



**Do you prefer logging in?  
The relevance of the experience of telework for wellbeing**

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## Do you prefer logging in?

### The relevance of the experience of telework for wellbeing

#### **Abstract:**

*Purpose:* The swift and unanticipated integration of telework by European companies due to COVID-19 gave rise to distinct features of telework. These attributes underscore the necessity of analysing its impact on employee wellbeing. This paper explores how telework experiences impact wellbeing by influencing work–life balance and job satisfaction. Additionally, it investigates whether employee preferences for telework are a contributing factor.

*Design/methodology/approach:* Based on data provided by the ‘Living, working and COVID-19’ e-survey, structural equation models (SEM) were used to test the hypotheses. Specifically, a multiple mediation approach and path analyses were applied to measure the relationship between the variables under study. The moderating role of preference for telework was also tested.

*Findings:* Key findings support that telework experience has a positive impact on wellbeing, both directly and indirectly, particularly via work–life balance. Although preference for telework strengthens the relationship between telework experience and wellbeing, it does not enhance the predictive power of the mediated model.

*Originality:* COVID-19 as a sudden environmental constraint forced the implementation of telework without proper planning and training. Thus, how employees experience this major change in their working conditions has affected their wellbeing. The present paper contributes to clarifying how the proposed variables relate under such constraints.

*Practical implications:* These results have important implications from an applied perspective. Human capital departments as well as managers should design telework programmes to create a positive experience since this will ensure a positive influence on the perception of work–life balance, job satisfaction and wellbeing.

## 1. Introduction

Telework, remote work or telecommuting can be defined as work performed by through applying information and communication technology (ICT; smartphones, tablets, laptops and desktop computers) away from the employer's premises (Eurofound and International Labour Organization, 2017). The two main features that define telework are the site where the work is performed and the technology through which it is carried out.

Telework originated in the California information industry in the 1970s and 1980s in an attempt to reduce commuting time (Messenger, 2019) and has gradually expanded over the decades to other countries and industries. Therefore, a rapid increase in the implementation of telework was expected related to technological progress (Alexander et al., 2010), environmental reasons (Sardeshmukh et al., 2012) and job flexibility (Felstead et al., 2005). However, that prediction never materialised so that the expansion of telework turned into an unrealised promise (Aguilera et al., 2016). Only with the arrival of the SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) virus in 2020 did telework become a reality.

Even though telework is a complex intervention that requires technology and, more importantly, individual and organisational cultural change (Madsen, 2003; Mayo et al., 2009), almost 40% of the European workforce began to telework fulltime in virtually no time at all because of the pandemic (Eurofound, 2020) in what was called the 'telework boom'. Belzunegui-Eraso et al. (2020) referred to this rapid adoption as a 'massive experiment' of telework in the pandemic, and López-Peláez et al. (2021) underlined the role of COVID-19 as an accelerator of this change.

Figure 1 shows the percentage of employees teleworking from home in July 2020. Belgium (66.4%), Denmark (57.3%) and Italy (53.4%) have been leading the implementation of telework in Europe. In 2019, before the pandemic, only 11% of

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3 European workers regularly worked from home – a percentage that had been quite  
4 constant since 2009 (Eurostat LFS, 2020). After the rise of teleworking during the  
5 pandemic, the number of teleworkers was reduced, although it remains higher than before  
6 the pandemic. In 2021, the percentage of employed individuals who usually or sometimes  
7 work from home was 24.4% (Eurostat LFS, 2022).  
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20 In the pandemic, telework presented specific characteristics. First, it was implemented  
21 without planning so that telework spaces were not adapted, and it was conducted from  
22 home (Belzunegui et al., 2020). Second, as schools were shut down, work–life  
23 interaction was difficult because children were also at home (Domenico et al., 2020; Fana  
24 et al., 2020). Third, companies did not have sufficient technological resources to face the  
25 challenges derived from working remotely (Belzunegui et al., 2020). In many cases, the  
26 employees were the ones who provided the technological media because they appreciated  
27 the opportunity to keep their jobs instead of occupying the unemployment lists  
28 (Abulibdeh, 2020).  
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41 Telework has been studied from various perspectives that emphasise the individual,  
42 organisational or societal standpoints (Greer and Payne, 2014). These studies have also  
43 reported positive and negative findings in relation to employee attitudes. On the bright  
44 side, telework contributes to work–life balance (Fonner and Roloff, 2010); increases job  
45 satisfaction and organisational commitment (Kelliher and Anderson, 2010); improves  
46 performance (Martínez-Sánchez et al., 2007a, 2007b); reduces at a minimum short-term  
47 absenteeism (Possenriede, 2011); attracts and retains talent (Eversole et al., 2012); and  
48 increases wellbeing (de Macêdo, 2020). Other studies have underscored its negative  
49 effects on employees since it decreases work–life balance via blurring boundaries  
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3 between work and non-work time and space (Hammer et al., 2005); reduces job  
4 performance (Beauregard and Henry, 2009) and work engagement (Sardeshmukh et al.,  
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6 2012); and increases stress levels (Mann and Holdsworth, 2003; Raghuram and  
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8 Wiesenfeld, 2004). Meta-analytical and other important studies have shed some light on  
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10 the impact of telework on wellbeing and have found small but beneficial effects on work–  
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12 life interaction, job satisfaction, wellbeing (Butler et al., 2009; Cohen et al., 2007;  
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14 Gajendran and Harrison, 2007; Grant et al., 2013), productivity and organisational  
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16 commitment (Martin and McDonnell, 2012). However, it remains unclear how the rapid  
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18 generalisation of telework without planning and awareness programmes during the  
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20 pandemic affected employee cognitions (i.e., work–life interaction), attitudes (i.e., job  
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22 satisfaction) and states (i.e., wellbeing).  
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29 In this context, the main contribution of this research is to examine the impact of the  
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31 sudden implementation of telework during the pandemic on employee wellbeing, work–  
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33 life interaction and job satisfaction. By analysing the effects of telework, the study sheds  
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35 light on the benefits and drawbacks of this work arrangement and provides insights for  
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37 companies to improve the implementation of telework. The research considers the  
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39 specific characteristics of telework during the pandemic, such as the lack of planning and  
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41 the challenges of work–life interaction due to school closures. By exploring the  
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43 relationship between telework and employee attitudes and cognitions, the study provides  
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45 a comprehensive analysis of the impacts of telework on individuals and organisations.  
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48 The findings could help companies design programmes to enhance telework experiences  
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50 and achieve the benefits of this work arrangement while minimising its negative effects.  
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## 2. Theoretical background

