages me to use my talents.
2. helps me to further develop myself.
3. gives me the space to take decisions that simplify the job.
4. enables me to solve problems myself instead of just telling me what to do.
5. offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.” (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011, p. 256)

Compassion is generally seen as ‘an openness to the suffering of others with a commitment to relieve it’ (Dalai Lama, 1995, in Gilbert, 2005). Compassion of leaders is highly similar to Yukl's (2012) supporting behaviour of relation-oriented leadership. Both constructs entail caring about others, showing empathy, and helping them with problems. Compassion of leaders is measured with 4 indicators on a 7-point scale, going from never to always ($\alpha=.91$). The indicators were retrieved from Gilbert (2017) compassion measurement. Participants were confronted with statements about what the supervisor did when they had worries or ran into something.

1. “...thought about and came up with helpful ways for employees to cope with distress
2. ...directed attention to what was helpful to employees
3. ...took action and did the right things that are helpful to employees
4. ...expressed feelings of support, helpfulness, and encouragement to employees.” (Gilbert 2017)

⁸ The original survey is in Dutch, and thus the indicators are translated from English. The description of the Dutch indicators was added as an appendix.

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Task-oriented leadership was previously described as a leader “*engages in spelling out duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. These behaviours including telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who is to do it*” (p. 81). Task-oriented leadership was measured with 5 indicators on a 5-point Likert scale ($\alpha=.82$) inspired by Hartog, Muijnen & Koopman (1996) transactional leadership measure, that in turn was based on Avolio & Bass (1999) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The indicators fit under planning and monitoring behaviours, that as previously noted fit within Yukl (2012) hierarchical taxonomy of leadership. Nevertheless, because of the Dutch translation of indicator 3 (“erkent mijn prestaties”) it could also fit under relation-oriented leadership as recognising behaviour, a potential issue that will be dealt with in the quantitative analysis. The researchers posed: “my immediate supervisor...”:

1. “tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts.
2. monitors performance for errors needing correction.
3. talks about special rewards for good work.
4. works out agreements with me on what I will receive if I do what needs to be done.
5. focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from what is expected of me.”

(Den Hartog, Van Muijnen & Koopman, 1996, p. 30)

Endogenous variables

Then, there were three endogenous variables in the model: social isolation, work engagement and burnout. Social isolation, the hypothesised mediating variable, was conceptualised as “*a state of mind, or belief, that one is out of touch with others in the workplace*” (Golden et al., 2008, p. 1412). Social isolation was measured by the 4 social isolation indicators of the Golden et al. (2008) 8-item professional isolation measure ($\alpha=.89$). The five indicators were measured on a 5-point scale, going from ‘almost never’ (1) to ‘very often’ (5) ($\alpha=.83$).

1. “I miss the informal interaction with others.
2. I miss the emotional support of co-workers.
3. I feel isolated.
4. I feel out of the loop.” (Golden et al., 2008, p. 1415)

Employee engagement was previously conceptualised as “*a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption*” (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006, p. 702). Nine engagement indicators were retrieved from Schaufeli, Salanova, Gozalez-roma & Bakker’s (2002) Utrecht Work Engagement Scale,

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measured on a 7-point scale (1=never to 7=always). The engagement measure consisted of three indicators for the vigour dimension, three indicators for the dedication dimension, and two indicators for the absorption dimension ($\alpha=.93$). The researched posed the following statements:

1. “at my work, I feel bursting with energy.
2. at my job I feel strong and vigorous.
3. I am enthusiastic about my job.
4. my job inspires me.
5. when I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
6. when I am working, I forget everything else around me.
7. I am proud on the work that I do.
8. I get carried away when I am working.
9. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.” (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 89)

Burnout was previously defined as a negative, disempowering work-related state of mind that is characterised by, exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy. (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006; Maslach & Leiter, 2006). A total of five indicators were measured ($\alpha=.84$) that were retrieved from Maslach, Leiter & Schaufel’s (2008) Maslach Burnout Inventory. All indicators represented the dimension cynicism; the only dimension of burnout present in the dataset, The indicators were measured on a 7-point scale (1=never to 7=always). The researchers posed the following statements:

1. “I am having doubts about the usefulness of my job.
2. I acknowledge that I distant myself from my job.
3. I am not as enthusiastic about my job as I was before.
4. I just want to do by job and not be bothered by others.
5. I have become cynical about the effects of my work.” (Maslach, Leiter & Schaufel, 2008).

Control variables

In the telecommuting literature numerous variables were believed to have an influence on one or all three endogenous: engagement, burnout, and social isolation. of which nine most prominently: communication intensity with colleagues, telecommuting frequency, task dependency, level of autonomy, work pressure, workplace satisfaction, level of

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education, age, and gender⁹. Following up, is described briefly why those are added as control variables.

Firstly, not only leaders communicate with public servants but also colleagues and thereby potentially contribute to the maintenance of telecommuters' social identity of the organisation, such that they feel less isolated (Beauregard et al., 2015). Secondly, and as mentioned previously, telecommuting frequency is related to social isolation (Cooper & Kurland, 2002), and thereby most likely also to wellbeing aspects (Arora, 2012). Thirdly, there are numerous studies showing the importance of telecommuter's autonomy on wellbeing aspects (e.g., Boell, Cecez-Kecmanovic & Campbell, 2016), and fourthly most prominently because autonomy determines whether telecommuter rely on others to conduct their tasks which is more straining in the virtual work environment (Allen et al., 2015). Fifthly, it is well-known that perceived high job demands may lead to stress, affecting work engagement and burnout (see e.g., Van Steenbergen, van der Ven, Peeters & Taris, 2018). Sixthly, previous studies indicate the importance of a proper workplace, where telecommuters having an office at home feel generally more well than those who work for example in the living room (Beauregard et al., 2019). Seventhly, age matters for telecommuters as is often believed that older people experience are on average less acquainted with ICT, and elder individuals are generally more used to traditional office work (Allen et al., 2015). Eighthly, educational level, similarly to age, may partly determine someone's capacity to work in the virtual work environment. Lastly, previous studies noted that female participants may be more engaged when telecommuting, because this work arrangement provides them with the possibility to fulfil both work and life responsibilities (Beauregard et al., 2019).

3.3.3. Quantitative Analysis

In the quantitative phase of this research Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used. SEM is no single statistical technique, but a combination of multiple multivariate techniques into a single model, such as regression-, factor- and path-analysis (Weston &

⁹ Communication intensity is measured by three indicators on a 7-point scale, going from 'never' (having contact with colleagues) to 'multiple times a day' ($\alpha=.77$). Telecommuting frequency is measured by one indicator that could be answered with either 'yes' or 'no' (fully working from home). Task dependency is measured with one indicator on a 5-point scale. Level of autonomy is measured by three indicators on a 5-point Likert scale ($\alpha=.81$). The work pressure is measured with 5 indicators on a 7-point scale, going from 'never' to 'always' ($\alpha=.77$). Workplace satisfaction is measured with 1 indicator on a Likert-scale. Gender can be either 'woman', 'men' or 'else'. Age can be between: '15-25', '26-40', '41-55', and '55 or higher'. Educational level is measured on a 7-point scale, where 1='lower school', and 7='PhD on university'. Organisation can be either 1=organisation Y or 2=organisation Z.

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Gore, 2006). The method is suitable for complex research questions, those who consist of multiple dependent variables. In other words, it allows for modelling systems, instead of relations, which is appropriate for testing mediation. Hence, SEM was an appropriate method for this study. Besides the possibility to answer complex questions, another benefit of SEM in comparison to other methods such as linear regression, is that in SEM multiple indicators are used to represent a single construct (Uhlman, 2006). In SEM therefore variables are referred to as a latent variable: a phenomenon that cannot be observed. By making use of multiple indicators measurement errors were calculated and the validity of constructs assessed.

Within the literature there is disagreement about what a sufficient sample size is in SEM (Weston & Gore, 2006). One rule of thumb is to calculate 10 to 20 participants for each perimeter that must be estimated. In the current model (see Figure 2), this will mean that at least 1200 participants were required¹⁰. Two other rules of thumb are: ‘the more the better’, as adding participants gives a test have more statistical power, and ‘the more complex the model the more participants are needed (MacCallum, Brown, and Sugawara, 1996). Weston & Gore (2006) advice to include at least 200 participants in SEM. They argue: “*When few acceptable measures of a construct exist, when multiple measures of a construct are not at least moderately related to each other, or when reliability of measures is low, careful researchers will use larger samples*” (Weston & Gore, 2006, p.734). Additionally, the required sample size was computed by using a power analysis. For a desired statistical power level of .8 and an anticipated effect size of .125 (at $p < .05$), a minimum of 1240 participants were required. The sample size of 1638 participants was sufficient considering the ‘rules of thumb’, the quality of measurement, the complexity of the used model, and the power test.

As said, SEM consists of multiple statistical techniques. After the model was specified in the theoretical framework, was assessed whether the model was identified. In Figure 2, the relationships between latent variables can be observed: the direct, indirect, and mediated relationships. The asterisks show the 80 (137 including control variables) parameters that had to be computed. The number of known parameters was 1596, resulting in 1459 degrees of freedom¹¹. Thereby, the model was identified and thus was it

¹⁰ In the model displayed in Figure 2 there are 80 asterisks, representing the unknown parameters that must be estimated. Besides, there are at large 57 unknown parameters when adding all control variables – not visible in Figure 2 – which will make a total of 137 parameters to be estimated.

¹¹ (no. observed variables [no. observed variables + 1])/2 = (56(56+1)/2) =1596. Df=(known parameters – unknown parameters)=(1596-137)=1459

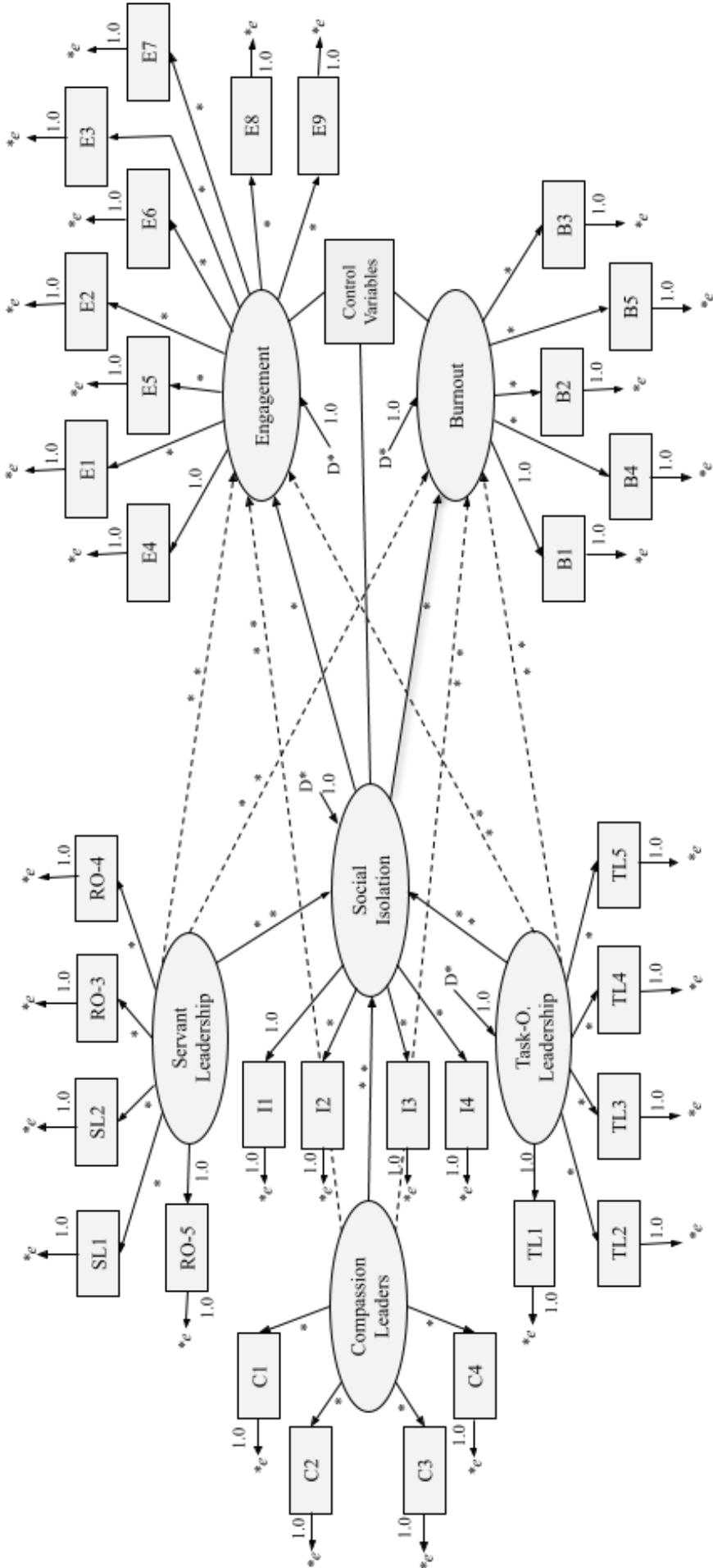


FIGURE 2: Partially Mediated Structural Model

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possible to estimate the unknown parameters. After model identification, was checked for potential normality and multicollinearity issues (see descriptive statistics).

The analysis was conducted in R version 4.0.3. First an initial measurement model was tested by making use of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). With this technique an assessment was made on the accuracy of indicators to identify the latent variable. Besides factor loadings, and goodness of fit indexes, Cronbach Alpha, as measure of internal consistency, provided additional information to determine whether indicators remained in the subsequent models. This resulted in a final measurement model, wherefore another CFA was conducted to assess the goodness of fit. In the final measurement model, the indicators that represented the latent variables more well than others – were more reliable – have gotten a higher factor loading. The indicators together formed the latent variable: the representation of the phenomenon.

In the second step of the estimation, the full structural model was tested, resulting in the parameters of relationships between latent variables. The type of estimator used was Maximum Likelihood. This estimator is robust to moderate violations of the normality assumption (Anderson & Gerbing, 1984; Weston & Gore, 2006). Again, the fit of the model was assessed. Partly, this was done by determining the significance of the estimations, and by explaining the variance in the endogenous latent variables. Additionally, the overall fit of the model was assessed using four goodness of fit indexes: Chi-square, the Comparative Fit Index (that compares the model to a null model; a model without relationships among variables), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (that corrects for model complexity), and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (indicating deviance between the model and the sample data) (Marsh, Hau & Wen, 2004). After estimation of the structural model modification may be applied, if this is theoretically acceptable, which means that the original theoretical idea will be kept intact (Uhlman, 2006). Potential modifications however lacked theoretical grounds.

3.4. QUALITATIVE PHASE

The qualitative part of this research had the function to provide clarification and to interpret the quantitative results. According to Creswell & Plano Clark (2018) in the qualitative phase should be focussed on (1) unexpected outcomes which cannot be explained with current theory, and hence demand further exploration, or (2) pay attention to explaining (non) significant results, effect sizes and outliers. Both has been done, as for example are potential determiners explored for the unexplained variance in social isolation, and as also is focussed on the explanation behind the significance and insignificance of relationships between leadership behaviours and wellbeing.

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What Creswell & Plano Clark (2018) failed to mention is that in contrast with the quantitative stage, attention should also be paid to the differences between participants and the context being of influence on the quantitative results. This is for example done by explaining that the level of social isolation is partly determined by the social need of individuals, something that was not accounted for in the quantitative phase. This constructivist approach in the qualitative phase was essential to set the dialogue between the two worldviews: positivistic and constructivist, in motion.

Data was collected by conducting 50 semi-structured interviews with public servants from organisation Y and organisation Z¹². In total nine interviews with organisation Y's respondents were carried out by the researcher writing this thesis, whereas the other 41 were carried out by two other researchers. The participants that volunteered to be interviewed were selected. Most of them participated in previous interview phases of the research project: 'working from home during COVID-19'. In total 27 interviews were analysed, of which 21 with respondents from organisation Y (16 'regular' public servants, and 5 supervisors), and of which 6 with respondents from organisation Z (4 'regular' public servants, and 2 supervisors). At this point saturation occurred by which the remaining 23 interviews were only scanned for potential striking results. The uneven distribution between the number of analysed interviews between organisation Y and organisation Z was the result of changing plans within the process. In first instance only interviews with organisation Y would have been analysed, but after combining both organisation Y and organisation Z data in the quantitative phase, some interviews with organisation Z were analysed for the purpose of comparison. The interviews were conducted via an online communication program called Cisco Webex.

3.4.1. Qualitative Analysis

The data was analysed using NVivo version 12. Boeije's (2016) thematic coding system will be used, aimed at unravelling common themes and patterns which led to a sophisticated conceptual model. This was done within a process involving in three phases of open, axial, and selective coding. In practice however, those phases were intertwined, and consisted of eight smaller coding rounds. Progress in the conceptual model was made by constant conceptual leaping: "*a consciously realized and abstract theoretical idea*" (Klag & Langley, 2013, p.150). Therefore, abductive reasoning is used, which is mainly a middle way between inductive (developing theory) and deductive (examining theory) reasoning

¹² In the interest of conciseness solely the interview guides (both public servants and supervisors) of organisation Y were added as an appendix. The interview guide of organisation Y includes more topics on leadership, and experiences with telecommuting (mainly communication), but further is the same as those from organisation Z. The interview guide of organisation Z, that is left out for conciseness, can be requested with the author of this thesis.

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(Boeije, 2016). Important to note here is that the theories described in the theoretical framework were underdeveloped, which left enough room for adductive reasoning. It was also bridging engagement and detachment of data, deliberation (using heuristics) and serendipity (levering chance), and subjectivity and embeddedness of perspectives, as Klag & Langely (2013) argue. Gradually the conceptual leaps, visible in the qualitative results section, were taking by drawing (and erasing) of conceptual models, close reading, ‘testing’ generalisability of perceptions and demonstrating exceptions, using Boeij’s systematic coding system, and by simply taking a walk in the park, to mention some moments in the process of analysis.

3.5. QUALITY CRITERIA

Quantitative research commonly uses the standards of validity and reliability to access quality, while qualitative research is commonly accessed on credibility and trustworthiness (Swartz-Shea, 2013). By testing the measurement model in SEM, the internal validity was assessed, specifically the content and construct validity. The datasets allowed for an estimation of the Cronbach’s alfa, whereby the reliability was assessed (Heale & Twycross, 2015). Although the external validity was limited due to the context dependency of leadership behaviours and telecommuting outcomes, it is likely that in comparable cases similar mechanism would be at play. The credibility of this thesis was enhanced by triangulation of theories and methods, peer debriefing, and the reflexive account within the method. The reflexive account, accompanied by thick description in the result section; that is writing vividly: describing perspectives, as well as the context of those perspectives, also enhanced the trustworthiness (Van Hulst, Ybema & Yanow, 2017). Additionally, a codebook and code tree were made during the analysis (see appendix), further enhancing the trustworthiness of this study.