### *2.1 Telework, work–life interaction, job satisfaction and wellbeing: direct relationships*

From a job design perspective and based on the job demands and resources theory (JD-R. Bakker and Demerouti, 2017), telework is a job-contextual condition that changes how and where a job is performed without altering the job content or the employee's role (Neri, 2017).

Job satisfaction is a positive job attitude that is generally studied as an outcome or mediator of a more distal result, such as wellbeing (Rothmann, 2008). Job satisfaction comprises the cognitive evaluation and the affective state associated with the overall work experience and/or with important job dimensions for the employee (Armstrong, 2006). Job attitudes shape employee behaviours both in and outside the organisation. Current definitions of work–life interaction consider it to be the sum of subjective affect, efficacy and involvement as instrumental aspects for experiencing balance between work and non-work domains (Casper et al., 2018, p. 5). If employees can manage the requirements derived from their jobs and lives, then they will perceive a positive work–life interaction.

Wellbeing is generally characterised based on two perspectives. The eudaimonic perspective underscores the degree to which an employee is fully functional at work (Ryan and Deci, 2001), while the hedonic perspective defines it as happiness and life satisfaction (Dagenais-Desmarais and Savoie, 2012). From a general perspective, wellbeing can be defined as the equilibrium between an individual's resources and the challenges he or she has to deal with on a regular basis (Dodge et al., 2012).

For some researchers, telework is a job resource (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2013; Van Steenbergen et al., 2018), that is, an organisational characteristic that is functional in

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3 achieving work goals and managing employee job demands (Bakker and Demerouti,  
4 2017). For others, it operates as a job demand (e.g., Mendonça et al., 2021), that is, a job  
5 characteristic that requires physical and/or mental effort from the employee (Bakker and  
6 Demerouti, 2017). Thus, if employees address telework as a demand (e.g., higher  
7 workload, blurred timetables), especially without the resources to deal with it (e.g.,  
8 insufficient technology, lack of training), their telework experience will be negative, and  
9 this negative effect will be extended to work–life interactions (Carvalho and Chambel,  
10 2014), job satisfaction (Kraut, 1987; Ramsower, 1985) and, ultimately, wellbeing  
11 (Mendonça et al., 2021; Song and Gao, 2020). Conversely, if employees assess telework  
12 as a resource (e.g., sufficient level of control to make decisions about their jobs), their  
13 telework experience will be positive, and this positive effect will extend to work–life  
14 interactions (Allen et al, 2015; Fonner and Roloff, 2010), job satisfaction (Kelliher and  
15 Anderson, 2010) and wellbeing (Adamovic, 2021; Kröll et al., 2017). Thus, the more  
16 positive the experience of telework, the higher the likelihood to assess it as a resource  
17 (Rieth and Hagemann, 2021). Regarding work–life interactions, some prior research has  
18 found that teleworkers’ actual experiences were better than what they had expected them  
19 to be beforehand (Maruyama and Tietze, 2012), as was the case with job satisfaction  
20 (Tahlyan et al., 2022; Vega et al., 2015) and wellbeing (quality of life; Tahlyan et al.,  
21 2022). Inconclusive results have been reported about telework and work–life interaction  
22 (Palumbo, 2020). Telework could facilitate work–life interaction by providing employees  
23 with sufficient flexibility (i.e., resources) to manage both job and life demands and  
24 prevent them from developing into work–life inter-role conflict (Messenger, 2019).  
25 However, when COVID-19 rapidly generalised telework from home, employees needed  
26 to set up and maintain clear boundaries between work and life domains to prevent  
27 negative work–life interactions (Eurofound and the International Labour Office, 2017;  
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Golden et al., 2006). Keeping this clear boundary could have been difficult because employees were new at teleworking and without proper training and awareness. Likewise, as reciprocity theory states (Shore and Coyle-Shapiro, 2003), if employees thought that the company was acting responsibly and ‘making an effort’ to maintain their jobs, they could reciprocate by prolonging work hours without experiencing overwork and loss of work–life balance.

As mentioned, meta-analytic studies have consistently indicated that telework positively relates to job satisfaction (Gajendran and Harrison, 2007). The mechanisms behind this relationship are a sense of autonomy and the absence of unexpected demands, such as interruptions while working, which result in less job-related stress (Fonner and Roloff, 2010). However, as the COVID-19 pandemic ‘imposed’ and generalised telework, it could reduce job satisfaction by increasing uncertainty as to how to be efficient in moving from no telework at all to doing it all the time (Suh and Lee, 2016). Thus, its rapid and unplanned implementation could have affected whether it was assessed as a job demand or a job resource based on employee experiences. Thus, we hypothesised that:

H1: The positive experience of telework during COVID-19 exerts a positive effect on work–life interaction (H1a), job satisfaction (H1b) and wellbeing (H1c).

## **2.2. Indirect relationships between telework and wellbeing via work–life interaction and job satisfaction**

Apart from direct relationships between telework and work–life interaction, job satisfaction and wellbeing, this paper also analyses the mediating role of work–life interaction and job satisfaction in explaining the relationship between telework and wellbeing.



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3 Extant studies have confirmed a mediating role for both variables. Research has  
4 consistently found positive relationships between work–life interaction and wellbeing  
5 (Clark, 2000; Fotiadis et al., 2019). Recent studies have also confirmed its mediational  
6 role in the relationship between telework and wellbeing via work–life boundary violations  
7 (Carvalho et al., 2021).  
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15 Job satisfaction also significantly contributes to wellbeing (Hünefeld et al., 2019;  
16 Lombardo et al., 2018; Scanlan and Hazelton, 2019). However, as far as we know, no  
17 research has yet analysed its moderator role between telework and wellbeing. Some  
18 support for this mediating role can be found in recent research, which confirms that job  
19 satisfaction mediates the relationship between working conditions (e.g., ethical  
20 leadership) and wellbeing (Kaffashpoor and Sadeghian, 2020). In our context, job  
21 satisfaction could be derived from the comparison between negative expectations when  
22 the COVID-19 pandemic imposed telework and the actual experience of working under  
23 this new job condition. Accordingly, we hypothesised that:  
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37 H2: Work–family interaction (H2a) and job satisfaction (H2b) mediate the effect of  
38 the experience of telework on wellbeing.  
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### 42 **2.3. Telework preference**

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45 The paper also analyses to what extent employee preferences for telework influence  
46 wellbeing. Preference for telework shows to what extent employees are inclined to freely  
47 adopt this working condition (Asgari and Jin, 2015). Preferences influence positive  
48 attitudes and exert a motivational effect through activating and directing individual  
49 behaviour, in this case, towards adopting telework. In the current paper, preference  
50 comprises the positive evaluation and affective response towards telework (Credé, 2018).  
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3 Extant research has studied preferences for telework linked to its adoption and has found  
4 that such preferences influence how employees assess it (Bernardino et al., 1993; Peters  
5 et al., 2004). Recent research has found that preference for telework impacts several job  
6 outcomes, such as job satisfaction (Bakaç et al., 2021). However, how preferences could  
7 influence telework experiences and wellbeing require further analysis. The current paper  
8 thus examines the moderating role that preference for telework exerts on the direct  
9 relationship between the experience of telework and, specifically, perceived wellbeing.  
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20 Accordingly, although the pandemic generalised and imposed telework, we think that the  
21 preference for this job condition could have had an impact on the link between the  
22 preference for telework and wellbeing. It could also have influenced both moderators and  
23 the outcome under study. Thus:  
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29 H3. Preference for telework will strengthen the effect of telework experience on  
30 wellbeing (H3).  
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### 39 **3. Methods**

#### 40 **3.1 Data**

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42 The data set used in this empirical analysis came from the Living, working and COVID-  
43 19 e-survey conducted by Eurofound (2020). This study is based on the second round of  
44 the survey from 22 June to 27 July 2020 when the economic and social restrictions related  
45 to the pandemic began to decrease across Member States. This e-survey captures the  
46 impact of the COVID-19 on the way people lived and worked in Europe during that  
47 period.  
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3 Although data are in a merged-data file, which comprises the three rounds, Eurofound  
4 recommends a focus on one round and that the rounds be separately analysed. We decided  
5 to centre this research study on data from the second round, because at that time,  
6 employees would have had around three months of telework experience. The second  
7 round also includes information on all the variables relevant to our research purpose.  
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12 The survey was administered online, using a non-probabilistic sampling methodology.  
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14 Although this non-probabilistic sampling method produces a non-representative sample,  
15 the composition of the data was adjusted using a number of known characteristics of the  
16 European population. To adjust data to the demographic profile of the EU27 as a whole  
17 and to each individual Member State, the sample was weighted based on gender, age,  
18 education and self-defined urbanisation levels. Additionally, those respondents without  
19 access to the Internet were excluded by default. Participation in an online survey also  
20 required digital literacy. It was not possible to correct for the bias introduced by these two  
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### 39 **3.2 Measures**

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41 The proposed input–moderator–output model included the variables discussed in this  
42 subsection and described in [Table 1](#). Variables were recoded and rescaled when necessary  
43 to facilitate the aggregation of items.  
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49 Independent variable:

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52 *Experience of telework.* This dimension captured the personal experience of telework  
53 during the second phase of the pandemic restrictions. It consists of two items measured  
54 by a five-anchor Likert-type scale ( $M= 2.43$ ;  $S.D.= 1.06$ ). Scale reliability is 0.78  
55 (Cronbach's alpha), which is above the recommended 0.70 threshold.  
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3 Dependent variable:  
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6 *Wellbeing*. This construct consists of four items measured by a six-anchor Likert-type  
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8 scale (M= 3.59; S.D.= 1.07). This scale was recoded into a five-anchor scale to harmonise  
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10 item scales. Scale reliability is 0.85 (Cronbach's alpha), well above the recommended  
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12 threshold.  
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15 Mediators:  
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18 *Work-life interaction*. This two-item scale and its five anchors (M= 4.12; S.D.= 0.88)  
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20 measured the interference of family responsibilities with job responsibilities. Scale  
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22 reliability is 0.77, which is above the recommended 0.70.  
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25 *Job Satisfaction*. This scale (two items, five anchors) inquired about the level of  
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27 satisfaction in relation to the amount and quality of the work undertaken (M= 2.50; S.D.=  
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29 0.99;  $\alpha= 0.80$ )  
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33 Moderator:  
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36 *Preference for telework*. This item was recoded to divide the sample between high (two  
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38 highest values; 4 and 5) and low (three lower values; from 1 to 3) preferences for telework  
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40 when there are no restrictions (M= 2.83; S.D.=1.22). The specific question is shown in  
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43 Table 1.  
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### 50 51 52 **3.3. Estimation methods** 53

54 After estimating descriptive statistics and scale reliabilities, structural equation modelling  
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56 (SEM) analyses were carried out to test to what extent the total sample data as well as  
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58 subsamples high and low in preference fit the proposed theoretical model. Stata v.16  
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software was applied to conduct all statistical operations. SEM analyses assessed both the measurement model and the structural model. The former estimated the relationships between the items and their constructs (validity and reliability), whereas the latter measured the predictive capacity of the relationships between the constructs. The measurement model was evaluated for internal consistency by Cronbach's alpha (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011).

Two models were estimated; Model 1 measured the relationship between telework experience and wellbeing, directly and mediated via work–life interaction and job satisfaction; Model 2 incorporated the moderating effect of preference for telework when there are no restrictions on the relationship between telework experience and wellbeing.

The goodness of the fit was assessed by the following indices: Chi<sup>2</sup> and its probability (*p*), CFI (comparative fit index), TLI (Tucker-Lewis index), RMSA (root mean square error of approximation), and SRMR (standardised root mean residual). Standardised coefficients ( $\beta$ ) were then estimated for the structural models' paths.

#### 4. Results

For both models, structural equation fit indices (Table 2) and standardised coefficients and confident intervals (Table 3) indicate that data shows a good fit with the proposed model.

Insert Table 2 around here

As shown in Table 2, the fit indices for the two structural models are within the recommended cut-offs (CFI  $\geq$  0.95; TLI  $\geq$  0.95) or are well above them (RMSEA  $\leq$  0.08; SRMR  $\leq$  0.08), except for Chi<sup>2</sup> because its probability is significant. From these results, the proposed theoretical models can be considered useful to explain the dependent

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3 variable (wellbeing). However, the data best fits the mediated model (Model 1) rather  
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5 than the mediated-moderated model (Model 1: CFI = 0.99; TLI = 0.99; RMSEA = 0.03;  
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7 SRMR =0.02 / Model 2: CFI = 0.97; TLI = 0.96; RMSEA = 0.06; SRMR =0.05).

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Insert Table 3 around here

As Figure 3 and Table 3 show, Hypotheses H1a, H1b and H1c can all be accepted because telework experience directly explains wellbeing ( $\beta= 0.11$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ); work–live interaction ( $\beta= 0.25$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ); and job satisfaction ( $\beta= 0.77$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). Telework experience exerts its strongest positive effect on job satisfaction, followed by work–life interaction and wellbeing.

Insert Figure 3 around here

Hypotheses H2 (H2a and H2b) that predicted indirect relationships between telework experience and wellbeing through work–life interaction and job satisfaction can also be accepted because results indicate an even stronger indirect effect between the independent variable and the criteria variable via the two moderators.

Insert Figure 4 around here

Hypothesis 3 (Figure 4 and Table 4) on whether preference for telework strengthens the effect of telework experienced on wellbeing (Model 2) can also be accepted. In this case, the direct ( $\beta= 0.08$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ) and indirect ( $\beta= 0.07$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ) effects of telework experience on wellbeing are lower than in Model 1. However, when incorporating the interaction between the former and preference for telework, the relationship between telework experience and wellbeing is strengthened ( $\beta= 0.75$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ).

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Insert Table 4 around here

## 5. Discussion and Conclusions

From the second-round data (N= 8,777) of the “Living, working and COVID-19” e-survey (Eurofound, 2020), this paper examined to what extent telework experience during the pandemic could have affected employee wellbeing, both directly (H1) and through work–life interaction and job satisfaction (H2). The proposed mediated model also incorporated the moderating effect of preference for telework under no restrictions in the relationship between telework experience and wellbeing (mediated-moderated model – H3).