As both methods are used in mixed method research, and two types of worldviews, assessing quality in mixed methods is tricky. Besides using both the above-mentioned types of criteria, Creswell, and Plano (2018) advice to describe the rationale for doing mixed methods research, and whether the methods are integrated instead of used separately. The former criterium was presented in the introduction and the description of the design, whereas the latter had become a vital part in the discussion and conclusion.

3.6. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Participants participated voluntarily to both the survey and the interviews. The survey was anonymous, and anonymity was further ensured by using pseudonymisations, both for the organisations as the respondents. The researchers also signed upon a form of confidentiality from the organisations. Sensitive files, such as the transcripts, were saved within a safe environment. Before conducting an interview, the participant has given their consent on the goals of the research, their anonymity, the handling of data, and permission was be asked to record the interview. Participants could have stopped the interview whenever they felt to.

4. Quantitative Findings

The quantitative findings section is divided in (4.1) the description of quantitative statistics, (4.2) the quantitative results, and (4.3) the partial conclusion, discussion, and qualitative questions.

4.1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

As mentioned in the method section, from the original dataset a subset was made, including all exogenous, endogenous, and control variables. In the subset 235 observations with seemingly non-random missing values were omitted. The final sample consisted of 1638 observations. In Table 3 descriptive statistics are displayed for the (latent) variables¹³, including mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, and correlations.

Normal distribution was first checked by the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality. Although results were significant, indicating non-normal distribution of variables, this is likely the result from the sensitiveness of normality for sample size (Razali & Wah, 2011). Therefore additionally, the distributions of variables were observed, and skewness and kurtosis indexes obtained (see again Table 3). The absolute values are moderate, and hence Maximum likelihood is a robust estimation method. Absolute values higher than 4.0 for skewness, and absolute values for kurtosis above 10.0 would have been severe for Maximum Likelihood estimation (Kline, 2015).

As can be seen in Table 3 potential multicollinearity bivariate correlations were checked. Nonproblematic bivariate correlations ($r > .85$) were observed (Kline, 2015). There is however a quite strong correlation between the three measured (sub)types of leadership, especially strong is the correlation between servant leadership and compassion of leaders ($\beta = .71$, $p < .01$). This is a first indicator that they may actually fit under the same leadership umbrella, namely relation-oriented leadership. On the basis of the theory also not surprising is that engagement and burnout are relatively strong related ($\beta = -.64$, $p < .01$). Burnout is however, in contrast to what Schaufeli et al. (2006) argue, not the antidote of engagement, as being the complete opposite would result in a Beta of 1, or almost 1 considering measurement errors. The correlations also indicate the potential presence of hypothesised relationships between the leadership behaviours, social isolation, and wellbeing.

¹³ Descriptive statistics of individual indicators can be found in the appendix.

TABLE 3: Means, standard deviations, kurtosis, skewness, and correlations with confidence intervals

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Servant leadership	3.60	0.86	-0.61	3.47														
2. Compassion of leaders	3.34	0.95	-0.51	3.02	.71**													
					[.69, .73]													
3. Task-oriented leadership	3.19	0.79	-0.37	3.37	.66**	.58**												
					[.63, .69]	[.55, .61]												
4. Social isolation	3.04	0.88	0.05	2.62	-.13**	-.14**	-.09**											
					[-.18, -.08]	[-.18, -.09]	[-.14, -.04]											
5. Engagement	4.75	0.88	-0.19	4.13	.35**	.30**	.26**	-.23**										
					[.31, .39]	[.25, .34]	[.21, .30]	[-.27, -.18]										
6. Burnout	2.92	1.10	0.14	2.49	-.33**	-.27**	-.24**	.32**	-.64**									
					[-.38, -.29]	[-.32, -.23]	[-.29, -.19]	[.28, .37]	[-.66, -.61]									
7. Contact intensity	5.17	1.31	-0.57	2.67	.22**	.13**	.10**	-.09**	.19**	-.22**								
					[.18, .27]	[.09, .18]	[.06, .15]	[-.13, -.04]	[.14, .24]	[-.27, -.18]								
8. Telecommuting frequency	1.14	0.35	2.09	5.38	.02	.00	.02	-.03	.07**	-.01	-.04							
					[-.03, .07]	[-.05, .05]	[-.03, .07]	[-.07, .02]	[.02, .12]	[-.06, .04]	[-.09, .01]							
9. Autonomy	3.97	0.68	-0.61	3.81	.30**	.21**	.15**	-.12**	.32**	-.26**	.14**	-.01						
					[.26, .34]	[.17, .26]	[.11, .20]	[-.17, -.08]	[.27, .36]	[-.31, -.22]	[.09, .19]	[-.06, .04]						
10. Work pressure	2.19	0.49	0.45	3.21	-.15**	-.19**	-.10**	.18**	-.02	.15**	.14**	.03	-.08**					
					[-.20, -.10]	[-.24, -.14]	[-.15, -.06]	[.13, .22]	[-.07, .02]	[.10, .19]	[.10, .19]	[-.02, .08]	[-.13, -.03]					
11. Workplace satisfaction	3.86	1.14	-0.85	2.87	.16**	.14**	.09**	-.38**	.19**	-.24**	.16**	-.09**	.21**	-.10**				
					[.11, .20]	[.09, .19]	[.04, .14]	[-.42, -.34]	[.14, .23]	[-.28, -.19]	[.11, .20]	[-.14, -.05]	[.16, .25]	[-.15, -.06]				
12. Gender	1.63	0.49	-0.50	1.38	-.02	-.00	-.01	-.09**	.04	.02	-.02	.04	.02	-.01	.04			
					[-.07, .03]	[-.05, .05]	[-.05, .04]	[-.14, -.04]	[-.01, .09]	[-.03, .07]	[-.07, .03]	[-.00, .09]	[-.03, .07]	[-.06, .04]	[-.01, .09]			
13. Age level	3.21	0.77	-0.52	2.27	-.10**	-.08**	-.06**	-.09**	.01	.03	-.14**	-.05	-.01	.04	.17**	.17**		
					[-.15, -.06]	[-.13, -.03]	[-.11, -.02]	[-.13, -.04]	[-.04, .06]	[-.01, .08]	[-.18, -.09]	[-.09, .00]	[-.06, .03]	[-.00, .09]	[.13, .22]	[.12, .22]		
14. Educational level	4.92	1.03	-0.92	2.63	.03	-.04	-.03	.09**	-.01	.03	.27**	-.09**	.11**	.14**	-.01	.03	-.25**	
					[-.02, .07]	[-.09, .01]	[-.08, .02]	[.04, .14]	[-.06, .04]	[-.02, .07]	[.22, .31]	[-.14, -.05]	[.06, .16]	[.10, .19]	[-.06, .04]	[-.02, .08]	[-.29, -.20]	
15. Organisation	1.53	0.50	-0.13	1.02	.13**	.09**	.05*	-.05*	.09**	-.09**	.22**	.09**	.01	.10**	.05	.05*	-.18**	-.02
					[.08, .18]	[.05, .14]	[.00, .10]	[-.10, -.00]	[.05, .14]	[-.14, -.04]	[.18, .27]	[.04, .13]	[-.04, .06]	[.06, .15]	[-.00, .09]	[.00, .10]	[-.22, -.13]	[-.06, .03]

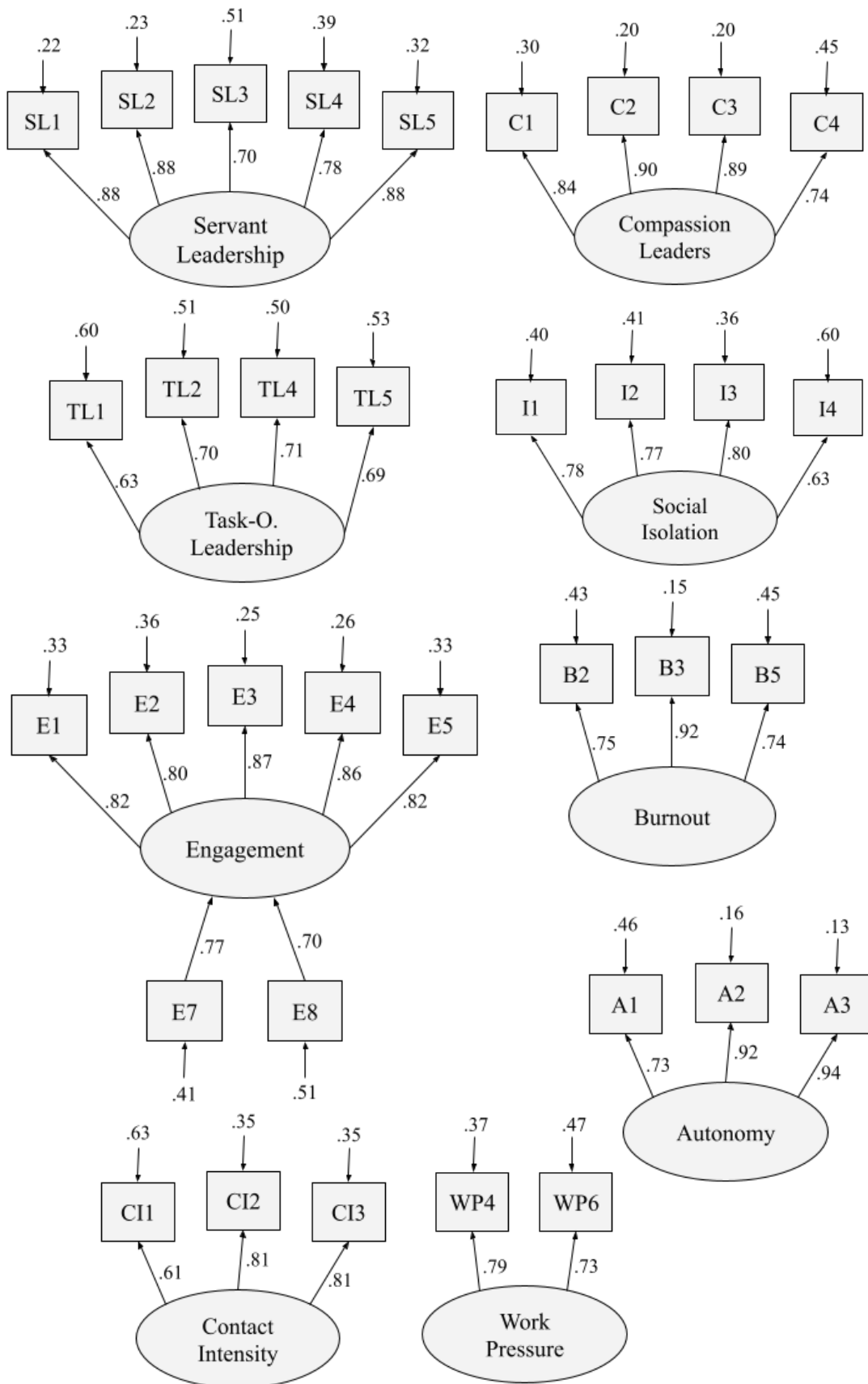
Note. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. The confidence interval is a plausible range of population correlations that could have caused the sample correlation (Cumming, 2014). * indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

4.2. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

The 56 indicators for servant leadership, compassion of leaders, task-oriented leadership, social isolation, engagement, burnout, and the control variables were entered into an initial CFA. Based on this initial CFA 10 indicators were excluded as measures for latent variables. Autonomy was excluded because of an inadequate factor loading of .33 (<.4), and because the Cronbach's alpha measure of internal consistency gave reason to. Some indicators with low factor loadings (<.7) were removed: the first (.67) and fourth (.50) burnout indicator, the sixth (.69) and ninth indicator (.69) of engagement, and four work pressure indicators (WP1, WP2, WP=4, WP5) were removed after testing multiple measurement models. It could be observed that three dimensions were present in the task-oriented latent variable, namely planning, monitoring, and probably recognising (a more relation-oriented behaviour). The third, and potential relation-oriented leadership indicator ("acknowledge my achievements") was removed from the analysis, whereas the fourth indicator for task-oriented leadership was remained because of conceptual integrity. For the same reason, the first indicator of communication intensity with colleagues was maintained despite low factor loading (.61). Also, the fourth isolation indicator ("I feel out of the loop") had a low factor loading (.64) – probably because it measures the dimension 'guidance' instead of the whole construct social isolation – remained in the further analysis. Ultimately, a set of 46 indicators as measures of latent variables were used for the final measurement model.

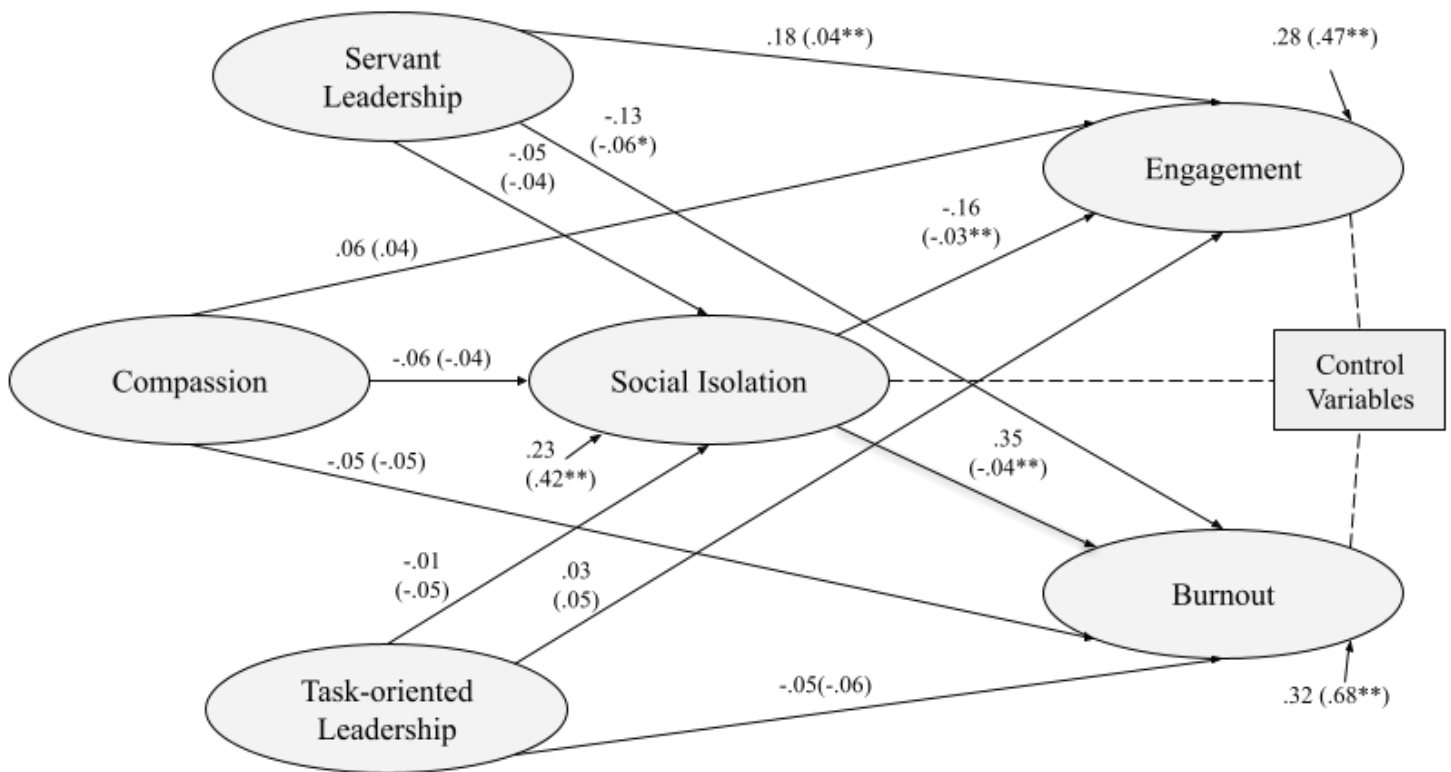
Another CFA was conducted to obtain goodness of fit indexes for the final measurement model (see Figure 3). Chi-square (524) = 3329.93, $p < .001$, chi-square/df = 6.25. The significant chi-square suggest that the model does not fit the data well. This is however likely to be the result of a large sample size and the complexity of the model (Weston & Gore, 2006). Hence, additional indexes are used. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was 0.922. This fit index met the appropriate cut-off point (>.90) (Marsh, Hau & Wen, 2004). The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was 0.057 (lower 90% CI= 0.055, and upper 90% CI=0.059), which is below the appropriate cut-off value of .10. The Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) was 0.047 which is also acceptable (<.10). This measurement model was significantly better than the initial structural model ($p < .01$). Moreover, in this initial model the fit indexes indicated that the indicators were acceptable measures for the latent variables and are thus used for the structural model.

FIGURE 3: Final Measurement Model



Note. Factor loadings are standardized. All items load statistically significant ($p < .001$)

FIGURE4: Standardized Parameter Estimates for Final Structural Model



Note. Standardized estimates for fully mediated model are listed above the arrows. Chi-square (748) = 4476.08, $p < .01$, chi-square/df = 5.98. CFI=.900. RMSEA=.055. SRMR=.058. N=1638. Average Variance Explained (AVE); social isolation=.77, engagement=.72, burnout=.68.

In Figure 4 the structural model is displayed showing direct relations between latent variables (including standardized effect sizes, standard errors, and unexplained variance). In here can be seen that social isolation is negatively related to engagement ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .01$), and positively related to burnout ($\beta = .35$, $p < .01$). This means that the more public servants feel isolated, the less engaged they are, and the more they experience burnout. Thus, both H1 and H2 could be accepted. Notable, is that the effect of social isolation is over two times more extensive on burnout than it is on engagement.

Moreover, can be noted that in contrast to the expectations that neither servant leadership, compassion and task-oriented leadership are significantly related to social isolation ($p > .05$). Thus, relation-oriented behaviours, aimed at empowering, developing, and supporting, and the measured task-oriented leadership behaviours: planning and monitoring, are not related to social isolation

In contrast, some control variables do explain the variance in social isolation. Contact intensity with colleagues is negatively related to social isolation ($\beta = -.05$, $p < .05$), meaning that the more public servants interact with colleagues via digital modes of communication the less socially isolated they are. There is also a negative relation between autonomy ($\beta = -.08$, $p < .05$), workplace satisfaction ($\beta = -.23$, $p < .01$), and gender

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($\beta=-0.15$, $p<.01$) with social isolation. This means that social isolation levels of public servants are lower for them who experience more autonomy, are more satisfied with their workplace, and are male. Telecommuting intensity ($\beta=0.25$, $p<.01$), educational level ($\beta=0.05$, $p<.01$), task dependency ($\beta=0.18$, $p<.01$), and work pressure ($\beta=0.18$, $p<.01$) were positively related with social isolation. This means that social isolation levels of public servants are higher for them who work full-time from home, have a higher educational level, of whom tasks are difficult to conduct in the virtual environment, and who experience more work pressure.

TABLE 4: Mediated Relationships Leadership Behaviours, Social Isolation, and Engagement

	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Z</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Std. all</i>
Direct Engagement					
Servant Leadership	.16	.04	3.61	.00	.18
Compassion	.05	.04	1.43	.15	.06
Task-oriented leadership	.04	.05	.71	.48	.03
Indirect Engagement					
Servant Leadership	-.01	.01	-.85	.40	-.01
Compassion	.01	.01	1.35	.18	.01
Task-oriented leadership	-.00	.01	-.29	.78	-.00
Total Engagement					
Servant Leadership	.16	.04	3.43	.00	.18
Compassion	.06	.04	1.66	.01	.07
Task-oriented leadership	.03	.05	.65	.52	.03

Note. Chi-square (748) = 4476.08, $p < .01$, chi-square/df = 5.98. CFI=.900. RMSEA=.055. SRMR=.058. N=1638.

In table 4 and 5 the (standardized) direct, indirect, and total effect sizes of servant leadership, compassion of leaders, and task-oriented leadership are displayed; the mediated relationships between leadership behaviours, social isolation and the two wellbeing variables. As also visualized in the final structural model (Figure 3), servant leadership is positively related to engagement ($\beta=.18$, $p<.01$) and negatively related to burnout ($\beta=-.13$, $p<.05$). Here, the effect of servant leadership is more extensive on

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engagement then it is on burnout. There is however no significant indirect effect of servant leadership on both engagement and burnout, mediated by social isolation ($p > .05$). Compassion of leaders and task-oriented leadership behaviours are both directly, and indirectly through social isolation, not related to the wellbeing variables: engagement and burnout ($p > .05$). Hence, the null-hypotheses of H3, H4, H5, and H6 are accepted.

TABLE 5: Mediated Relationships Leadership Behaviours, Social Isolation, and Burnout

	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Z</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Std. all</i>
Direct Burnout					
Servant Leadership	-.14	.06	-2.53	.01	-.13
Compassion	-.05	.05	-1.18	.24	-.05
Task-oriented leadership	-.08	.06	-1.20	.23	-.05
Indirect Burnout					
Servant Leadership	.02	.02	.86	.39	-.02
Compassion	-.02	.02	-1.38	.17	-.02
Task-oriented leadership	.01	.02	0.29	.77	.01
Total Burnout					
Servant Leadership	-.12	.06	-2.11	.03	-.11
Compassion	-.05	.05	-1.63	.10	-.07
Task-oriented leadership	-.07	.07	-1.05	.29	-.05

Note. Chi-square (748) = 4476.08, $p < .01$, chi-square/df = 5.98. CFI=.900. RMSEA=.055. SRMR=.058. N=1638.

Some control variables are significantly related to the wellbeing aspects: engagement and burnout. Here could be noted that contact intensity with colleagues ($\beta = .11$, $p < .01$), autonomy ($\beta = .25$, $p < .01$), task-dependency ($\beta = .06$, $p < .05$), and age ($\beta = .06$, $p < .01$) are significantly positively related to engagement. Thus, the more public servants have interactions with colleagues via online communication, experience autonomy, depend for conducting tasks on other colleagues, and the elder they are, the more engaged they are. Work pressure ($\beta = -.10$, $p < .01$) was significantly negatively related to engagement, meaning that the more public servants experience work pressure, the less engaged they are. Besides, contact intensity ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .01$), autonomy ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .01$),

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workplace satisfaction ($\beta = -.63$, $p < .01$), and the organisation ($\beta = -.10$, $p < .05$), were negatively related to burnout. This means that the more public servants have interactions with colleagues, experience autonomy, are satisfied with their workplace at home, and work at the organisation Z, the less they experience burnout.

In the final structural model, the fit indexes met the appropriate values. Chi-square (748) = 4476.08, $p < .01$, chi-square/ $df = 5.98$. Again, this is likely to be the result of a large sample size and the complexity of the model (Weston & Gore, 2006). The CFI was .900 and did just meet the appropriate cut-off point ($> .90$). Both the RMSEA (.055) and SRMR (.058) were below the appropriate cut-off value of .10. In SEM, to further improve the model modifications may be applied. At this stage, there was however no significantly better model that was theoretical acceptable.

4.3. PARTIAL CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION AND QUALITATIVE QUESTIONS

Besides simply answering the research sub-questions (see introduction) with qualitative answers, compensating for the shortcomings of quantitative answers, as previously mentioned, key in an explanatory mixed method design is to use the qualitative phase to explain quantitative results. The quantitative analysis resulted in both significant and non-significant results that are both of value for the qualitative phase of this study, and further research and practice in general. Some specific questions arose during the quantitative analysis that will be elaborated on in this discussion.

In the current situation of telecommuting during COVID-19, almost all public servants (in the sample 85 percent) work completely from home, and on average state that they 'now and then' had "*the state of mind, or belief that they were out of touch with others in the workplace*" (Golden et al., p. 1412). Of them, around one third (35 percent) stated that they often or very often experience social isolation. What is known now is that this 'feeling out of touch', affect engagement, and more severely affect burnout. Socially isolated public servants have less vigour, absorption dedication, and are more cynical. What stood out was that the effect of social isolation is over two times more extensive on burnout than on engagement. The logical question that follows is: why is this the case?

In contrast to the expectations, is neither the measured relation-oriented behaviours or task-oriented behaviours related to social isolation, and does social isolation thus also not mediate any of the relations of the measured leadership behaviours with the wellbeing aspects in telecommuting situation during the COVID-19 pandemic. This contradicts the scarce theory on this topic hinting that leaders can use various behaviours to maintain the connectedness of telecommuters, such that they do not lose the social

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identity of the organisation and hence do not feel isolated. In the qualitative phase should be searched for explanations; is it true that there is no relation between the measured leadership behaviours and social isolation in this unique telecommuting context, or is there more at play leading to insignificant relationships? Moreover, some relation-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours were not quantitatively measured. Here the question is: may there be relations between the unmeasured leadership behaviours; recognising, clarifying and problem-solving, and social isolation?

5. Qualitative Findings

If you as a reader may wonder how it is to work full-time from home during the COVID-19 pandemic – in case you have not experienced this– then imagine being shipwrecked on an island, with a mobile phone, a laptop with internet connection, but nobody who can take you off the island for at least a year. Besides this possibility to communicate with others via virtual connections, you are on your own figuring out how to live on the island, how to adjust, and make adjustments such that you live the most comfortable life possible for the year coming.

This imaginable situation of a ‘modern Robison Crusoe’ is in a lot of ways similar to the situation public servants find themselves in during the COVID-19 pandemic. Although most public servants are already familiar with homeworking, this was almost never a full-time arrangement, and they thus did not completely depend on their homes. Now they have to figure out how to do all their work from the island, and for example not just the tasks that require concentration, with none or almost none ‘real-life’ contact with colleagues. Thereby they rely heavily on the conditions of their house: ‘the treasures and the whims’, and on online communication.

Using the metaphors of castaways throughout the analysis, in this qualitative results section will be described (5.1) what it is to work from home (the island), (5.2) what it means for individuals to work from home (the Castaways), (5.3) how this may have consequences for their wellbeing (flourishing or suffering), and (5.4) how a supervisor can deal with a telecommuter (a captain?)¹⁴.

5.1. THE ISLAND

“...you do work for [organisation Z], but it doesn't always feel that way anymore. Everyone is on their own island, and I think that is getting worse and worse.” (Respondent A, organisation Z)

On 13 March 2020, the Dutch government urged public servants to work full-time from home (Rijksoverheid, 2021). Since then, public servants have to work on their own island; this is their house, where they are bound to the facilitations, such as their Wi-Fi network, laptop and mobile phone, and workroom (if present). Besides, all public servants are subject to the whims of their household; some respondents have a homeworking partner with kids forced to home-schooling for some periods, others are completely on their own, most have something in between. How great this change to the work environment may

¹⁴ The citations used in this chapter are translated from Dutch. The original citations can be found in the appendix.

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be – which may be perceived as good or bad – the social changes may be just as impactful. As mentioned in the theoretical framework, the physical separation of public servants from the office has consequences for ways in which public servants communicate. This may seem harmless, but as will be described later on, a seemingly small change in communication may lead to social isolation, affect employee wellbeing, and reduce leadership behaviour effectiveness.

On the basis of the data, could be argued that the shift to homeworking initiated two developments regarding communication. Firstly, and as indicated by previous scholars (e.g., Putnam, 1995; Vega & Brennan, 2000; Cooper & Kurland, 2002), the number of interactions between public servants may decline. One reason for the exclusion from interactions is in the lack of spontaneous conversations, and the absence of ‘accessible’ contacts. In the pre-COVID-19 situation, spontaneous interactions happened frequently as public servants simply ran into each other, especially because public servants from organisation Y and organisation Z were working previously in an open plan office (‘kantoortuin’). Public servants working in one building also allowed them to walk up to a colleague’s desk to ask a work-related question or just to have a chitchat. In the current homeworking situation, there is a distance; to start a conversations public servants have to take initiative and call someone, use mail, send a message, or travel to meet in person. In other words, communicating in the current homeworking situation cost more effort then the effortless, or almost effortless communication in the physical work environment. Due to this effort the communication intensity may decrease.

“Normally you're stuck with each other, of course, but you don't just go out to see each other, you did not before, but then you just ran into each other at the coffee machine...” (Respondent 1, organisation Y)

“... in the beginning [of the current homeworking situation] we called each other a lot, but hey... you can't call ten people continuously in one day. So, you don't do that anymore.”
(Respondent A, organisation Z)

Besides the often-experienced decline in communication frequency, a second development is present regarding the content of conversations. As also noted by Cooper & Kurland (2002), most respondents experience that the informal interactions, such as the small talks at the coffee machine or at lunchtime, diminishing more rapidly than the formal interactions, those entailing work-related conversations. Here the lack of spontaneous interactions seems to have larger impact on the informal interactions than on the formal interactions. A couple of respondents explain that the informal conversations within the office happen because ‘it happens’ as you are with each other as colleagues, but principally they are not friends who seek contact to talk about personal

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issues. Others argue that maintaining the informal interactions is more time consuming: cost more effort, while the informal interactions are generally perceived as more efficient. Moreover, some respondents argue that those formal interactions remain because those are necessary to cooperate, and to conduct tasks properly.

“Grosso modo I think the contact is less, well I'm sure of that. They are all more concerned with themselves. You can visit each other... but your colleagues are not your friends.” (Respondent 1, organisation Y)

“[I] do have contact with my colleagues, but it is really goal-oriented... Previously you could build a conversation around it, because you see each other for a while and you notice something about each other, such as new shoes; do you have new shoes? glasses, have you done your hair? ... You can't see that now. Now it's solely: can you help me with work?” (Respondent 2, organisation Y)

Another cause for this change in the content of conversations seems a direct consequence of the substitution from ‘offline’ interactions by ‘online’ interactions. As mentioned by previous scholars (e.g., Vega & Brennan, 2000; Chang, Cheung & Tang, 2013) ‘online’ interactions are generally of less quality because they lack some physical expressions, and some of the visibility of them. Due to this limited quality of online interactions some respondents argue that informal interactions became burdensome, in a sense that it is more difficult to carry out and feels unnatural.

“...I mean you ask such a digital screen: how is everyone? Well then, a few people start talking about their sick cat at home... It used to be just a nice conversation beforehand. Well, that's all a bit more artificial now.” (Respondent J, organisation Z)

Besides this general decline in communication intensity, and the change in the content of communication, can be noted that due to the physical separation, for some groups the interactions diminish more rapidly than for others. Most frequently mentioned is that on average public servants with a longer job tenure have more informal interactions than those with a relatively short job tenure. Public servants with a longer job tenure namely build more and stronger relationships with colleagues in the time they worked in the office, and often maintain those relationships while homeworking. The public servants with a shorter job tenure, often those who are younger, have less, or almost zero informal contact as they did not have the time to build those relationships in the office. Some respondents add that it is straining to build a relationship with a colleague online; this takes way more time.

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“I also have some new people on my team, and it's so difficult to get them in right now. The people who know each other can call each other, take a walk, have a WhatsApp group, but the newer ones don't have that.” (Respondent 3, organisation Y)

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“...there will be all sorts of insurmountable changes and that working from home will become a major determinant of the way in which colleagues interact with each other... Contact will be different. The intensity of communication will change, and the connections [between public servants], that will be arranged differently too.” (Respondent 6, organisation Y)

In contrast with previous occasions, public servants during the COVID-19 pandemic have not chosen to work from home for one or some days a week, but are urged by the Dutch government to work full-time from home, and consequently forced by their organisations in case of organisation Y and organisation Z. In this unique situation public servants are being fully objectively isolated from their organisations and *excluded* to some degree from the organisational network. Hence, they can be seen as castaways, banished from their office, and stranded on their own island. On their island public servants may experience social isolation: *“a state of mind, or belief, that one is out of touch with others in the workplace”* (Golden et al., 2008, p. 1412). Although not all respondents experience this to a similar degree, for which several explanations will be provided later, most experience at least some level of social isolation.

“At some point, the walls are closing in on me. I feel a bit trapped, cornered, even though I have all the facilities at home, that's not what it's about. I just miss the collegiate among us and the buzz.” (Respondent 14, organisation Y)

“I just miss that contact with my employees. And I also notice that they need it for themselves, and also for what they are doing.” (Respondent 3, organisation Y)

As described in the three concepts are central to social isolation, namely: (1) social identities, and the (2) guidance and (3) feeling of belonging that derives from them. Usually, public servants create a social identity of the organisation, that is a piece of someone's personality that connect the individual to the broader society. A social identity is what binds them to the organisation, and what binds the organisation to her people (Thoits, 1983). Without being aware of the concept of a social identity, or being specifically asked about, some of the respondents describe what a social identity entails for them. To put it simple, for them it is about the being of an employee of one particular organisation – for me it is about being a ‘student’ – and not just some person who

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conduct tasks at their laptop. One respondent describes what having a social identity entails for him or her:

“For example, when that scandal came in the news. In the beginning, you are quite sceptical because it is your employer. Would that [department] really done it that way...? You do feel connected to your employer. You also have a kind of sense of responsibility that [your colleagues] that did not do that very well. You're even a little ashamed of it, slightly. Just as it sometimes appears in the news that [colleagues were involved in criminal organisations]. That actually does something to you...” (Respondent 19, organisation Y)

As described in the previous section the objective isolation of public servants changes the degree, quality, and the content of communication. This combination, and not just the individual causes, results in less *bonding* interactions between public servants by which the loss of a social identity of the organisation becomes more likely, or the creation of one hindered (Diekema, 1992; Putnam, 2000; Vega & Brennan, 2000; Golden et al., 2008). Albeit that not all respondents seem able or willing to talk about social isolation and the mechanism involved, some respondents describe parts. One respondent links the objective isolation from the office, and the exclusion from interactions that follow, to the loss of a social identity:

“I'm not saying that if you're in the office that you're a big family, that's not true of course, but you do have something in common... by talking less to each other, which happens automatically because everyone is at home, that sort of things disappear in the background. Everyone feels a bit abandoned.” (Respondent 1, organisation Y)

One other respondent links the decrease in communication intensity to as lost feeling of belonging, as a subpart of that which a social identity provides:

“...otherwise [when working from home] you do not see or hear each other. I walk around here a few times and then you think, I know that person from somewhere and then you don't even know his name anymore. That just happens. Sometimes I feel like I'm already retired.”
(Respondent 17, organisation Y)

Another respondent relates the decreased communication intensity and the changed content of communication to the lost feeling of belonging:

“Well, I think that makes the bond you had a bit stiffer. I think so. Usually, you just give them a call, now you think I haven't spoken to them for so long. In fact, you only call to find something out about work. I think it all drives everyone apart.” (Respondent 6, organisation Y)

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And yet another respondent relates the limitations of online communication to the content of communication. Just after this, the respondent argues that this caused a lost feeling of belonging.

“We have occasionally contact., but it's not like you know what's going on with someone else. If you see someone walk in here in the morning when you're in the office, you can see it right away. Appearance. Bright clothes, dark clothes, hair done, makeup done, facial expression. You don't have that, and that part makes it that the connection is gone.” (Respondent 2, organisation Y)

When talking about social isolation, in general respondents talk most frequently about losing guidance. As mentioned in the theoretical framework, by providing guidance a social identity contributes to public servants acting in line with the norms, values, and desires of the organisation (Toits, 1983). Without guidance, public servants may behave and function contrary to the expectations of the organisation. When raising the issue of guidance, among other things respondents talk about their difficulties to ask colleagues for help due to the changed modes of communication, the disappearance of spontaneous confrontations where work is discussed, the absence of inspiration by others, and about the loss of mutual control due to the created ‘distance’ between them¹⁵. In line with the literature, respondents often argue that due changes in communication they lack guidance.

“The lack of personal contact... It also complicates work. Previously if you wanted to ask something you stood up and one and a half meters further there was someone to whom you could present a piece of paper and ask what you think of that. You can reach anyone [when working from home], but there are always steps in between.” (Respondent 6, organisation Y).

“When the course or lesson or meeting is finished, everyone leaves, while if you are in a room, you can ask something... Now you press the cross and it is gone, and you can no longer ask the person you may have wanted to ask something to understand it properly. You miss that.” (Respondent 17, organisation Y)

Similarly, to the dependence of communication on personal characteristics, the topic of social isolation is also subject to some degree of subjectivity. Firstly, the data shows that the need for guidance heavily depends on whether public servants work autonomous. Within organisation Y they are for example a lot of specialised public servants who also in the pre-COVID-19 situation were ‘lone wolves’. Secondly, some respondents argue that the communication is most missed by the public servants with a relative short job tenure, who essentially may not have formed the social identity of the

¹⁵ Most frequently when talking about diminishing guidance respondents use the Dutch word: ‘sparren’ (literally translated: sparring).

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organisation yet – public servants with a longer job tenure generally possess the social identity of the organisations. The public servants with a relative short job tenure also suffer most of the lack of guidance the social identity should have provided, as they due to a lack of experience depend on it more.

“Look, I can teach them what to do and which systems to use, but what it is to work for [organisation Y] you learn in the informal contact, by watching how someone does it, listening to how someone does it, attending other people's meetings. Those are all things you need to do to be a [employee of organisation Y]. They just miss out on all those moments.” (Respondent 3, organisation Y)

“I think people who are new to the organization also have a very hard time, because you can't build a relationship at all, you can't build a bond. You can't go for a walk or have lunch together. It's all on a screen...” (Respondent J, organisation Z)

Thirdly, not all respondents have a similar social need. In other words, some persons need more contact, and essentially more social identities, to not feel socially isolated. Some for example argue that introvert individuals need less social contact than extrovert individuals, as also described by Meymandpour & Bagheri (2017). Other respondents add that the younger group of public servants have a higher social need than the elder group of public servants.

“Now you have to work from home and that is a shock for some people. Some get pretty isolated. I can find my way on my own. Think it depends on the person.” (Respondent 24, organisation Y)

Fourthly, losing a social identity matters less when having more of them in the first place, in line with the identity accumulation theory described by Yukl (2012). Public servants with very few social identities may suffer severely from losing the social identity of the organisation. Especially, because due to the lockdowns within the COVID-19 pandemic, other social interactions than those with colleagues (e.g., with friends, on the sports club, in the restaurant) have also been heavily reduced. During this pandemic it is not unthinkable that public servants lost possession of other social identities besides the social identity of the organisation. Hence, the data shows that individuals who do not have social identities of for example a family or a close-knit friend group, experience higher levels of social isolation, which may in some cases be destructive for their wellbeing.