COVID-19 as a sudden environmental constraint forced the implementation of telework without proper planning and training. Thus, how employees experienced this major change in their working conditions could have impacted their wellbeing. Accordingly, this paper contributes to clarifying how the proposed variables relate under such constraints. Before the pandemic, extant research reported that the positive relations between telework and the mentioned variables slightly outweighed negative results (Bosua et al., 2013). This study sought to verify whether similar results could be reported under the restrictions imposed by the pandemic. Based on the job demands and resources theory (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017), we stated that telework forced by pandemic restrictions could be assessed as a job demand or a job resource based on the employee experience. Telework’s sudden implementation could worsen wellbeing by increasing stress levels via more job demands, such as higher workloads and longer schedules due to the time invested in dealing with technological inefficiencies. Telework could also negatively affect work–life interactions by blurring the boundaries between the work and

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3 life roles (Andrade and Petiz Lousã, 2020) and could deteriorate job satisfaction via  
4 increasing uncertainty because of a reduction in feedback (Ipsen et al., 2021). On the other  
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7 hand, during the pandemic, telework was the means of maintaining jobs for a large  
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10 number of European employees, and in accordance with reciprocity theory (Shore and  
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12 Coyle-Shapiro, 2003), this circumstance could contribute to a positive effect from  
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14 telework on wellbeing (Fana et al., 2020), work–life interactions (Irawanto et al., 2021)  
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16 and job satisfaction (Karácsony, 2021) via reciprocating company efforts.

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20 Structural equation modelling confirmed that data showed a good fit to the proposed  
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22 theoretical model. This result directs us to confirm both hypotheses: H1 on direct effects  
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24 and H2 on indirect effects. Consequently, positive telework experience has both a direct  
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26 and indirect positive influence on wellbeing, but the indirect effect is stronger than the  
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28 direct effect. Telework experience exerts a strong effect on job satisfaction, but the latter  
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30 effect is weaker on wellbeing compared to that exerted by work–life interaction.  
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33 Therefore, these results suggest that in the studied sample, telework experience functions  
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35 as a job resource (Rieth and Hagemann, 2021). In addition, the link between telework  
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37 experience and wellbeing can be reinforced by the positive assessment of work–life  
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39 interaction and job satisfaction as proximal elements in the causal chain between telework  
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41 experience and wellbeing. Employees in the study assessed that telework did not interfere  
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43 with their work duties and that they felt satisfied with both the quantity and quality of  
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45 their work. These findings indicate that a positive experience with telework exerts an  
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47 important effect on how employees assess their work–life interaction and job satisfaction  
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49 and, ultimately, their wellbeing. Our results are in line with extant studies, which have  
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51 recognised such positive effects (Maruyama and Tietze, 2021; Tahlyan et al., 2022).

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57 When testing the mediated-moderated model (Model 2 – H3), the direct link between  
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59 telework experience and wellbeing was strengthened. This result demonstrated the  
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reinforcing effect that a preference for telework exerts on the relationship between telework experience and wellbeing. Though not essential, this finding underscores the importance of maintaining a positive attitude towards telework when implementing this working condition to enjoy success well beyond the COVID-19 pandemic (Peters et al., 2004).

These results also have implications from an applied perspective. Human capital departments as well as managers should design telework programmes to provide the best possible experiences for their employees. Its careful design will ensure its perception as a job resource, and therefore, it will exert a positive impact on work–life interaction, job satisfaction and wellbeing. As long as ICTs continue to reshape work environments, the presence of telework will increase. Keeping in mind that telework can be assessed as a demand could help companies to anticipate its potential drawbacks before implementing it (Messenger, 2019). As telework experience is important for wellbeing, companies should allow employees to involve themselves in ‘job crafting’ of telework (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017) to adapt it to their specific needs. Companies should also consider the importance of developing a positive attitude towards telework because such attitudes (preference) will reinforce the positive link between telework and wellbeing.

As with any other research, our study has certain limitations. The empirical evidence is derived from a single round of the Living, working, and COVID-19 e-survey conducted by Eurofound (2020). Eurofound recommends focusing on a single round to address potential issues, such as variations in items or sample sizes across rounds. Consequently, our research is grounded in the second round of the survey, which was chosen for its comprehensive information on variables aligned with our research objectives. While future studies could explore additional databases in the field, our choice is justified by the relevance of data in the second round.

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3 It is important to note that our sample was collected using a non-probability sampling  
4 methodology. Although efforts were made to align the sample with the demographic  
5 characteristics of the European population, this could introduce some bias. Future  
6 research should explore other potential mediators (e.g., type of work) and moderators  
7 (e.g., work-unit social climate) between telework and wellbeing to enhance our  
8 understanding of the implications of this emergent work condition, particularly in post-  
9 COVID-19 implementation.

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12 Due to COVID-19, telework's dramatic expansion helped companies to maintain their  
13 business activities and employees to keep their jobs. Within a context of unplanned  
14 implementation, the individual experience of telework directly influences wellbeing,  
15 work-life interaction and job satisfaction, but even more so indirectly via the latter two  
16 variables. The preference for telework when there are no restrictions is also important to  
17 predict wellbeing while teleworking and to strengthen the effect of telework experience  
18 on wellbeing. Thus, companies should consider directing some effort to developing  
19 positive experiences with telework beyond pandemic restrictions. Employee job crafting  
20 of telework could be a valid tool to reinforce positive experiences and attitudes to assess  
21 telework as a resource and, therefore, to ensure that it will exert a positive effect on  
22 employee wellbeing.