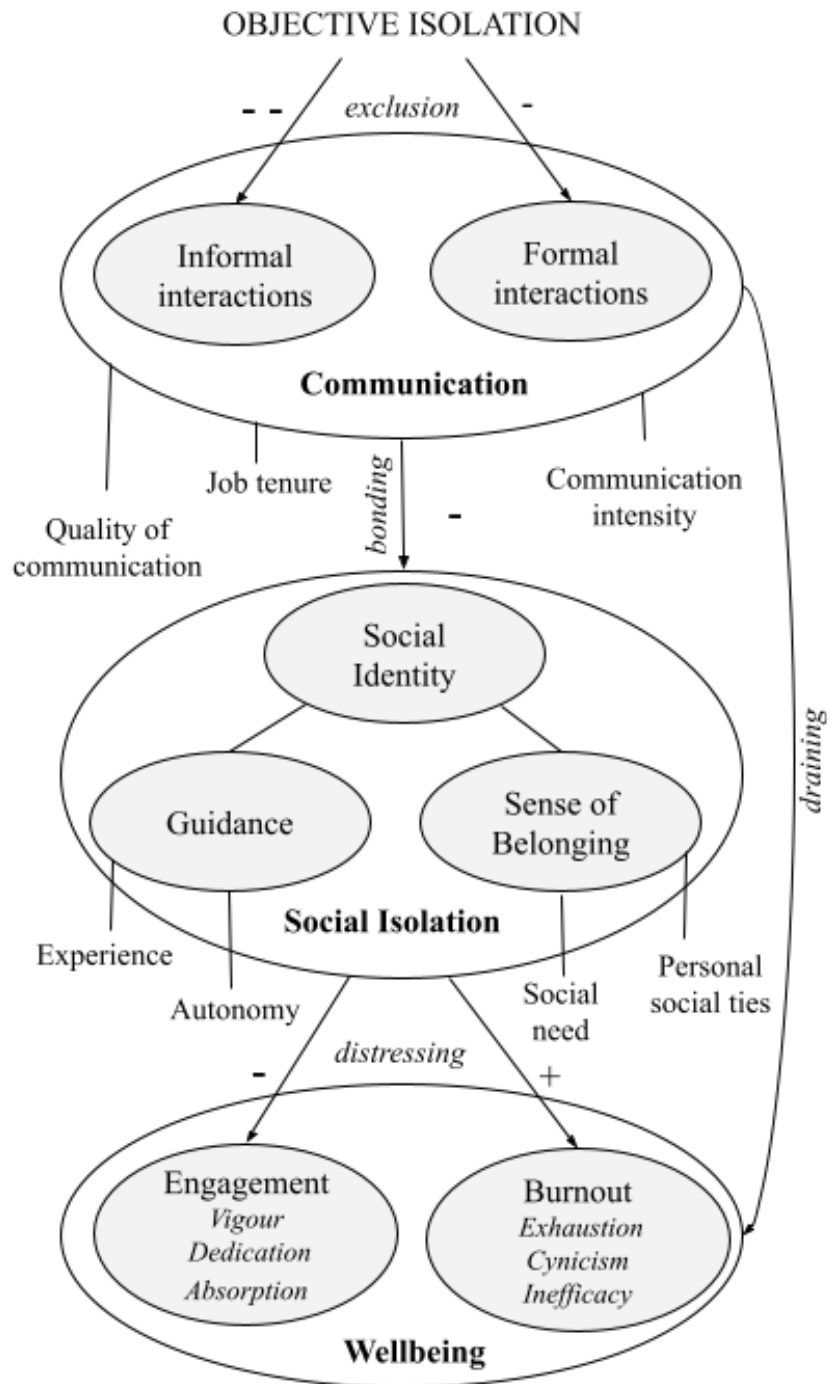
“...a young woman who lives alone. It is extra hard for such a person because she had her social environment at the office, where she met people, but at home she was always alone. Now she sits at home all day and doesn't meet people, so she experiences the lack of contact very quickly.”
(Respondent 12, organisation Y)

5.3. FLOURISHING OR SUFFERING

On their ‘islands’, some ‘Castaways’ merely flourish, others merely suffer, and most flourish sometimes, while suffering other times, like Robinson Crusoe, in Defoe’s (1887) novel. One of the main reasons for suffering is becoming socially isolated. Severe levels of social isolation may lead to mental illnesses (Toits, 1983), and even Robinson Crusoe suffered from (at-least) one: schizophrenia. In similar fashion is shown in the quantitative results section that social isolation affects wellbeing aspects. Before explaining this relation, another relation is detected in the qualitative data; that is a direct relation between communication and wellbeing aspects, that in figure 5 is named *draining*.

As the word already says, online communication may lead to deprivation of strength and vitality of public servants. Multiple respondents argue that they perceive online communication as: boring in a sense that it lacks some physical expressions (that they often also see as informative and thereby useful in conducting their tasks), dull because of the lack of informal contacts, and tiresome because of lengthy chaotic meetings through a virtual medium that according to them requires more concentration – at least if one desires to follow. In contrast, a couple of supervisors argues that the lack of communication, especially the lack of according to them unnecessary chitchats, leaves them with more time and vigour to conduct their ‘real’ tasks, although they also add that

FIGURE 5: Social Isolation Theory for ‘Castaways’



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the formal meetings are more exhausting to conduct online. One respondent answered on the question why he or she perceives online meetings as tiresome:

“The fact that you are staring at a monitor, and if you are in it [an online meeting] with a lot of people, you see everyone moving, and it happens that people start talking at the same time, while when you are physically together you can physically interact with each other.” (Respondent 10, organisation Y)

Although in the quantitative results relatively strong relations are shown between social isolation and wellbeing, respondents not always link these concepts to each other. One reason for the lack of linkage in some cases may be that groups of respondents do experience social isolation, but do not experience a decline in wellbeing because the advantageous of homeworking outweigh the disadvantageous – they flourish. There are thus some mitigating circumstances that may blur the effect of social isolation; the ability to work from home and thereby manage work-life balance better, less distraction from the open-office, and thus more concentration at home, more time (less travel time), are examples of engagement enhancing aspects of homeworking respondents mention.

The qualitative data however shows that the relation found in the quantitative data between social isolation and wellbeing is no coincidence. Despite a smaller group merely flourishing in the virtual environment, there is a large middle group harmed slightly by the homeworking situation, and some are severely suffering. Here, the answers of two supervisors on the question how his or her team is handling the homeworking situation:

“Overall reasonable. A few really thrive, but there are also a few having a hard time.”
(Respondent 3, organisation Y)

“Most of them say, yes I'm fine, but I miss the social interaction... They occasionally have weeks where things are going really well, doing a lot of work in the week, and the following week nothing goes.” (Respondent 11, organisation Y)

Some respondents clearly relate social isolation to their wellbeing. This seems to follow the mechanisms described by the identity accumulation hypotheses, described in the theoretical framework. According to this hypothesis the more social identities one possesses, the less psychological distress he or she should exhibit (Thoits, 1983). In similar fashion, losing a social identity, among others of the organisation may cause psychological distress. Social isolation thus has a *distressing* effect; it causes worries and is upsetting. When relating social isolation to wellbeing respondents mostly describe this mechanism:

“Well, sometimes you don't hear anything for a day or two. Then I sometimes think what am I actually doing. That is not the case all the time, but there are those moments where you are

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sitting here and then you have not heard anything from anyone, and then I think what am I doing it for.” (Respondent, 17, organisation Y)

Shown in the quantitative data is that the effect of social isolation is two times more extensive on burnout than it is on engagement. It may be that some of the above mentioned unmeasured (and in some cases unmeasurable) positive aspects of homeworking have effect on engagement, but do not have an effect, or to a smaller extent, on burnout, such as the possibility to manage work and life responsibilities. Because burnout is only measured by one dimension: cynicism, it could also be the case that social isolation affect cynicism more than then the other burnout dimensions: exhaustion and inefficacy, such that the total effects of social isolation on engagement and burnout would be more alike. One way or the other, on the basis of the qualitative data there is however no reason to believe social isolation has a smaller effect on exhaustion an inefficacy. The contrary may even be true, as social isolation is more often related to exhaustion and inefficacy then it is related to cynicism. See the following quotes:

“The rut, the drive left me. you miss your sparring partners, the interaction with your colleagues... If you're just at home, sitting behind your laptop, you get a bit groggy. My attention span went down, and I became so disconnected from my work.” (Respondent 14, organisation Y)

“I thought it was all fine before the crisis, but now I have become a bit more restless because if you have to work from home five days a week, it is not quite fun.” (Respondent 2, organisation Y)

Moreover, it seems that the distressing effect of social isolation may actually lead to a burnout. Remember that previously was mentioned that extreme levels of social isolation are likely to lead to mental illnesses (Toits, 1983). In that sense, a burnout is far from unthinkable. Two supervisors talk about the ‘social cases’, as they call it, that have happened since the full-time homeworking situation:

"He also had high blood pressure, a young guy of 35, and he needs to be treated by the doctor."
(Respondent 12, organisation Y)

“So, I have one that had really nervous breakdowns, one just got back after a 5-month break, and one is close enough to clamp on it.” (Respondent 3, organisation Y)

5.4. A CAPTAIN

On the ‘island’ ‘castaways’ are alone, or been held company by their family, if they have one. Via virtual mediums: mobile phone and their laptop, they can have contact with

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fellow castaways and with their supervisor: the captain, stranded on her or his own island. As described in the previous sections, due to these distant contacts bonding with others becomes difficult. As Madlock (2012) argued, this distance between public servants also affects the role, possibilities, and potential influence of a captain. The question is then: which actual possibilities do supervisors have to lead ‘castaways’?

About leadership in general, van Wart et al., (2019) and Beauregard et al., (2019) justly noted that supervisors who do not adjust their behaviours to the virtual environment are unlikely to reap the rewards of the leadership potential. What stands out from the data is the different styles of supervisors. Some of them seem to have a proactive approach, whereas others are mainly reactive. Respondents often refer to the latter as supervisors being approachable (‘benaderbaar’). Although some respondents value the lack of interference from supervisors, in the online environment the approachable leadership style is more often perceived by respondents as unsatisfactory. Being approachable is something that a supervisor truly and almost effortless is when he or she is at the office, but in the virtual environment there is a physical distance, more of a burden to overcome for public servants to approach their supervisor. Generally, therefore, respondents value a more active style, in their jargon an ‘approaching’ supervisor, and this seems also more effective. See the two following quotes of first a ‘regular’ public servant and second a quote of a supervisor:

“It sounds very silly, but I don't know if he has a specific approach. It's not like he's making contact anymore. It is more ad hoc that if we want something, we contact him, and he takes it with him. It's not that he contacts you regularly to ask how things are going.” (Respondent 10, organisation Y)

“At first you have to put in some effort. They don't immediately indicate that they are not doing well. I do ask about it continuously, and at a certain moment they trust me enough to share it with me. Because there are also people who don't indicate that they are having a hard time. So, I had to work quite a bit to get those problem cases on the table.” (Respondent 12, organisation Y)

On the level of leadership types, there does not seem much of a difference in the lost degree of applicability and effectiveness of in this case relation-oriented and task-oriented behaviours after shifting to working a virtual environment, as other scholars (e.g., Jaussi & Dionne, 2003; Walther, 2003) suggested. The data namely suggests that both types of leadership are obscured by the limited quality of communication through virtual mediums. Supervisors also experience a lack of spontaneous and accessible interactions with their team members. Due to the lack of these spontaneous and accessible interactions some supervisors argue that in general all leadership behaviours

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became more time-consuming. And thus, also for them, the communication intensity may decrease whereby the possibilities of communicating their leadership behaviours also slink. Then, supervisors just have to ‘make the best with what they have’ (‘roeien met de riemen die ze hebben’), is a statement made by multiple public servants and supervisors that implies that supervisors do not have so much to go with in the first place.

“So as a manager... you have to do your personnel interviews online and so if you give someone a negative assessment, you must now do it online. You just miss a lot of non-verbal communication and a lot of real contact. Or people who are sick, which I now only speak online, what doesn't work well at all, because you don't get the same contact.” (Respondent FF, organisation Z)

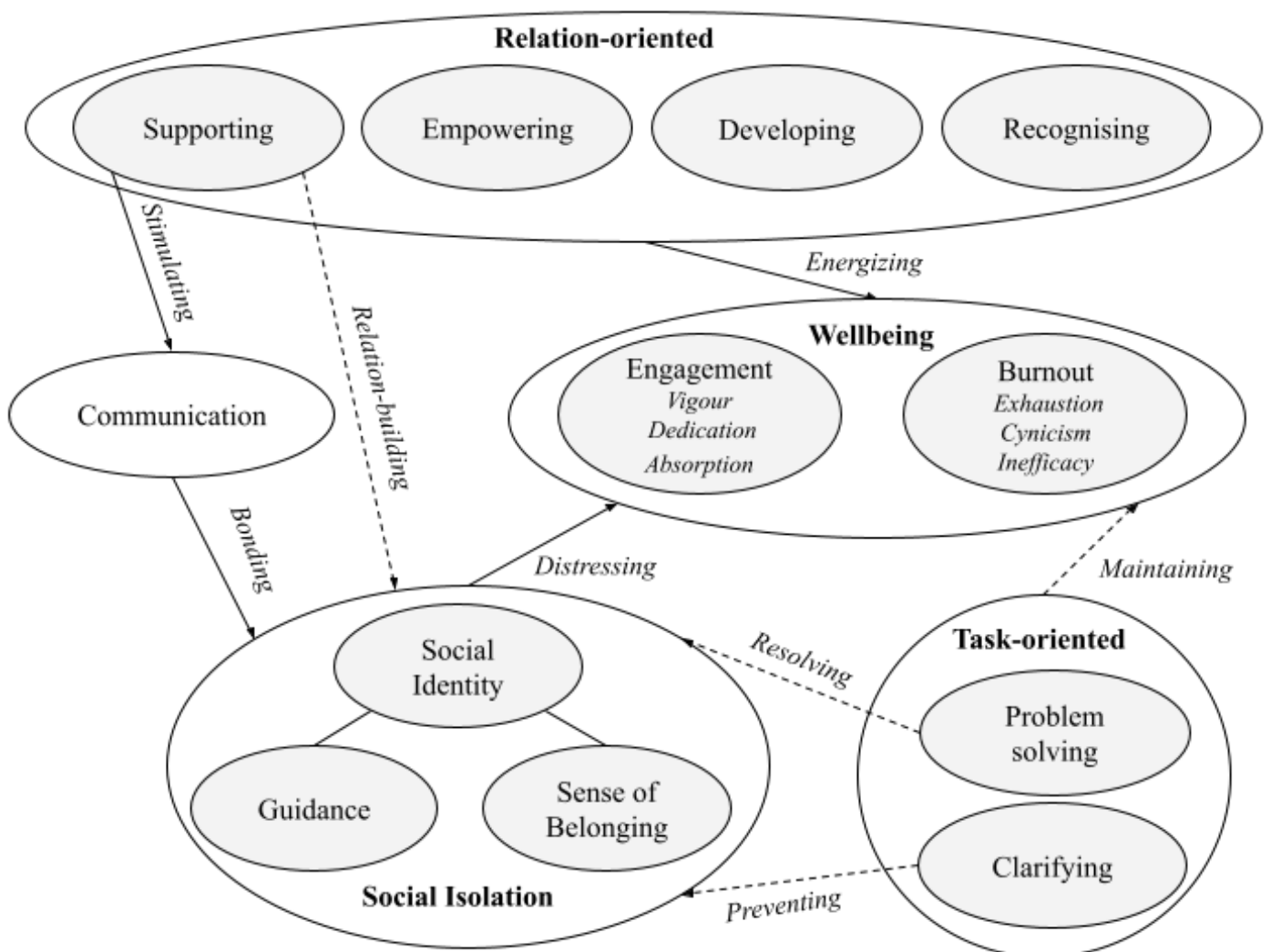
On the level of leadership behaviours differences in the degree of applicability and effectiveness arise. Respondents argue that some leadership behaviours that were present before the full-time home working situation are now absent. They for example argue that monitoring in some cases became difficult to the lack of transparency in the virtual environment (also ‘monitoring’ how public servants are doing mentally), that for a similar reason recognising becomes difficult, that appraisal interviews are uncomfortable and constrictive due to the absence of some non-verbal communications, that the possibilities to coach (developing) public servants diminished because they cannot sit together with their team members at one computer, and that team meetings online with around 20 participants are just unproductive that in makes no sense to organize one in the first place. On the other hand, there are leadership behaviours such as supporting and problem-solving that prevail. In the virtual environment supervisors thus rely more heavily on certain leadership behaviours than on others, and they may carry them out differently then they would in the physical work environment. Hence, it is necessary to delph deeper into the content, applicability, and effectiveness of the specific leadership behaviours.

5.4.1 Relation-oriented Leadership Behaviours

As mentioned in the theoretical framework relation-oriented leadership consists of four core leadership behaviours: supporting, developing, recognising, and empowering (Yukl, 2012), that are all taken into the qualitative analysis (see also Figure 6). As Yukl (2012) conceptualised, supporting behaviour entails showing *“positive regard, build cooperative relationships, and help people cope with stressful situations”* (Yukl, 2012, p.72). Respondents often argue the receive supporting behaviour from their supervisors. Supervisors seek contact with their team members to: ask how it is going with them personally, whether they need something to work better, to provide them with some tips and tricks how to deal with the homeworking situation, to point out to not be to hard on themselves and

take time off, to organise (online) teambuilding events, to share some story or a music playlist, or to show positive regard, just to mention some things. One respondent talks for example about the support he or she received from the supervisor when a close colleague committed suicide. Another respondent talks about the joy he or she had when regularly receiving a fun story of the supervisor while working from home. Often respondents talk about the ‘walks’ they had with their supervisor where there was time to just talk about personal things. ‘

FIGURE 6: Relations leadership behaviours, Social Isolation and Wellbeing



Although most supervisors are concerned about what they perceive as ‘their’ team members, and try to have occasional contact with them, they often also experience high work pressure and thus lack time to support all of their team members. Some supervisors argue that work pressure is inherent to their work but is further enhanced by the distance between them and the team members. Hence, they often focus on what is earlier described as the ‘social cases’. Here again, there may be a difference between an

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approachable (reactive) style of supervisors, or an approaching style of supervisors. Most respondents (read: public servants) argue that if the experience issues with social isolation or their wellbeing they will have to seek contact with their supervisors. When being identified as a 'social case', they will be regularly approached by their supervisors, instead of occasionally. Supervisors then *build a relation* with those individuals. In that way, supporting behaviour may be of value for the levels of social isolation of public servants in distress.