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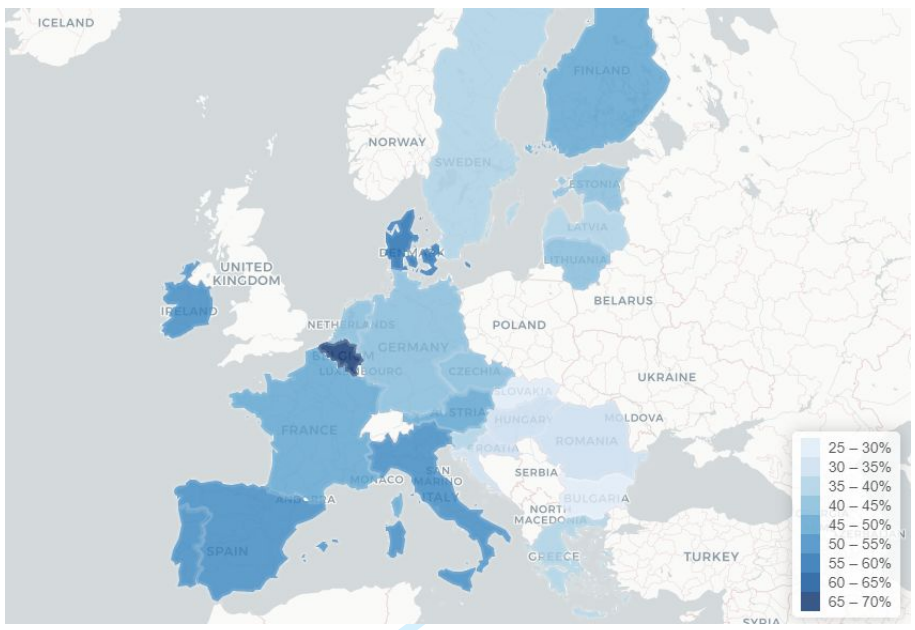
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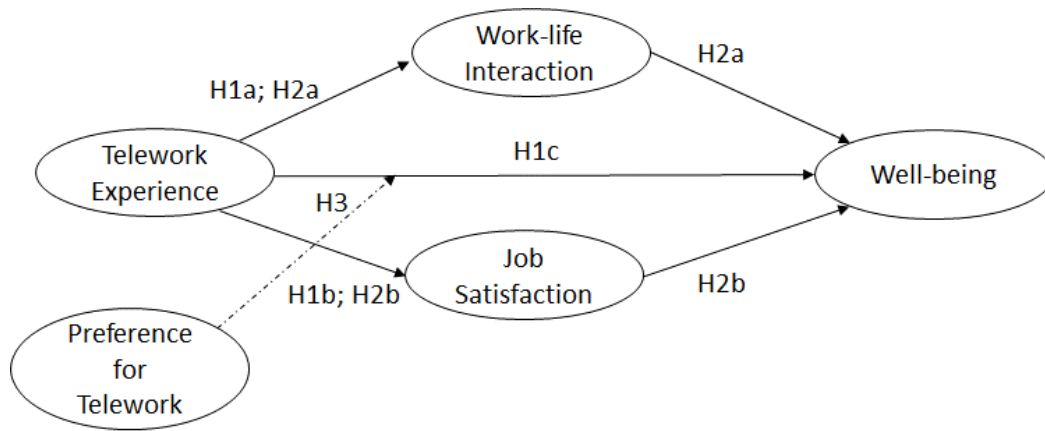
Figure 1. Telework in Europe 2020



Source: Eurofound (2020) (Authors own creation)

Employee Relations

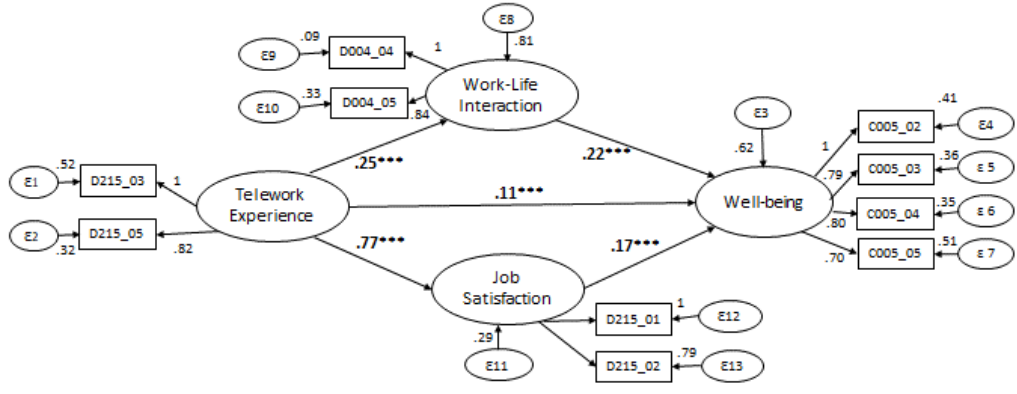
Figure 2. The proposed model



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Figure 3. Mediated structural model (standardized coefficients in bold).



Employee Relations

Figure 4. Mediated moderated structural model (standardized coefficients in bold).