"With my team leader, I do notice that he takes the corona crisis into account, that he is sometimes a bit easy with having people come to the office. He's a bit easier in that respect. He sympathizes with us, and he can also understand things." (Respondent 28, Organization Y).

More clearly, and probably more impactful, is the indirect effect supervisors may have on the levels of social isolation of public servants. Supervisors can namely *stimulate* communication between team members, and thereby actively engage them to *bond* and thereby contribute to the maintenance of their social identity. They for example allow public servants to meet each other in person for a walk, stimulate them to reach out to other persons, or being creative as two respondents (read: supervisors) argue that they share personal 'stuff' with their team with the hope that team members will do the same. Some supervisors argue that they specifically apply these methods, if it may be called like this, on the 'social cases', or those with a short job tenure.

"But there are some who are really alone, and who get quite isolated, then you notice that he is involved, you also hear that in meetings. There they are not called by name, but you do hear stories. Then he will come up with ideas of searching meeting others. If necessary, visit each other so that you can discuss work with each other or just do a cup of coffee." (Respondent 24, organisation Y)

"I also send my sheepdogs [loyal colleagues] there. I'm a bit limited in what I can say about individuals, but I do try this with some people who are more experienced, who have been with the team for longer, to ask them give certain individuals a call, go for a walk, ask how he is doing." (Respondent 3, organisation Y)

In contrast to the effects of supporting behaviour on social isolation, there does not seem to be an effect of other relation-oriented leadership behaviours on social isolation. Essentially, when empowering people you provide them with freedom, which means a supervisor has less connections with his or her team members, and the team members have less bindings with the organisation. Additionally, some respondents argue that developing is something their supervisors do when working in the physical work environment, but since they work from home this 'slipped away'. Nevertheless, as also

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shown in the quantitative phase, both empowering and developing seem to influence the wellbeing of public servants by *energizing* them. This can be seen as an exchange part of the social exchange theory, described by Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) and others. By providing autonomy and the possibilities to develop themselves, respondents seem to become more engaged and less experience burnout. The reason why relation-oriented behaviours have more effect on engagement on burnout, appears to be grounded in the energizing effect of relation-oriented behaviours, and not a 'solving' effect. Burn-out is an issue that is mainly handled by others in the organisation, for example by social workers or by higher officials within the organisation.

“He gives me the space and the possibilities to fulfil those [two functions] as good as possible. If he hadn't, it would have been a lot harder for me to do this. Because of his support and his backup, I feel I can do this as well as I possible can.” (Respondent 2, organisation Y)

“We have a lot of autonomy to do our job and enjoy trust. I also experience confidence in me from my team leader. He has known me for a long time now, so yeah that's nice. I personally experience that as support, it's not someone who is chasing your pants. That trust is a great asset.”
(Respondent 9, organisation Y)

As conceptualised in the theoretical framework recognising behaviour includes *“...praise and other forms of recognition to show appreciation to others for effective performance, significant achievements, and important contributions to the team or organization.”* (Yukl, 2012, p.71/72). Some respondents mention they experience these behaviours from their supervisor. It seems to have a similar effect as empowering and developing, namely an energizing effect, while a direct relation with social isolation seems absent. One respondent state that she or he receives appreciation for the specialised tasks that he or she conducts and partly therefore likes her or his job. Another respondent argues that she or he has the impression that the supervisor approaches her or his team members in a positive manner, which is experienced as comforting. In contrast, some team members argue they miss the recognising behaviour of their supervisors.

“Simply that colleagues, team leaders, but also the people I serve in Brussels, really appreciate that you do the work for them and in the end, it saves a lot of money for those companies. If it works out then it is always nice to get a thank you, and they usually send it.” (Respondent 16, organisation Y)

5.4.2 Task-oriented Leadership Behaviours

As mentioned in the theoretical framework task-oriented leadership consists of four core leadership behaviours: clarifying, planning, monitoring and problem solving (Yukl, 2012), that are all taken into the qualitative analysis (see also Figure 6). On the basis of

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the qualitative data can be seen that two task-oriented leadership behaviours, namely: clarifying and problem solving, may have an effect on social isolation and wellbeing. Firstly, clarifying behaviour: “*spelling out roles, duties, and tasks, and spreading the objectives of the organisation*” (Yukl, 2012, p. 71), seems to *prevent* public servants from feeling socially isolated. It is mainly the spreading of objectives from the organisation that seem to be of importance. Some supervisors spread information about what the organisation is doing, in which directions it wants to go, and what steps should be taken. Some of their team members perceive this sometimes as redundant, but this implies that they have received at least enough to be informed about what is going on in the organisation. Clarifying thereby contributes to the *maintenance* of the wellbeing of public servants, whereas problems arise when there is an absence of clarifying behaviour. See for example the following quote:

“With us, this only takes place through the informal channels. And very little. As an employee you hear it as last when almost everything has already been completed. It is not that you are informed in advance about upcoming measures or anything. My experience [in organisation Y] is that they have a plan from A to Z. They show A and that is informed to see what the response is. After that you don't hear anything back until you get P, or something, and then you think: does that has to do something with A?” (Respondent 9, organisation Y)

The according to Yukl (2012) often unrecognised task-oriented behaviour is problem-solving: “*dealing with disruptions of normal operations and member behavior that is illegal, destructive, or unsafe*” (p.70). Next to supporting behaviour, problem-solving is actually the most mentioned leadership behaviour by respondents. There is however, not per se a clear boundary between supporting behaviour and problem-solving behaviour. Some respondents argue that supervisors allow the ‘social cases’ to work in the office a couple of days a month, or more in extreme occasions, to resolve the issue of social isolation and maintain the wellbeing of public servants. On the one hand this can be seen as supervisors dealing with stressful situations of public servants, on the other hand this can also be seen as dealing with disruptions of normal operations. Isolated persons are namely not performing in accordance with the expectations of the organisation (Thoits, 1983). The motivation of supervisors to solve the problem is then key: whether it is an act of compassion (truly caring about others) or whether it is to deal with performance issues (e.g., to reach organisational goals) or for safety reasons (e.g., preventing burnouts). An act of compassion fits under supportive behaviour, whereas the latter two fit under problem-solving behaviour. In practice it seems often a combination. Following up some examples:

Seemingly problem-solving behaviour, but at the same time being supportive:

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“At one point I had a conversation with the supervisor and told that I can't concentrate well at home... At a certain point I had the idea that this influenced my work too much, so I started the conversation... they can make exceptions for some employees, so I was also allowed to go to the office one day a week.” (Respondent 29)

“I demanded the organisation to make an exception for a few [public servants], because their home situation made it difficult to work completely from home. But those are exceptions.”
(Respondent FF, organisation Z)

Clearly a combination of supportive and problem-solving behaviour:

“He always asks about that. What can I do for you to keep you happy? I recently applied for an office chair a few months ago. Everything that has to go through him, he makes sure that it happens.” (Respondent 14, organisation Y)

Seemingly supporting behaviour, but still resolving an (potential) organisational issue:

“Well, his alertness when someone is ill or when it's someone's birthday or has a death in the area, he actually responds immediately. So that um he is able to gauge that as well. That something is wrong with someone.” (Respondent J, organisation Z)

All be there no clear boundaries between supporting and problem-solving behaviour, on average respondents talk the most about appreciating supervisors supporting them in dealing with their issues, both personally and work related (which is often also intertwined). Hence, together with supporting behaviour, both directly and indirectly through communication, problem-solving behaviour seem of most value for resolving social isolation and maintaining the wellbeing of public servants working in the online environment.

“With those kinds of people, you simply hire a corporate social worker. She had also lost 20 kilos due to loneliness. At some point they also need help from others. Things like that are happening now. People who feel very lonely...” (Respondent 1)

On the basis of the qualitative data there does not seem to be any relation between the task-oriented behaviours: planning and monitoring, and social isolation and wellbeing. According to multiple respondents neither of the two mentioned leadership behaviours were properly applicable in the homeworking situation. In some cases, monitoring became difficult because of the physical ‘distance’ between supervisors and team members. In other cases, there was an appropriate system for online monitoring, but due to the homeworking situation public servants were left freer. Some had for example home-schooling children, whereas others had issues with social isolation. Again others,

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have such as specialist job that they have a high level of autonomy in the first place, and thus experience barely any control. For most of departments under study, both of organisation Y and Z, setting clear personal goals ('quotas') is also difficult because of the versatility of work. Supervisors mainly "monitor" whether respondents are doing fine, but this fits better under supportive behaviour. Also, the planning if present, is made by public servants themselves or decided by higher supervisors. In some cases, the planning was left completely loose due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Thus, to summarize, most respondents argued that there were zero or very little monitoring and planning behaviours coming from their direct supervisor in the current homeworking situation.

"...it's not really controllable. The only thing is that you must have done so many studies per year, but if you have a study that takes a long time then it is quite legitimate to say that it all took a long time. So, I never felt controlled." (Respondent 29)

6. Conclusion and Discussion

After decades of studies into telecommuting including various telecommuting arrangements, anno 2021 the COVID-19 crisis catalysed the implementation of telecommuting in public organisations. Public servants found themselves caught up in one of the most extreme forms of telecommuting; they are working forced full-time from home for the length of over a year. The immediate shift to full-time telecommuting caused by the pandemic led to a momentum to study leadership, social isolation, and wellbeing in a unique telecommuting context. By using mixed methods this study aimed to answer how relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours do affect the wellbeing of public servants, and how this is mediated by social isolation, in the unique context of telecommuting during the COVID-19 crisis at Dutch public organisations.

Firstly, was answered: how the current telecommuting situation led to social isolation of public servants of organisation Y and organisation Z. In this unique telecommuting context caused by the COVID-19 pandemic most public servants are completely objectively isolated from their organisations. This intensive and obstructive change in the work environment changed the communication between public servants thoroughly. All, or almost all interactions took place through virtual mediums, implying limited quality of communication, that gradually led to a decrease in communication intensity between public servants, of which the informal interactions diminished most rapidly. In turn, this vast change in communication caused by the full-time homeworking situation seemed to be hazardous for the levels of social isolation of public servants, as also indicated by Cooper and Kurland (2002), and others. Bonding between public servants working full-time in the virtual environment seems to be for a large extent absent. This resulted in public servants gradually experiencing social isolation in the time they worked entirely from home. Social isolation is thereby an issue that arises pre-eminently in this extreme form of telecommuting.

Secondly, is answered how social isolation relates to the wellbeing of public servants in the context of telecommuting during COVID-19. Most individuals may not severely suffer from social isolation as they: somehow maintain the relationships with colleagues they created when working in the office, are working, and used to work, autonomously, do have a relatively low social need, or have other social identities to fall back on. For those not surrounded by these mitigating circumstances, a problematic level of social isolation may follow as they are working full-time from home. The distressing effect of social isolation may jeopardise their wellbeing, as also argued by other scholars (e.g., Thoits, 1983; Feldman & Gainey, 1997; Potter, 2003; Golden et al., 2008; Beauregard et al., 2019). In extremis, this intensive form of telecommuting may lead to problematic

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levels of social isolation, that may have severe mental and physical consequences. The abovementioned conclusions support the findings of Virick, DaSilva and Arrington (2010) who showed that the relation between the extent of telecommuting and wellbeing, in their case employee satisfaction, is curvilinear inverted u shaped. This means that public servants experience the highest degree of wellbeing in a moderate extent of telecommuting, and experience lower levels of wellbeing for both a low and high extent of telecommuting.

Thirdly, is answered how relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviours affect the wellbeing of public servants in the context of telecommuting during COVID-19, and how this relation is mediated by social isolation. The quantitative findings and qualitative findings were partially contradictory. The differences in outcomes may partly be caused by different measures used for leadership. In the quantitative phase relation-oriented leadership was measured by servant leadership that included indicators for empowering and developing behaviours, and by compassion of leaders that corresponds with indicators of supportive behaviours. Recognizing behaviour was not quantitatively measured. In the qualitative phase all four relation-oriented leadership behaviours were taken into account separately. For the task-oriented leadership behaviours solely indicators for planning and monitoring behaviours were taken into the quantitative analysis and measured as one latent construct, namely task-oriented leadership. In the qualitative phase task-oriented behaviours were also measured separately and was also accounted for clarifying and problem-solving behaviour. This means that the independent effects of leadership behaviours, except from supportive behaviour, on social isolation and wellbeing were not measured in the quantitative phase. This may have contributed to differences in outcomes between the qualitative and qualitative phase.

From all quantitatively measured leadership behaviours none of the leadership behaviours was significantly related to social isolation. In contrast, did the qualitative data show that supportive behaviour does have a direct effect on social isolation by relation-building, and that social isolation does have an indirect effect by stimulating communication and thereby bonding between public servants. One explanation for the lack of a significant relation in the quantitative phase is that supervisors proactively applied supportive behaviour mainly on the social cases, those with high levels of social isolation, whereby the effect of supportive behaviour on social isolation may have been balanced out. For the same reason, it may be that no significant relation is detected in the quantitative phase between supportive behaviour and wellbeing. All relation-oriented leadership behaviours seem to have an energizing effect on the wellbeing of individuals,

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as also partly endorsed by the quantitative results. Besides, it seemed that the in the quantitative phase unmeasured task-oriented leadership behaviours: clarifying and problem solving, have an effect on the levels of social isolation from public servants. Problem solving namely seems to have a resolving effect, whereas clarifying behaviour has a preventing effect. Monitoring and planning behaviour seem not to have an effect on either social isolation or wellbeing, as both the quantitative and qualitative outcomes indicated.

The findings regarding the effects of leadership behaviour and social isolation and wellbeing of public servants contradict most of the propositions and findings of previous scholars (e.g., Liao, 2017; de Vries et al., 2019). As shown, on the level of leadership styles, as most previous scholars focussed on, there does not seem to be any effect detectable. It does seem however that a proactive style of leadership is more important in the virtual environment as there is more of a burden to overcome for public servant to approach their supervisors. When focussing on leadership behaviours various degrees in applicability and effectiveness could be detected. Although all leadership behaviours seem obscured by the virtual environment, in line with the findings of Madlock (2012), some are more than others. These findings do however highly depend on the context of telecommuting, as also argued by other scholars (e.g., Allen et al., 2015; Kelliher & De Menezes, 2019). In general, could be concluded the intensive telecommuting arrangements during the COVID-19 pandemic are undesirable as social isolation prevails and the wellbeing of public servants is affected, and the leadership potential is limited. Telecommuters should thus not be castaways, but ‘travellers’ between the physical and virtual work environment.

6.1. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study contributed to the literature by delving into the scarcely research topic of leadership, social isolation and wellbeing in a unique telecommuting context created by the COVID-19 pandemic. As expected, social isolation did affect the wellbeing of employees, in line with Arora (2012) and others, whereas also the social isolation theory, and the ‘identity accumulation hypotheses of Thoits (1983) were displayed. The study however contradicted theories and research about leadership in the virtual environment, such as from Illozer et al. (2001), Madlock (2012), Dahlstrom (2013), and Liao (2017). The main advantage of this study was the mixed methods approach that allowed for ‘double checking’ the outcomes of the study. Moreover, the presence and influence of the contextual factors could be described in more detail, that are of influence on the telecommuting outcomes (Allen et al., 2015; Kingma, 2019), and contingencies were

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revealed. For example, was shown that supervisors deliberately choose to whom they apply certain leadership behaviours, in this case the ‘social cases’. For the above-mentioned reasons, it is advisable that studies into telecommuting use a mixed methods approach.

Methodologically, there were mainly two limitations to this study that demand clarification. Firstly, and as mentioned previously, in this study solely parts of relation-oriented and task-oriented behaviours were measured, and these behaviours were mostly not split as such. Besides, burnout was measured only by the dimension cynicism. Further research should measure all dimensions of constructs separately. This will not only increase the validity and reliability of the study but will also make the results more informative. For example, as shown in this study, the different leadership behaviours that fit under the same leadership umbrella may have different impacts on public servants. In case of a study into leadership and social isolation, it is of particular importance to measure supportive behaviour, clarifying and problem-solving behaviours (separately).

Secondly, in this study was focussed on public servants from organisation Y and organisation Z. Although combining cases may be problematic (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2008) – at least if it is no comparative case study – it seemed that there were minor differences between those organisations of importance for these particular topics under study. They have for example a similar organisational structure, have similar team sizes, have both an open-office, and have comparable ICT systems at their disposal. The variations within leadership behaviours, social isolation and wellbeing, and the relations between those constructs were also relatively small. It is likely that the findings from this study are generalizable to similar public organisations. Hence, if findings are also generalizable to other more diverse public organisations, and private organisations, is certainly possible, but for now unknown due to the context dependency of telecommuting outcomes, and the scarce number of comparable studies into leadership, social isolation, and wellbeing during COVID-19. Further research should determine whether ‘the social isolation theory for castaways’, and leadership effects, will hold up in a different context, and in different types of organisations.

6.2. POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

It is expected by the public servants that participated in this study, and the broader society in general (Haas et al., 2020), that the transformation to telecommuting public organisations did undergo, is not something temporarily, being reversed later, but a transformation to be sustained, at least to some extent. Thereby it is of importance that

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leaders, supervisors, and policymakers use the knowledge generated by this study. On the basis of the findings two specific policy recommendations could be provided:

1. Social isolation seems mostly an issue of full-time homeworking. Individuals who can work at least some days at the office seem to maintain their social identity, and thus feel not socially isolated. Thereby social isolation may also not be an issue for the wellbeing of public servants. Hence, it is of importance that public servants can at least work some days a week at the office. To maintain their social identity, feeling of belonging and guidance, it is of importance that in these 'office days' the bulk of the team is present. Public organisations should invest resources to appropriately adjust their organisation to this new type of working.
2. To mitigate potential issues with social isolation, and wellbeing subsequently, it is essential that it becomes a primary task of supervisors to proactively connect their team members to the organisation. Thereby, it is required that (most) of the supervisors change their style of being reactive ('approachable') to being proactive ('approaching'). Supervisors should have the priority to actively support public servants, and stimulate mutual interactions, clarify what is going on in the organisation and what is expected of them, and by solving problems that harm them and the organisation. Some attention should also be paid to the development, empowerment, and recognition of public servants, as those directly contribute to their wellbeing. When 'working with a distance', minor attention should be paid to planning and monitoring, as those seem particularly difficult to execute and ineffective in increasing the wellbeing of public servants.

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Appendix I: Subset Original Questionnaire (Dutch)

Servant Leadership

Kunt u aangeven in hoeverre u het eens bent met de volgende stellingen? Mijn directe leidinggevende...

1. stimuleert mij om mijn talenten te gebruiken.
2. helpt mij om mijzelf verder te ontwikkelen.
3. geeft mij de ruimte om beslissingen te nemen die het werk eenvoudiger maken.
4. helpt mij om zelf tot de oplossing te komen, in plaats van mij te vertellen wat ik moet doen.
5. biedt mij volop mogelijkheden om nieuwe vaardigheden te leren.

Compassion

Lees elke stelling zorgvuldig door en geef aan hoe vaak uw leidinggevende op de beschreven manier handelt. Mijn direct leidinggevende...

1. ...komt met nuttige manieren om met mijn zorgen om te gaan.
2. ...richt zijn/haar aandacht op wat voor mij helpt.
3. ...onderneemt acties die mij helpen.
4. ...uit gevoelens van steun, behulpzaamheid en aanmoediging naar mij.

Task-oriented leadership

Kunt u aangeven in hoeverre u het eens bent met de volgende stellingen? Mijn direct leidinggevende...

1. maakt afspraken met mij over wat ik moet doen om beloond te worden.
2. let op mijn prestaties en kijkt of vergissingen hersteld moeten worden.
3. erkent mijn prestaties.
4. beoordeelt mij op basis van mijn resultaten.
5. is alert op fouten die niet passen bij de procedures van de organisatie.

Social Isolation

Kunt u aangeven hoe vaak u de afgelopen maand het volgende heeft ervaren?

1. Ik mis het informele contact met mijn collega's
2. Ik mis de emotionele steun van mijn collega's
3. Ik voel mij geïsoleerd
4. Ik ben minder op de hoogte van wat er speelt op het werk

Engagement

Lees elke stelling zorgvuldig door en geef aan of u zich wel eens zo voelt over uw werk.

CASTAWAYS

1. Tijdens mijn werk bruis ik van energie.
2. Als ik werk voel ik mij fit en sterk.
3. Ik ben enthousiast over mijn baan.
4. Mijn werk inspireert me.
5. Als ik s' morgens opsta heb ik zin om aan het werk te gaan.
6. Wanneer ik heel intensief aan het werk ben, voel ik mij gelukkig.
7. Ik ben trots op het werk dat ik doe.
8. Ik ga helemaal op in mijn werk.
9. Mijn werk brengt mij in vervoering.

Burnout

Lees elke stelling zorgvuldig door en geef aan of u zich wel eens zo voelt over uw werk.

1. Ik twijfel aan het nut van mijn werk.
2. Ik merk dat ik te veel afstand heb gekregen van mijn werk.
3. Ik ben niet meer zo enthousiast als vroeger over mijn werk.
4. Ik wil gewoon mijn werk doen en verder niet worden lastiggevallen.
5. Ik ben cynisch geworden over de effecten van mijn werk.

Communication intensity

Kunt u aangeven hoe vaak gemiddeld genomen contact heeft gehad in de afgelopen maand? Hoe vaak heeft u contact met...

1. uw collega's via videochat (bijvoorbeeld via Webex, of andere programma's)?
2. uw collega's via de e-mail?
3. uw collega's via de telefoon?

Autonomy

Kunt u aangeven wat u werk karakteriseert?

1. Mijn baan biedt mij de kans mijn eigen initiatief en oordeel te volgen in hoe ik mijn werk uitvoer.
2. In mijn baan kan ik veel beslissingen zelf nemen.
3. Mijn baan biedt mij in belangrijke mate zelfstandigheid om beslissingen te nemen.
4. In mijn baan kan ik zelf beslissen op welke tijden ik werk.

Work pressure

Kunt u aangeven in hoeverre de volgende stellingen op u van toepassing zijn?

1. Vereist uw baan dat u snel werkt?
2. Vereist uw baan dat u erg hard werkt?

CASTAWAYS

3. Heeft u het gevoel dat uw baan te veel input van u vraagt?
4. Heeft u genoeg tijd om uw werk af te maken?
5. Stelt uw werk vaak conflicterende eisen aan u?
6. Heeft u te maken met achterstand in uw werkzaamheden?

Workplace satisfaction

Kunt u aangeven hoe vaak u het eens of oneens bent met de volgende stellingen?

1. Ik ben tevreden met mijn werkplek thuis.

Task dependency

1. In hoeverre kunt u de verschillende taken waaruit uw werk bestaat vanuit huis verrichten?
 - Al mijn werktaken
 - Bijna al mijn werktaken
 - Sommige van mijn werktaken
 - Bijna geen van mijn werktaken
 - Geen van mijn werktaken

Gender

1. Wat is uw geslacht?
 - Vrouw
 - Man
 - Anders

Age level

1. Wat is uw leeftijd?
 - 15-25 jaar
 - 26-40 jaar
 - 41-55 jaar
 - Ouder dan 55 jaar

Educational level

1. Wat is de hoogste opleiding die u heeft afgemaakt?
 - Basisschool
 - Lager voortgezet onderwijs (bijvoorbeeld VMBO, MAVO, ulo, lbo)
 - Voortgezet algemeen onderwijs (bijvoorbeeld HAVO, VWO, HBS)
 - Middelbaar beroepsonderwijs (bijvoorbeeld MBO, Leerlingwezen, WEB-middenkader en specialistenopleiding)
 - Hoger beroepsonderwijs (HBO)

CASTAWAYS

- Academisch onderwijs (bijvoorbeeld universiteit, of postacademisch onderwijs)
- Gepromoveerd aan de universiteit
- Anders, namelijk

Telecommuting frequency

1. Werkte u de afgelopen maand geheel vanuit huis?
 - Ja
 - Nee

Appendix II: Interview Guide Employees Organisation Y (Dutch)

Deel 1: achtergrondkenmerken

1. Kunt u mij kort iets vertellen over uw functie? *Prompts* (alleen gebruiken als de geïnterviewde niet met zijn/haar eigen ideeën komt):
 - Hoe lang bent u werkzaam in deze functie en bij dit team?
 - Hoe lang bent u werkzaam bij de BD (noteer arbeidsduur)
 - Aard werkzaamheden (complexiteit van het werk, veel verschillende taken, routinematig, etc)
 - Uit welke verschillende typen taken bestaat uw werk? (Concentratiewerk, overleg, mate van samenwerken, mate van ICT-gebruik, een combinatie?)
 - Omvang aanstelling (uren per week volgens contract)

Autonomie

2. Hoe ervaart u momenteel de mate van autonomie in uw werk?
 - In hoeverre is uw werk zelfstandig uitvoerbaar?
 - In hoeverre heeft u zelf controle over de planning en de uit te voeren activiteiten?
 - In hoeverre kunt u uw eigen beslissingen nemen?

Deel 2 - Huidige ervaringen met TPAW tijdens de Coronacrisis

3. Werkt u op dit moment volledig vanuit huis?
4. Hoe ervaart u het (volledig) thuiswerken op dit moment? *Prompts* (alleen gebruiken als de geïnterviewde niet met zijn/haar eigen ideeën komt):
 - Hoe tevreden bent u met uw werk op dit moment? (Vraag door over welke aspecten men meer of minder tevreden is)
 - Vindt u uw werkzaamheden geschikt voor thuiswerken? (Waarom/wanneer wel/niet, routinematigheid, gebruik van ICT, etc.)
 - In hoeverre haalt u op dit moment voldoening uit uw werk?
 - Vraag ook hoe de leidinggevende en de organisatie in het algemeen omgaat met eventueel verminderde motivatie?
5. Lukt het u om al uw werkdoelen te behalen? *Waarom wel/niet?*
6. Hoe ervaart u momenteel de ICT ondersteuning?
 - En als u naar eigen ICT vaardigheden kijkt, acht u deze voldoende om op een goede manier te werken in de thuissituatie?
7. Wat betekent het geheel vanuit huis werken voor uw werkplezier?
 - Vraag ook waarom wel of niet. En of het in de loop der tijd is veranderd (t.o.v. werken of kantoor en eerste lockdown)?

CASTAWAYS

- *Zijn er aspecten die uw werkplezier vergroten of verkleinen? (vraag naar voorbeelden)*
- *Vraag ook hoe de leidinggevende en de organisatie in het algemeen omgaat met eventueel verminderd werkplezier?*

Communicatie/ verbinding

8. Hoe ervaart u op dit moment het contact met uw collega's?
 - *Bent u daar tevreden over? Waarom wel/niet?*
 - *Wat zijn de gevolgen van het huidige contact tussen u en uw collega's?*
9. Op welke wijze houdt u op dit moment contact met uw collega's uit uw team?
10. Hoe vaak heeft u contact met collega's?
 - *Over welke onderwerpen/met welke reden heeft u contact? (informeel of formeel contact)*
 - *Heeft uw teamvergaderingen of overleg? Zo ja hoe vaak?*
11. Welke communicatiemiddelen gebruikt u op dit moment voor uw werk?
 - *Wat bevat wel/niet, waarom wel/niet?*
 - *Op welke manieren heeft u met name contact? (E-mail, telefoon, videobellen, Webex, anders)*
12. hoe ervaart u de verbondenheid met uw collega's? (voldoende/onvoldoende, prettig, fijn?)
 - *heeft u naar uw idee voldoende contact met uw collega's?*
 - *Komt het wel eens voor dat u gedurende werkdag geen contact heeft?*
 - *Hoe tevreden bent u met de mate van contact, de aard? (diepgaand genoeg)*
13. Ervaart u waardering of zorgzaamheid vanuit uw leidinggevende of collega's?
14. Hoe is het sociale contact binnen uw team? *Prompts* (alleen gebruiken als de geïnterviewde niet met zijn/haar eigen ideeën komt:
 - *Kunt u de relatie die u met uw collega's uit het team heeft omschrijven?*
 - *Spreekt u of ziet u uw collega's wel eens buiten het werk op dit moment?*

Samenwerking

15. Hoe verloopt op dit moment de samenwerking met uw collega's binnen uw team?
 - *Neemt u wel eens taken over van collega's om hem of haar te helpen?*
 - *Werkt u veel samen met bepaalde collega's binnen of buiten uw team?*
 - *In hoeverre werkt u samen met collega's om teamdoelen te behalen?*
 - *In hoeverre heeft u uw collega's nodig om uw werk gedaan te krijgen?*
16. Hoe is op dit moment de samenwerking met andere teams (met welke teams wordt samengewerkt, informatie gedeeld en hoe gaat dit)?
 - *Bent u op de hoogte wat er in andere teams gebeurt?*

Deel 3 – Leiderschap

17. Hoe gaat uw leidinggevende om met de huidige situatie? *Prompts (alleen gebruiken als de geïnterviewde niet met zijn/haar eigen ideeën komt):*
- *Op welke wijze stuurt hij/zij het team op dit moment aan? Kunt u een voorbeeld geven? Is dit hetzelfde als vroeger, voor de lockdown, en in het begin van de lockdown? Bij veranderingen, vraag naar voorbeeld.*
 - *Besteed uw leidinggevende aandacht aan het sociaal contact binnen uw team? Zo ja, op welke wijze, kunt u een voorbeeld geven? (vraag ook naar het bevorderen van samenwerking).*
 - *In hoeverre heeft uw leidinggevende zich ontwikkeld in de manier waarop zij of hij leidinggeeft aan u (in de thuiswerksituatie)?*
18. Hoe vaak heeft u persoonlijk contact met uw leidinggevende?
- *(vraag naar frequentie, wijze van contact (bellen, videomeeting, mail), inhoud van contact (werk gerelateerd of sociaal), en in hoeverre dit contact persoonlijk (individueel) is of met het team als geheel)*
 - *Hoe zou u uw relatie met de leidinggevende omschrijven (en wat vindt u hiervan? Vraag ook naar voorbeelden).*
19. Hoe draagt de leidinggevende bij aan uw tevredenheid als werknemer?
20. Op welke manieren probeert de leidinggevende u op de hoogte te houden van wat er speelt in de organisatie? Hoe ervaart u dit? (positief/negatief voor tevredenheid, waarom?, vraag ook naar voorbeelden).
- *Zijn er wat dit betreft verschillen met de pre-corona situatie? En zo ja waarom?*
 - *Heeft u individuele resultaatafspraken met uw leidinggevende. Zo ja, hoe en op welk niveau (individueel, op teamniveau, unitniveau), zo nee waarom niet. Verschilt dit met voor de Coronacrisis? Worden deze afspraken geëvalueerd en zo ja, hoe?*
21. Zijn er andere manieren waarop de leidinggevende het maximale uit probeert te halen? (vraag ook naar voor- en nadelen).
- *Besteedt zij/hij aandacht aan de ontwikkeling van werknemers?*
 - *In welke mate kunt u zelfstandig beslissingen nemen?*
22. Hoe ervaart u de steun vanuit uw leidinggevende voor het werken op afstand tijdens het geheel vanuit huis werken?
- *Als er steun wordt ervaren: welke vorm van steun ervaart u? (vraag naar voorbeelden)*
 - *Als er steun wordt gemist: wat zou u willen? (vraag naar een voorbeeld)*
23. Hoe ervaart u de hulp van uw leidinggevende tijdens het volledig thuiswerken?
24. Geeft uw leidinggevend adviezen/tips omtrent volledig thuiswerken?

Deel 4 – Werkplezier en werk-privébalans

25. Wat is de samenstelling van uw huishouden?
- *Indien partner, verricht uw partner betaald werk? En zo ja voor hoeveel uur per week en werkt hij/zij van uit huis?*
 - *Leeftijd kinderen?*
26. Hoe ervaart u op dit moment uw werk-privé balans? *Hoe tevreden bent u over uw huidige werk-privé balans?*
27. Wat betekent het geheel vanuit huis werken voor de grenzen tussen werk en uw privéleven?
28. Kunt u beschrijven hoe uw werkdag er gisteren uitzag? (*Dagindeling, start/eindtijden, pauzes, activiteiten tussendoor?*)
- *Welke werktijden houdt u aan? (Hanteert u vaste werktijden of varieert u per werkdag?)*
 - *Hoe kijkt u aan tegen digitale bereikbaarheid voor het werk?*
 - *Wanneer kijkt u wel en wanneer kijkt u niet naar uw werkmail?*
 - *Heeft u een aparte werkplek in huis? Sinds wanneer heeft u die en waarom heeft u daarvoor gekozen?*
 - *In hoeverre verricht u huishoudelijke taken gedurende werkdag? Zo ja, wat doet u zoal? Zo nee, waarom niet?*
29. Hoe ziet de ideale situatie er voor u uit met betrekking tot de grenzen tussen werk en privéleven?
- *Waar geeft u de voorkeur aan, het strikt gescheiden houden van werk en privéleven of een situatie waar werk en privéleven meer door elkaar lopen en elkaar afwisselen (ook wel integratie genoemd)?*
30. Hoe ziet op dit moment uw sociaal leven eruit? (*wat doet u in uw vrije tijd, hoe is het contact met vrienden/familie? Wat doet u om te ontspannen?*)

Deel 5: Afsluiting

31. Als u kijkt naar de toekomst, hoe zou u uw werk willen inrichten met betrekking tot de plaats waar u werkt?
- *Hoe zou u gebruik willen maken van thuiswerken als we weer naar kantoor mogen?*
 - *Zijn er taken, onderdelen van uw werk die u graag op kantoor zou willen uitvoeren?*
 - *Zijn er werktaken die u bij voorkeur thuis of elders zou willen doen?*

CASTAWAYS

- *Indien niet genoemd: hoe kijkt u aan tegen het digitaal vergaderen? (wanneer wel/niet en waarom)*
- *Hoe zou u gebruik willen maken van het elders werken, op een andere plaats dan thuis op kantoor?*

32. Heeft u zelf nog aanvullingen die in het interview niet ter sprake zijn gekomen?

Appendix III: Interview Guide Supervisors Organisation Y (Dutch)

Deel 1 – Achtergrondkenmerken

1. Kunt u mij kort iets vertellen over uw functie? *Prompts (alleen gebruiken als de geïnterviewde niet met zijn/haar eigen ideeën komt):*
 - *Hoe lang al werkzaam in deze functie en bij dit team*
 - *Hoe lang werkzaam bij [organisation Y] (loopbaan) noteer arbeidsduur*
 - *Omvang aanstelling (uren per week volgens contract)*

Het team

2. Kunt u mij kort iets vertellen over uw team?
 - *Omvang en samenstelling team (leeftijd, sekse) Indien de respondent voor de tweede keer meedoet dan vragen of er nog veranderingen hebben plaatsgevonden on de omvang en samenstelling van het team sinds vorig jaar.*
3. *Aard werkzaamheden*
 - *Wat is de aard van de werkzaamheden in uw team? (Concentratiewerk, overleg, complexiteit, mate van samenwerken, mate van ICT gebruik, een combinatie?) Tweede interview, vat dan de werkzaamheden samen op basis van het eerdere interview en check of deze samenvatting correct is.*
4. *Hebben er hier veranderingen opgetreden in vergelijking met voorgaande interview?*

Deel 2 – Ervaringen met TPAW op dit moment

5. *Werken u en uw medewerkers op dit moment volledig vanuit huis? Hoe gaat dit?*
 - *Wat gaat goed of minder goed? Vraag naar voorbeelden*
 - *Hoe is het naar uw idee gesteld met hun werkplezier?*
 - *Vraag hoe zij/hij omgaat met eventuele problemen indien genoemd (bijv. isolatie)?*

Individuele ervaringen

6. *Wat zijn uw persoonlijke ervaringen met het volledig thuiswerken?*
 - *Wat betekent het thuiswerken voor uw rol als leidinggevende?*
 - *Zijn er specifieke uitdagingen waar u als leidinggevende tegenaan loopt?*
 - *Zijn er 'best-practices'?*
7. *Hoe tevreden bent u met uw werk op dit moment? (Vraag door over welke aspecten men meer of minder tevreden is)*
 - *Vindt u uw werkzaamheden geschikt voor thuiswerken? (Waarom/wanneer wel/niet)*
 - *In hoeverre haalt u op dit moment voldoening uit uw werk?*

CASTAWAYS

8. Lukt het u om al uw werkdoelen te behalen? *Waarom wel/niet?*
 - *Vraag ook naar zijn 'eigen doelen' als leidinggevende.*
9. Wat betekent het geheel vanuit huis werken voor uw werkplezier?
 - *Vraag ook waarom wel of niet. En of het in de loop der tijd is veranderd (t.o.v. werken of kantoor en eerste lockdown)?*
 - *Zijn er aspecten die uw werkplezier vergroten of verkleinen? (vraag naar voorbeelden)*

Deel 3 – Leiderschap

10. Hoe organiseert u op dit moment het werk binnen uw team? -> rollen
11. Hoe stuurt u op dit moment uw medewerkers aan? Vraag eventueel hoe zij/hij zichzelf als leidinggevende zal omschrijven.
 - *Is dit het zelfde als vroeger, in de 'pre-corona situatie', en in het begin van de lockdown? Bij veranderingen, vraag naar voorbeelden.*
 - *Besteed uw als leidinggevende aandacht aan het sociaal contact binnen uw team? Zo ja, op welke wijze, kunt u een voorbeeld geven? (vraag ook naar het bevorderen van samenwerking).*
 - *Hoe verdeelt u uw aandacht onder de werknemers in uw team? En waarom?*
12. Maakt u op dit moment individuele resultaatafspraken met uw medewerkers? *Zo ja, hoe en op welk niveau (individueel, op teamniveau, unitniveau), zo nee waarom niet.*
 - *Verschilt dit met voor de Coronacrisis? Worden deze afspraken geëvalueerd en zo ja, hoe?*
 - *Heeft u resultaatafspraken met medewerkers bijgesteld vanwege het langdurig thuiswerken? Waarom wel/niet?*
 - *Op welke manieren controleert en/corrigeert u hen?*
 - *Zijn er andere manieren waarop u als leidinggevende werknemers op de hoogte houdt wat er van hen verwacht wordt?*
13. Zijn er andere manieren waarop u als leidinggevende het maximale uit uw team probeert te halen? (vraag ook naar voor- en nadelen).
 - *Besteedt u aandacht aan de ontwikkeling van werknemers?*
 - *In welke mate kunnen werknemers zelfstanding beslissingen nemen?*
14. Op welke manieren probeert u als leidinggevende werknemers op de hoogte te houden van wat er speelt in de organisatie? Vraag naar voorbeelden en waarom hij/zij dat doet. Waarom is dit belangrijk?
 - *Zijn er wat dit betreft verschillen met de pre-corona situatie? En zo ja waarom?*
 - *Zijn er andere manieren waarop u als leidinggevende contact legt met uw medewerkers?*