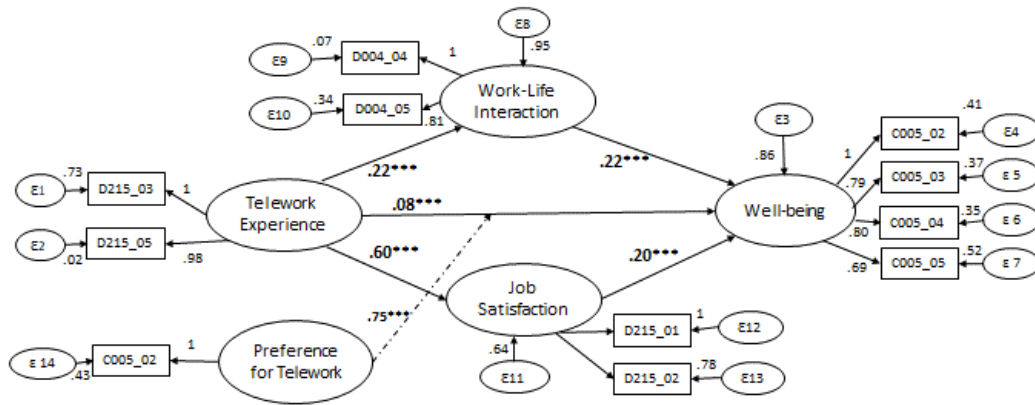


Table 1. Items and descriptive statistics

<b>Variables (SEM models)</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>Min.</b>	<b>Max.</b>
Telework experience	nD215_03	With my equipment I have at home I could do my work properly	14,763	3.7	1.13	1 (strongly disagree)	5 (strongly agree)
	nD215_05	Overall, I am satisfied with my experience	14,385	3.62	1.15	1 (strongly disagree)	5 (strongly agree)
Job satisfaction	nD215_01	I am satisfied with the amount of work I managed to do	14,838	3.49	1.12	1 (strongly disagree)	5 (strongly agree)
	nD215_02	I am satisfied with the quality of my work	14,881	3.74	1.00	1 (strongly disagree)	5 (strongly agree)
Work-life interaction	D004_04	Found it difficult to concentrate in your job because of your family responsibilities	14,414	3.91	0.96	1 (always)	5 (never)
	D004_05	Found that your family responsibilities prevented you from giving the time you should to your job	14,395	4.16	0.93	1 (always)	5 (never)



Preference for telework	D216_01	Work from home preferences when there are no restrictions	10,035	2.83	1.21	1 (never)	5 (daily)
Wellbeing	C005_02	I have felt calm and relaxed	24,076	3.73	1.24	1 (at no time)	6 (all the time)
	C005_03	I have felt active and vigorous	24,072	3.60	1.25	1 (at no time)	6 (all the time)
	C005_04	I woke up feeling fresh and rested	24,061	3.41	1.37	1 (at no time)	6 (all the time)
	C005_05	My daily life has been filled with things that interest me	24,057	3.78	1.30	1 (at no time)	6 (all the time)

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Table 2. Structural equation fit indices

	Chi2	<i>p</i>	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
<b>Mediated model</b>						
FIT indices	353.889	0.000***	0.99	0.99	0.03	0.02
<b>Mediated-moderated model</b>						
FIT indices	900.608	0.000***	0.97	0.96	0.06	0.05

Employee Relations

Table 3. Models Standardized Coefficients (N= 8,777)

Dependent variable: Wellbeing	Standard coefficient	S.E.	z-value	P > z	95% conf. interval	
<b>Mediated model</b>						
Telework Experience → Wellbeing	0.11***	0.02	4.42	0.000	0.06	0.16
Work-life interference → Wellbeing	0.21***	0.01	18.44	0.000	0.19	0.24
Job Satisfaction → Wellbeing	0.17***	0.02	6.77	0.000	0.12	0.22
Telework Experience → Work-life interference	0.25***	0.12	20.32	0.000	0.23	0.28
Telework Experience → Job Satisfaction	0.77***	0.01	87.44	0.000	0.75	0.79
<b>Mediated-moderated model</b>						
Telework experience → Wellbeing	0.08***	0.02	4.82	0.000	0.05	0.11
Work life interference → Wellbeing	0.22***	0.01	16.83	0.000	0.19	0.25
Job satisfaction → Wellbeing	0.20**	0.02	10.49	0.000	0.16	0.24
Telework Experience → Work-life interference	0.22***	0.01	17.48	0.000	0.19	0.24
Telework Experience → Job Satisfaction	0.60***	0.01	56.93	0.000	0.58	0.62
Telework Experience x Preference for telework → Wellbeing	0.75***	0.00	122.38	0.000	0.74	0.76

Table 4. Structural models paths direct, indirect and total effects

Model	Paths	Direct coeff.	Indirect coeff.	Total
<b>Mediated model</b>	TW Exp.—Wellbeing	0.11***	0.18***	0.29***
	TW Exp.—WLI	0.25***		0.25***
	TW Exp.—Job Satisfaction	0.77***		0.77***
	WLI—Wellbeing	0.21***		0.21***
	Job Satisfaction—Wellbeing	0.17***		0.17***
<b>Mediated-moderated model</b>	TW Exp.—Wellbeing	0.08***	0.07***	0.15***
	TW Exp.—WLI	0.22***		0.31***
	TW Exp.—Job Satisfaction	0.60***		.75***
	WLI—Wellbeing	0.22***		0.22***
	Job Satisfaction—Wellbeing	0.20***		0.13***
	TW Exp. x Preference—Wellbeing	0.75***		0.75***

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12 December 2023

To whom it may concern,

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**Document title:** Do you prefer logging in?