CASTAWAYS

15. Hoe steunt u werknemers voor het werken op afstand tijdens het geheel vanuit huis werken? Vraag waarom hij of zij dat doet, naar vormen van steun (en voorbeelden), en wat er eventueel mist.
- *Vraag welke acties zij/hij onderneemt om werknemers te helpen die meer moeite hebben met de thuiswerksituatie?*
 - *Geeft uw als leidinggevendenden adviezen/tips omtrent volledig thuiswerken?*
16. Hoe ervaart u de steun vanuit de organisatie voor het werken op afstand tijdens de tweede lockdown?
- *Geeft de organisatie adviezen/tips omtrent volledig thuiswerken?*
17. Bent u op dit moment tevreden met de prestaties van uw team? (*waarom wel/niet, zijn er verbeterpunten*) *Tevreden over de kwaliteit van het werk, over de productiviteit, dat het werk op tijd af is, tevreden met de snelheid waarop het werk gedaan wordt, over de mate van innovatie (verbeteringen, vernieuwingen) en initiatieven om het werk te verbeteren.*
- *Heeft u de teamdoelen bijgesteld vanwege het langdurig thuiswerken? Vraag ook waarom wel/niet?*
 - *Hoe tracht u als leidinggevende in de thuissituatie ervoor te zorgen dat het team naar wens presteert/ de doelen worden behaald?*

Communicatie

18. Op welke wijze houdt u op dit moment contact met uw medewerkers?
- *Frequentie van teamvergaderingen, contact met individuele medewerkers?*
 - *Via welke communicatiemiddelen doet u dat? Wat heeft uw voorkeur?*
19. Hoe ervaart u op dit moment het contact tussen u en uw teamleden?
- *Bent u daar tevreden over? Waarom wel/niet?*
 - *Wat zijn de gevolgen van het huidige contact tussen teamleden?*
20. hoe ervaart u de verbondenheid met uw collega's? (voldoende/onvoldoende, prettig, fijn?)
- *heeft u naar uw idee voldoende contact met uw collega's?*
 - *Komt het wel eens voor dat u gedurende werkdag geen contact heeft?*
 - *Hoe tevreden bent u met de mate van contact, de aard? (diepgaand genoeg) Vraag voornamelijk naar verschillen met het werken op kantoor. Vraag ook weer wat de gevolgen zijn.*

Deel 4 – Team

21. Hoe is op dit moment het sociale contact tussen de medewerkers binnen uw team?
- *Frequent? Intensief?*
 - *Bent u daar tevreden over?*
 - *Onderneemt u activiteiten om het contact tussen medewerkers onderling te vergroten?*

CASTAWAYS

22. Hoe verloopt op dit moment de samenwerking binnen het team? *Wat gaat goed, wat gaat minder goed? Bent u daar tevreden over? Waarom wel/niet?*
23. In hoeverre hebben medewerkers elkaar nodig om het werk gedaan te krijgen? *(wederzijdse afhankelijkheid van anderen om het eigen werk af te krijgen, of wordt er meer zelfstandig en individueel gewerkt?)*
24. In hoeverre werken uw medewerkers samen om doelen te behalen?
25. Hoe is op dit moment de samenwerking met andere teams *(met welke teams wordt samengewerkt, hoe gaat dit, verschillen tussen voor en tijdens de crisis)?*
26. Hoe verloopt de informatie-uitwisseling met andere teams in de organisatie?

Deel 5 – Werk-privébalans

27. Wat is de samenstelling van uw huishouden?
 - *Indien partner, verricht uw partner betaald werk? En zo ja voor hoeveel uur per week en werkt hij/zij van uit huis?*
 - *Leeftijd kinderen?*
28. Wat betekent voor u een goede werk-privé balans?
29. Hoe ervaart u op dit moment uw werk-privé balans? *Hoe tevreden bent u over uw huidige werk-privé balans?*
30. Wat betekent het geheel vanuit huis werken voor de grenzen tussen werk en uw privéleven?
31. Kunt u beschrijven hoe uw werkdag er gisteren uitzag? *(Dagindeling, start/eindtijden, pauzes, activiteiten tussendoor?)*
 - *Welke werktijden houdt u aan? (Hanteert u vaste werktijden of varieert u per werkdag?)*
 - *Hoe kijkt u aan tegen digitale bereikbaarheid voor het werk?*
 - *Wanneer kijkt u wel en wanneer kijkt u niet naar uw werkmail?*
 - *Heeft u een aparte werkplek in huis? Sinds wanneer heeft u die en waarom heeft u daarvoor gekozen?*
 - *In hoeverre verricht u huishoudelijke taken of andere activiteiten (zoals een wandeling) gedurende werkdag? Zo ja, wat doet u zoal? Zo nee, waarom niet?*
32. Waar geeft u de voorkeur aan, het strikt gescheiden houden van werk en privéleven of een situatie waar werk en privéleven meer door elkaar lopen en elkaar afwisselen (ook wel integratie genoemd)? *Vraag door en check of respondenten segmentatie en integratie afwisselen.*
33. Hoe ziet op dit moment uw sociaal leven eruit? *(wat doet u in uw vrije tijd, hoe is het contact met vrienden/familie? Wat doet u om te ontspannen?)*

Deel 6 Afsluiting

34. In de toekomst wil de organisation Y het thuiswerken blijven stimuleren. Als u kijkt naar de toekomst, hoe zou u willen dat uw medewerkers gebruik (blijven) maken van het op afstand werken (thuis en elders)?

- *Wat is voor uw team de ideale mix van thuiswerken en op kantoorwerken?*
- *Zijn er taken, onderdelen van het werk waarvan u vindt dat die beter op kantoor gedaan kunnen worden?*
- *Zijn er werktaken die goed thuis gedaan kunnen blijven worden?*
- *Indien niet genoemd: hoe kijkt u aan tegen het digitaal vergaderen? (wanneer wel/niet en waarom)*
- *Hoe ziet u het gebruik van elders werken in de toekomst, op een andere plaats dan thuis op kantoor?*

35. Heeft u zelf nog aanvullingen die in het interview niet ter sprake zijn gekomen?

Appendix IV: Codebook

Code	Description	Inclusion/Exclusion
<i>Relation-oriented Leadership</i>	Engaging in “ <i>two-way or multiway communications. The behaviours include listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviour</i> ” (Gibson et al., 2002, p. 82).	This code is applied when is talked about the supervisor being a ‘type’ of leader, in this case being a relation-oriented leader or not.
Supporting	“ <i>show positive regard, build cooperative relationships, and help people cope with stressful situations</i> ” (Yukl, 2012, p.71)	This code is solely applied when is talked about supportive behaviour of the supervisor and is thus not applied when is talked about supportive behaviour of colleagues or respondents themselves.
Developing	“ <i>increase the skills and confidence of work-unit members and to facilitate their career advancement</i> ” (Yukl, 2012, p.71)	This code is for example applied when the respondent mention that the supervisor stimulates public servants to follow a course. This code is not applied development is not initiated by supervisors, but for example facilitated by the organisation or initiated by the public servants themselves.
Recognising	“ <i>praise and other forms of recognition to show appreciation to others for effective performance, significant achievements, and important contributions to the team or organization</i> ” (Yukl, 2012, p.71/72)	This code is for example applied when the respondent mentions the supervisor showing gratitude. The code is not applied when appreciation is showed by others (e.g., colleagues or the organisation)
Empowering	“ <i>empower subordinates by giving them more autonomy and influence over decisions about the work</i> ” (Yukl, 2012, p.72)	This code is for example applied when the supervisor allows public servants to make their own planning. This code is not applied when autonomy is grounded in the employee’s job description (then the code autonomy is used), which for example can be the result of someone’s specialisation.

<i>Task-oriented Leadership</i>	Engaging in “ <i>spelling out duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. These behaviours including telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who is to do it</i> ” (Gibson, 2002, p. 81).	This code is applied when is talked about the supervisor being a ‘type’ of leader, in this case being a task-oriented leader or not.
Clarifying	spelling out roles, duties, and tasks, and spreading the objectives of the organisation (Yukl, 2012)	This code is also applied when respondents talk about the supervisor keeping public servants aware of what is going on in the organisation.
Planning	“making decisions about objectives and priorities, organizing work, assigning responsibilities, scheduling activities, and allocating resources among different activities” (Yukl, 2012. p. 70)	This code is for example applied when supervisors plan formal (e.g., meetings) and informal meetings (e.g., pub quiz) for her or his team. This code is not applied when supervisors plan individual meetings.
Monitoring	“assess whether people are carrying out their assigned tasks, the work is progressing as planned, and tasks are being performed adequately” (Yukl, 2012, p.70)	This code is not applied when supervisors monitor how it is going (mentally) with the public servants (in this case the code supporting is applied). When however, the supervisor finds out an employee is not doing mentally well, because he detects that he or she does not perform as expected and digs deeper, the code monitoring and supporting are both applied.
Problem solving	“deal with disruptions of normal operations and member behavior that is illegal, destructive, or unsafe” (Yukl, 2012, p.70)	This code is for example applied when the supervisor finds out that an employee underperforming, either or not because of social isolation, and for that reason tries to seek for a solution (e.g., get permission to let her or him come work at the office).
<i>Social Isolation</i>	“a state of mind, or belief, that one is out of touch with others in the workplace” (Golden et al., p. 1412).	This code is used when respondents talk about feeling isolated without a direct connection to one of the underlying aspects of social isolation (e.g., by stating: “ <i>I am feeling I am on an island</i> ” or: “ <i>I feel lonely when I work from home</i> ”). When a

		direct connection is made with the underlying aspects a subcode is used.
Objective isolation	Being cut-off from the organisation's social network (Vegan & Brennan (2002))	This code is used when respondents state they are missing out on certain interactions (e.g., informal interactions or spontaneous interactions) with colleagues, because they are working from home. This code is not applied when respondents argue the communicate less (in this case the code 'communication intensity' is used).
Social identity	a piece of someone's personality that connect the individual to the broader society (Thoits, 1983)	This code is used when respondents mention whether they feel part of the organisation as a whole (e.g., being an organisation Y employee) and is not applied when is talked about feeling part of the team (this is coded as sense of belonging).
Guidance	The provision of 'ways how to act' by the organisation and public servants.	This code is applied when respondents talk about the guidance that derives from the social identity, maintained by social interactions. For example, some respondents state that because there are not in the office, they miss out on 'accessible interactions' (walking buy someone's desk to ask a question), providing them with the answers they need to conduct their tasks. This code is not applied when is specifically talked about the guidance supervisors provide. In this case a leadership (sub)code is used.
Sense of belonging	<i>"...the experience of personal Involvement in a system or environment so that persons feel themselves to be an integral part of the system of environment. (Hagerty, Lynch-Sauer, Patusky, Bouwsema, & Collier, 1992 p. 173)</i>	This code is applied when respondents mention whether they feel part of their team, and is not applied when is talked about feeling part of the organisation as a whole (this is coded as social identity)
Engagement	<i>"a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption"</i> (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006, p. 702)	This code is solely applied when a fragment demonstrates a respondent being or becoming engaged, without this directly can be linked to one of the subcodes (e.g., by saying: "feeling good").

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Vigour	Feeling energetic, powerful, and bold ('mental resilience').	--
Dedication	<i>"...experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration"</i> (Schaufeli et al., 2006, p.702)	-
Absorption	<i>"...being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly, and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work"</i> (Schaufeli et al., 2006, p. 702)	-
<i>Burnout</i>	A negative, disempowering work-related state of mind that is characterised by, exhaustion, and cynicism, and inefficacy. (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006; Maslach & Leiter, 2006)	This code is solely applied when a fragment demonstrates a respondent may experience burnout, without that this directly can be linked to one of the subcodes (e.g., by saying: "feeling bad").
Exhaustion	<i>"...feelings of being overextended and depleted of one's emotional and physical resources"</i> (Maslach & Leiter, 2006, p. 38).	-
cynicism	<i>"...a negative, callous, or excessively detached response to various job aspects"</i> (Maslach & Leiter, 2006, p. 38)	-
inefficacy	<i>"...feelings of incompetence and a lack of achievement and productivity in work"</i> (Maslach & Leiter, 2006, p. 38).	-
<i>Communication</i>	<i>"...the process by which messages or information is sent from one place or person to another, or the message itself"</i> (Cambridge University Press, 2021).	Principally this code is not applied, but instead one of the subcodes is used. In special instances this code may be applied if some other communication aspects may be of importance.

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Modes of communication	The ways of communicating, and the quality of these ways of communicating.	This code is mainly used when a respondent talks about the content (e.g., formal, or informal) and quality (depth) of online communication, either or not in comparison to ‘offline’ communication. This code is not used when is solely talked about the frequency of contact (in this case the code ‘contact intensity’ is applied), or when is talked about the exclusions of certain types of contacts (in this case the code ‘objective isolation’ is applied).
Communication intensity	The frequency of interactions	This code is only used when a respondent talks about the frequency of communication and is used for various forms of communication. Thereby it is not used when the respondent solely talks about the quality or content of communication (then the code ‘modes of communication’ is applied) or is talked about the exclusion on certain types of interactions (then the code ‘objective isolation’ is applied).
<i>Job Design</i>	The ways in which someone’s job is organized (Oldman & Hackman, 2010).	Principally this code is not applied, but instead one of the subcodes is used. In special instances this code may be applied if some other work characteristics may be of importance.
Autonomy	<i>“Autonomy reflects the extent to which a job allows the freedom, independence, and discretion to make decisions and to choose the method by which job-related tasks should be completed”</i> (Allen et al., 2015, p. 51).	This code is for example applied when respondents talk about the degree of freedom, they have in conducting their tasks. This code is not applied when is specifically talked about the degree to which they depend on others, and this is directly linked to whether they can conduct their tasks in the online environment (in this case the code ‘task dependency’ is applied).
Task dependency	The degree to which public servants can effectively conduct their tasks (the ‘job’) in the online environment.	This code is also applied when tasks that are difficult to conduct in the online environment are substituted by alternative tasks.
Work pressure	<i>“...the general intensity of work (both physical and mental) and time pressures”</i> (Russell,	This code is applied when is talked about the work pressure of the respondent, which can also include an increase or decrease in work pressure since the homeworking situation.

O’Connell, & McGinnity,
2009, p. 74).

<i>Personal characteristics</i>	A typical or noticeable quality of someone (Cambridge University Press, 2021)	Principally this code is not applied, but instead one of the subcodes is used. In special instances this code may be applied if some other personal characteristics may be of importance.
Age level	An age group (mostly referred to as younger and elder public servants, and those who are almost in retiring age).	This code is used when specifically, is talked about age, and not suggestively. It may for example be the case that is specifically talked about job tenure, which may indirectly imply an age level. In these cases, however the code job tenure is used.
Job tenure	The time public servants work within the organisation.	The code job tenure is for example applied when respondents talk about the more ‘experienced’ groups of public servants.
Social need	Someone’s personal need for social interaction.	This code is solely applied when respondents mention their personal need for social contact (also when respondents talk about whether they adjust to the reality of the situation) and is thus not applied when is talked about the need for social contact to conduct tasks properly (then the code ‘task dependency’ is applied), or the need for guidance of others (then the code ‘guidance’ is applied).
<i>Personal context</i>	Individual contextual factors	Principally this code is not applied, but instead one of the subcodes is used. In special instances this code may be applied if some other personal characteristics may be of importance.
Personal social ties	Social contacts besides the contacts at work	This code is for example applied when respondents mention the presence, extent, and quality of interactions with friends and family. This code is not applied for interactions with colleagues who may be friends (than the code bonding is used).
Workplace satisfaction	The overall happiness with the quality of the workplace at home	This code is not applied when is talked about the satisfaction with the satisfaction with the workplace at the office (then the code organisational context is used).

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<i>Organisational context</i>	Organisational contextual factors	Principally this code is not applied, but instead one of the subcodes is used. In special instances this code may be applied if some other organisational characteristics may be of importance.
Adjustment time	The time organisations need to adjust to working in the virtual environment	This code is applied in every case where respondents talk about organisations making or not making – should have made – adjustments since to full-time home working situation, or when is broadly described the way in which organisations adjust.
ICT infrastructure	The ICT infrastructure and systems that organisations use.	This code is for example applied when a fragment includes a comment on whether certain ICT services are made available by the organisation or not. This code is not applied when is solely talked about the quality, content, or frequency of communication, without making a statement about the organisation’s role in this (then a communication sub(code) is used).

Appendix V: Code Tree

- Wellbeing
 - Burnout
 - Exhaustion
 - Cynicism
 - Inefficacy
 - Engagement
 - Vigour
 - Dedication
 - Absorption
- Social Isolation
 - Objective isolation
 - Social Identity
 - Guidance
 - Sense of belonging
- Relation-oriented leadership
 - Supporting
 - Developing
 - Recognising
 - Empowering
- Task-oriented leadership
 - Clarifying
 - Monitoring
 - Planning
 - Problem Solving
- Communication
 - Modes of communication
 - Communication intensity
- Work characteristics
 - Autonomy
 - Task dependency
 - Work pressure
- Personal characteristics
 - Age level
 - Job tenure
 - Social need
- Organisational context

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- Adjustment time
- ICT infrastructure
- Personal context
 - Personal social ties
 - Workplace satisfaction

Specified relations:

- Stimulation (supporting with modes of communication)
- Bonding (modes of communication with social isolation)
- Relationship building (supporting with social isolation)
- Energizing (relation-oriented leadership behaviours with wellbeing)
- Preventing (task-oriented leadership behaviours with wellbeing)
- Distressing (social Isolation with wellbeing)
- Protecting (task-oriented leadership behaviours with social isolation)
- Resolving (task-oriented leadership behaviours with social isolation)
- Exclusion (objective isolation with modes of communication)

Appendix VI: Descriptive Statistics Indicator Level

Table 3 consist of descriptive for the exogenous variables, Table 4 for the endogenous variables, and table 5 for the control variables.

TABLE 3: Descriptive Statistics of Exogenous Variables| N=1638

<i>Variables</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>
SL1	3.500	1.054	5	-0.530	2.828
SL2	3.473	1.061	5	-0.512	2.832
SL3	3.761	0.910	5	-0.773	3.672
SL4	3.650	1.004	5	-0.725	3.292
SL5	3.625	0.995	5	-0.647	3.208
C1	3.667	1.113	5	-0.722	2.922
C2	3.047	1.057	5	-0.132	2.591
C3	3.178	1.053	5	-0.235	2.631
C4	3.473	1.074	5	-0.519	2.760
TL1	2.551	1.142	5	-0.200	2.190
TL2	2.835	1.088	5	-0.066	2.525
TL3	3.725	1.006	5	-0.750	3.285
TL4	3.597	1.007	5	-0.696	3.323
TL5	3.232	0.996	5	-0.381	2.882

Note: SL=Servant Leadership, C=Compassion, TL=Task-oriented Leadership. Numbers represent indicators.

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TABLE 4: Descriptive Statistics of Endogenous Variables| N=1638

<i>Variables</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>
I1	3.672	0.983	5	-0.472	3.013
I2	2.761	1.092	5	0.179	2.470
I3	2.485	1.174	5	0.293	2.357
I4	3.224	1.066	5	-0.181	2.549
E1	4.588	0.990	7	-0.405	4.288
E2	4.644	1.012	7	-0.403	4.164
E3	5.140	1.021	7	-0.342	4.072
E4	4.850	1.080	7	-0.377	3.394
E5	4.799	1.054	7	-0.411	4.194
E6	5.054	1.005	7	-0.445	4.393
E7	5.169	1.104	7	-0.433	3.945
E8	4.713	1.138	7	-0.240	3.653
E9	3.810	1.354	7	-0.118	2.912
B1	2.626	1.216	7	0.396	2.695
B2	2.861	1.364	7	0.287	2.370
B3	2.985	1.492	7	0.325	2.298
B4	3.421	1.543	7	0.096	2.370
B5	2.517	1.412	7	0.497	2.576

*Note: SI=Social Isolation, EE=Employee Engagement, B=Burnout.
Numbers represent indicators*

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TABLE 5: Descriptive Statistics of Control Variables| N=1638

<i>Variables</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>
CI1	4.358	1.39	7	0.086	1.835
CI2	5.893	1.436	7	-1.340	3.878
CI3	5.243	1.557	7	-0.633	2.415
TF	1.139	0.346	2	2.092	5.377
TD	1.703	0.678	5	0.844	4.418
A1	3.070	0.826	5	-1.003	4.425
A2	3.896	0.878	5	-0.777	3.619
A3	3.942	0.840	5	-0.771	3.637
A4	3.995	0.870	5	-0.845	3.992
WP1	2.430	0.613	4	0.661	2.983
WP2	2.463	0.676	4	0.466	2.877
WP3	1.967	0.729	4	0.467	3.100
WP4	2.698	0.758	4	-0.328	2.877
WP5	1.806	0.625	4	0.361	3.293
WP6	2.013	0.703	4	0.709	4.036
WS	3.856	1.144	5	-0.846	2.873
EduLvl	4.921	1.030	8	-0.922	3.361
AgeLvl	3.211	0.771	4	-0.516	2.269
Gender	1.633	0.494	3	-0.504	1.384
Organisation	1.531	0.499	2	-0.125	1.016

Note: CI=Communication Intensity with colleagues, TF= Telecommuting Frequency, TD= Task Dependency, A=level of Autonomy, WP=Work Pressure, WS=Workplace Satisfaction, EduLvl= Educational Level AgeLvl= Age Level. Numbers represent indicators.

Appendix VII: Original Citations (Dutch)

The island

“...je werkt wel bij [organisation Z], maar toch voelt het niet altijd even meer zo. Iedereen zit op een eigen eilandje en dat wordt steeds erger heb ik het idee.” (Respondent A)

*“Normaal zit je natuurlijk met elkaar opgescheept, maar je gaat niet opeens elkaar opzoeken, dat deed je voorheen ook niet, maar toen kwam je elkaar gewoon tegen bij het koffieapparaat...”
(Respondent 1, organisation Y)*

“...in het begin belden we mekaar heel veel, maar goed... je kan niet tien mensen op een dag continu gaan bellen. Dat doe je dus niet meer.” (Respondent A, organisation Z)

“...ik bedoel dan vraag je aan zo'n digitaal scherm ja hoe is het met iedereen nou dan begint een enkeling te praten over zijn zieke kat thuis... Vroeger was het gewoon een leuk gesprekje voorafgaand. Nou dat is nu allemaal wat kunstmatiger.” (Respondent J, organisation Z)

“Grosso modo denk ik dat het contact toch minder is, naja dat weet ik wel zeker. Ze zijn toch allemaal meer met zichzelf bezig. Je kan elkaar opzoeken... maar je collega's zijn niet je vrienden.” (Respondent 1, organisation Y)

“[ik] heb wel contact met mijn collega's, maar het is echt doelgericht... Voorheen kon je er nog een praatje omheen bouwen, want je ziet elkaar eventjes en je merkt wat aan elkaar op, zoals heb je nieuwe schoenen, heb je een nieuwe bril, heb je je haar gedaan... Dat zie je nu niet, want nu is het echt alleen kan je me helpen met zaken.” (Respondent 2, organisation Y)

“Ik heb ook een aantal nieuwe mensen in een team, en die komen er nu zo moeilijk tussen. De mensen die elkaar kennen bellen elkaar, doen een ommetje, hebben een whatsappgroep, maar de nieuwere hebben dat niet.” (Respondent 3, organisation Y)

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“...er [zullen] allemaal onoverkoombare veranderingen aankomen en dat het thuiswerken in intensieve mate bepalend gaat worden voor de manier waarop collega's met elkaar om gaan... Contact zal anders zijn. De intensiteit van de banden zal veranderen, en de verbondenheid, ook die wordt anders ingericht.” (Respondent 6, organisation Y)

“Op een gegeven moment komen de muren wel een beetje op je af. Ik voel me een beetje opgesloten, gevangen. Ondanks dat ik alle faciliteiten thuis heb, daar gaat het ook niet om. Ik mis gewoon een beetje het collegiaal onder ons en de reuring.” (Respondent 14, organisation Y)

“Ik mis gewoon dat contact met mijn medewerkers, en ik merk ook dat ze het nodig hebben voor hun zelf, maar ook voor waar ze mee bezig zijn.” (Respondent 3, organisation Y)

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“Toen bijvoorbeeld dat [schandaal] in het nieuws kwam. In het begin ben je nogal sceptisch want het is jouw werkgever van zou [die afdeling] dat nou echt zo hebben gedaan. Eerst ben je nog heel voorzichtig. Je voelt je wel betrokken bij je werkgever. Je hebt ook een soort verantwoordelijkheidsgevoel dat [je collega’s dat] niet zo leuk hebben gedaan. Je schaamt je er zelfs en beetje voor, lichtelijk. Net zoals soms in het nieuws komt dat [collega’s betrokken waren bij criminele activiteiten]. Dat doet je wel iets eigenlijk...” (Respondent 19, organisation Y)

“Ik wil niet zeggen dat als je op kantoor zit dat je dan een grote familie bent, dat is natuurlijk niet zo, maar je hebt wel iets gemeenschappelijks... door elkaar minder te spreken, wat automatisch gebeurt omdat iedereen thuis zit, verdwijnen dat soort dingen ook op de achtergrond. Iedereen wordt wat gelaten.” (Respondent 1, organisation Y)

“...voor de rest zie je elkaar of hoor je elkaar niet. Ik loop hier een paar keer rond en dan denk je, die persoon ken ik wel ergens van en dan weet je zijn naam al niet eens meer. Dat gebeurt gewoon. Soms heb ik wel eens het gevoel dat ik al met pensioen ben.” (Respondent 17, organisation Y)

“Nou ik denk dat daardoor de band die je had dat die wat stroever wordt. Dat denk ik wel. Waar je voorheen dacht van: dan bel ik die even op, denk je nu ik heb hun al zolang niet gesproken. Eigenlijk bel je dan alleen even op om iets te weten te komen over werk. Ik denk dat het allemaal iedereen wat meer uit elkaar drijft”. (Respondent 6, organisation Y)

“We hebben regelmatig frequent contact. Maar het is niet dat je weet wat er bij een ander speelt. Als je hier iemand zien binnenlopen in de ochtend en je bent op kantoor, dan kan je dat meteen zien. Uiterlijke kenmerken. Fleurige kleren, donkere kleren, haren gedaan, make-up gedaan, gezichtsuitdrukking. Dat heb je niet en dat stukje maakt het dat de verbondenheid weg is.” (Respondent 2, organisation Y)

“Het gebrek aan persoonlijk contact... Het bemoeilijkt ook wel het werken. Voorheen als je even iets wilde vragen stond je op en anderhalve meter verder zat er wel iemand aan wie je een papiertje voor kon leggen en kunnen vragen wat vind je daar nou van. Je kunt iedereen bereiken, maar er zitten altijd wel stappen tussen.” (Respondent 6, organisation Y).

“Als de cursus of les of vergadering is afgelopen, iedereen gaat weg terwijl als je in een lokaal bent, dan kun je nog even wat navragen... Nu druk je op het kruisje en het is weg en je kan niks meer vragen aan diegene waar je misschien nog wel wat aan wilt vragen om het goed te begrijpen. Dat mis je wel.” (Respondent 17, organisation Y)

“Kijk ik kan ze wel bijbrengen wat ze moeten doen, en welke systemen ze moeten gebruiken, maar wat het is om bij [organisation Y] te werken, leer je in het informele contact, naar het kijken hoe iemand het doet, luisteren hoe iemand het doet, het bijwonen van gesprekken van

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andere mensen, en dat zijn allemaal dingen die je moet doen om [medewerker] bij [organisation Y] te zijn. Al die momenten missen zij gewoon.” (Respondent 3, organisation Y)

“Volgens mij hebben ook mensen die nieuw komen in de organisatie het verschrikkelijk moeilijk, want je kunt helemaal geen relatie opbouwen, geen band opbouwen. Je kunt geen rondje gaan lopen of samen gaan lunchen. Het is allemaal op een scherpje...” (Respondent J, organisation Z)

“Nu moet je thuiswerken en is dat wel een shock voor sommige mensen. Sommigen raken best wel in een isolement. Ik kan op zich me weg wel vinden. Denk dat het aan de persoon ligt.”
(Respondent 24, organisation Y)

“...een jonge vrouw die alleen woont. Voor zo’n iemand is het extra zwaar, want die had op kantoor haar sociale omgeving, daar ontmoette ze mensen, maar thuis altijd alleen. Nu zit ze thuis de hele dag, en ontmoet ze ook geen mensen, dus die ervaart het heel snel tekortkomend contact.” (Respondent 12, organisation Y).

Flourishing or Suffering

“Dat je naar zo’n beeld zit te staren, en als je met heel veel mensen erin zit, zie je iedereen bewegen, en het gebeurt toch dat mensen door elkaar heen gaan praten, terwijl als je fysiek bij elkaar bent kan je fysiek met iemand praten.” (Respondent 10, organisation Y)

“Door de bank genomen redelijk. Een enkeling gedijt er echt bij, maar er zijn er ook een paar die het zwaar hebben.” (Respondent 3, organisation Y)

“Het grootste deel zegt, ja het gaat wel prima, maar ik mis de sociale interactie... Zij hebben af en toe weken dat het echt lekker gaat, lekker veel werk verzet in de week, en die week daaropvolgend lukt het allemaal niet...” (Respondent 11, organisation Y)

“Nou gewoon dat je soms wel eens een dag of twee drie niks hoort. Dan denk ik wel eens waar ben ik nou eigenlijk mee bezig. Dat is niet de hele tijd zo hoor, dat zijn van die momenten van dan zit je hier en dan heb je vandaag van niemand iets gehoord en dan denk ik waarvoor doe ik het eigenlijk.” (Respondent, 17, organisation Y)

“De sleur, en de drive ging weg bij mij. Je mist je sparringpartners, de interactie met je collega’s... Als je alleen maar thuis bent, en zit achter je laptopje word je een beetje murw. Mijn concentratieboog ging naar beneden, en ik raakte zo los van mijn werk.” (Respondent 14, organisation Y)

“Voor de crisis vond ik het allemaal wel prima maar inmiddels ben ik wel wat onrustiger geworden omdat als je vijf dagen in de week thuis moet werken het toch niet helemaal leuk is.”
(Respondent 2, organisation Y)

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“Die had ook een hoge bloeddruk, een jonge gast van 35, en die moet onder behandeling bij de dokter.” (Respondent 12, organisation Y)

“Ik heb er dus eentje die is echt overspannen, eentje is net terug na een break van 5 maanden, en één zit er nu tegenaan.” (Respondent 3, organisation Y)

A Captain

“Dus als leidinggevende... moet je je personeelsgesprekken online doen en dus ook als je iemand een negatieve beoordeling geeft moet je nu online doen. Maar dat, je mist gewoon heel veel non-verbale communicatie en heel veel echt contact of mensen die ziek zijn. Die ik nu alleen maar online spreek. Wat dus helemaal niet goed werkt, je krijgt toch niet hetzelfde contact”
(Respondent FF, organisation Z)

“Het klinkt heel lullig maar ik weet niet of hij een specifieke aanpak heeft. Het is niet alsof hij meer contact opneemt. Het is meer adhoc dat als wij wat willen, dan nemen wij contact op en neemt hij dat mee. Het is niet dat hij regelmatig contact op neemt om te vragen hoe het nu gaat.”
(Respondent 10, organisation Y)

“In eerste instantie moet je er wel even naar vissen, dus die geven het niet meteen aan van het gaat niet goed met me. Ik vraag er wel continu naar, en op een bepaald moment voelen ze zich wel vertrouwd om het met mij te delen, want er zijn ook mensen die lopen daar niet mee te koop dat ze het zwaar hebben. Daar moest ik dus best wel even voor werken om die probleem gevallen boven tafel te krijgen.” (Respondent 12, organisation Y)

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“Maar er zijn sommige die echt alleen zijn, en die best wel in een isolement geraken, dan merk je ook wel dat die betrokken is, dat hoor je ook in overleggen. Daar worden ze dan niet met naam en toenaam benoemt, maar je hoort wel verhalen. Dan komt die wel met ideeën van zoek elkaar op. Ga desnoods bij elkaar op visite, dat je toch even een post met elkaar overlegt of even een bakkie dringt.” (Respondent 24, organisation Y)

“Ik stuur ook mijn herdershonden [trouwe collega's] erop af. Ik ben een beetje beperkt wat ik mag zeggen over individuen, maar ik probeer wel met wat mensen die wat ervarener zijn, die langer meelopen in het team, van bel die even op, ga een wandelingetje maken, vraag hoe het met hem gaat.” (Respondent 3, organisation Y)

“Bij mijn teamleider merk ik wel dat hij rekening houdt met het coronagebeuren, dat hij soms ook wel makkelijk is met het naar kantoor laten komen. Hij is wat dat betreft wat makkelijker daarin. Hij voelt wel met ons mee, en hij kan dingen ook wel begrijpen.” (Respondent 28, organisation Y).

CASTAWAYS

“Hij geeft mij daar de ruimte en de mogelijkheden om die [twee functies] zo goed mogelijk te kunnen vervullen. Als hij dat niet had gedaan was het voor mij een stuk moeilijker om dit te kunnen doen. Door zijn steun en zijn back up heb ik het gevoel dat ik dit zo goed mogelijk kan uitvoeren.” (Respondent 2, organisation Y)

“We hebben heel veel vrijheid om ons werk te verrichten en vertrouwen. Ik ervaar ook wel vertrouwen van mijn teamleider in mij. Die kent mij nu ook al lang dus ja dat is wel fijn. Dat ervaar ik zelf als steun van oké, het is niet iemand die achter je broek aan zit. Dat vertrouwen is een groot goed.” (Respondent 9, organisation Y)

“Gewoon dat collega’s, teamleiders maar ook de mensen waar ik het doorgeefluik ben voor Brussel, het heel erg waarderen dat jij het werk voor hen doet en uiteindelijk voor die bedrijven scheelt het een hoop geld. Als het dan lukt is het altijd prettig om een bedankje te krijgen en dat sturen ze ook meestal wel.” (Respondent 16, organisation Y)

“...het is niet echt controleerbaar. Het enige is wel dat je per jaar zoveel onderzoeken moet hebben gedaan, maar als jij een onderzoek hebt dat lang duurt dan is het best wel legitiem om te zeggen dat het allemaal lang duurde. Ik heb me dus nooit gecontroleerd gevoeld.” (Respondent 29)

“Bij ons loopt dat alleen via de informele kanalen. En heel weinig, als medewerker hoor je het als laatste, als bijna alles al is afgerond. Het is niet dat je van tevoren wordt ingelicht over aanstaande maatregelen of wat dan ook. Binnen [organisation Y] is mijn ervaring dan ze hebben een plan van A tot Z. A laten ze zien en dat wordt geïnformeerd om te kijken wat de reactie is. Daarna hoor je niks meer terug tot je P ofzo krijgt en dan denk je huh heeft dat iets met A te maken.” (Respondent 9, organisation Y)

“Ik heb op een gegeven moment een gesprek gehad met de leidinggevende en verteld dat ik me thuis niet goed kan concentreren... Op een gegeven moment had ik zoiets van dit beïnvloedt mijn werk wel te veel, en dus ben ik het gesprek maar eens aangegaan... voor sommige personeelsleden kunnen zij uitzonderingen maken, en dus mocht ook ik een dag per week naar kantoor.”
(Respondent 29)

“Voor een enkeling heb ik een uitzondering aangevraagd, omdat hun thuissituatie het lastig maakte om helemaal thuis te werken. Maar dat zijn uitzonderingen.” (Respondent FF, organisation Z)

“Daar vraagt hij ook altijd naar. Van wat kan ik voor je doen om jou tevreden te houden. Ik heb onlangs, een paar maanden geleden, een bureaustoel aangevraagd. Alles wat via hem moet gaan, dan zorgt hij ervoor dat dat ook gebeurt.” (Respondent 14, organisation Y)

CASTAWAYS

“Kijk, het werk, we moeten wel dingen doen, dat snap ik, maar dat mensen gemotiveerd raken, dat bereik je door met mensen in gesprek te gaan. Tegen sommige zeg ik: ga maar gewoon een dagje naar kantoor. Dat mag eigenlijk niet, maar als ze daar behoefte aan hebben...”

(Respondent 1, organisation Y)

“Nou zijn alertheid op het moment dat iemand ziek is of als iemand jarig is of een sterfgeval in de omgeving heeft daar reageert hij eigenlijk direct op. Dus dat eh hij is in staat om dat ook te peilen. Van dat er bij iemand iets aan de hand is.” (Respondent J, organisation Z)

“Met dat soort mensen schakel je ook gewoon een bedrijfsmaatschappelijk werker in. Zij was ook 20 kilo afgevallen door eenzaamheid. Op een gegeven moment moet ik ook vanuit een andere hoek begeleiding komen. En dat soort dingen gebeuren nu. Mensen die zich erg eenzaam voelen...” (Respondent 1)