**The relevance of the experience of telework for wellbeing**

**Author(s):** Begoña Urien; Amaya Erro-Garcés

**Format:** British English

**Style guide:** Employee Relations: The International Journal at  
<https://www.emeraldgroupublishing.com/journal/er>

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7 20th December, 2023  
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10 Dear Professor Nickson:  
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12 First of all, thank you very much for the time and effort given to our manuscript (ID ER-10-2022-  
13 0487) and for giving us the opportunity to revise and resubmit it. We would also like to thank you  
14 and the reviewer for the time and effort devoted to review our paper.  
15

16 In the revised version of the manuscript, we have carefully addressed all the concerns and feel  
17 that the quality of the manuscript has improved as a result.  
18

19 Following your comments and the reviewer, we have made several changes in the document that  
20 pertain to its different sections. In particular, as regards your concerns, we have estimated our  
21 model including the “preference for telework” as a moderator in the relationship between  
22 “telework experience” and “well-being”. Abstract, theoretical background, estimation methods,  
23 results, discussion and conclusion sections were adapted accordingly. In addition, Table 1 has  
24 been completed by splitting the “Variables” (“Variable” before) column into two sub-columns,  
25 as suggested, including the label of the variable in each item. Finally, all typos have been  
26 corrected.  
27

28 Please see the response letter enclosed with this note for the detailed responses to the reviewers’  
29 comments. Additionally, below please see our point-by-point responses to the reviewers’  
30 comments. Comments from the reviewer are numerated and in italics. Some words are in bold  
31 letters to facilitate the reading.  
32

33 We hope we have responded to all the concerns made to the last version of the manuscript and  
34 incorporated all the required changes. We would be glad to provide further details and  
35 clarifications if necessary.  
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37 Many thanks again and best regards,  
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## Reviewer Comments

1. The main issue is that H3 doesn't make sense logically in Fig.2. When I checked the data (in Table 3), 72% of the sample (6,344 out of 8,777) has a high preference in telework, the sample is biased towards this group. It can be treated as a control variable; or a moderator (on H1c, H1a, or H1b) in the framework, this means the author(s) has to restructure the whole paper accordingly.

As suggested, we introduced the variable “preference for telework” as a moderator in the relationship between “telework experience” and “well-being”.

The moderator positively and significantly influences the relationship between “preference for telework” and “well-being”. However, the resulted structural model, although showing a satisfactory fit, did not improve the firstly tested mediated model (Table 2).

Table 2. Structural equation fit indices

	Chi2	p	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
<b>Mediated model</b>						
FIT indices	353.889	0.000***	0.99	0.99	0.03	0.02
<b>Mediated-moderated model</b>						
FIT indices	900.608	0.000***	0.97	0.96	0.06	0.05

Accordingly, both Figure 2 (the proposed model) and Figure 3 (mediated structural model) were adapted.

We also added a new Figure 4 which shows the measurement and structural mediated-moderated model.



As a result, Tables 3 and 4 were also modified.

Abstract, theoretical background, estimation methods, results, discussion and conclusion sections incorporate the changes introduced. In the manuscript, those changes are highlighted “green letters”.

As examples, page 9, first paragraph:

“Accordingly, the present paper also studies the moderating role that preference for telework exerts on the direct relationship between the experience of telework and perceived wellbeing specifically.”

Or pages 15-16 (last-first paragraph).

“When testing the mediated-moderated model (Model 2 – H3), the direct link between telework experience and wellbeing was strengthened. This result indicated the reinforcing effect that a preference for telework exerts on the relationship between telework experience and wellbeing. Though not essential, this finding underscores the importance of maintaining a positive attitude towards telework for success well beyond the COVID-19 pandemic when implementing this working condition (Peters et al., 2004).”

2. *There are issues with tables and presentations.*

*In Table 1, the author(s) needs to clearly indicate which survey items were used to measure their independent variable, dependent variables, mediators or moderator. It may need an extra column to make this clear. For example, telework experience includes nD215\_03 and nD215\_05.*

Table 1 has been completed by splitting the “Variables” (“Variable” before) column into two sub-columns, **including the label of the variable in each item.**

Variables (SEM models)	Items	Description	N	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max.
Telework experience	nD215_03	With my equipment I have at home I could do my work properly	14,763	3.7	1.13	1 (strongly disagree)	5 (strongly agree)
	nD215_05	Overall, I am satisfied with my experience	14,385	3.62	1.15	1 (strongly disagree)	5 (strongly agree)



Job satisfaction	nD215_01	I am satisfied with the amount of work I managed to do	14,838	3.49	1.12	1 (strongly disagree)	5 (strongly agree)
	nD215_02	I am satisfied with the quality of my work	14,881	3.74	1.00	1 (strongly disagree)	5 (strongly agree)
Work-life interaction	D004_04	Found it difficult to concentrate in your job because of your family responsibilities	14,414	3.91	0.96	1 (always)	5 (never)
	D004_05	Found that your family responsibilities prevented you to giving the time you should to your job	14,395	4.16	0.93	1 (always)	5 (never)
Preference for Telework	D216_01	Work from home preferences when there are no restrictions	10,035	2.83	1.21	1 (never)	5 (daily)
Wellbeing	C005_02	I have felt calm and relaxed	24,076	3.73	1.24	1 (at no time)	6 (all the time)
	C005_03	I have felt active and vigorous	24,072	3.60	1.25	1 (at no time)	6 (all the time)
	C005_04	I woke up feeling fresh and rested	24,061	3.41	1.37	1 (at no time)	6 (all the time)
	C005_05	My daily life has been filled with things that interest me	24,057	3.78	1.30	1 (at no time)	6 (all the time)

a. keep two decimal places (in all Tables).

Decimals are just two except for Chi<sup>2</sup> and probabilities ( $p$ ) in all Tables.

Those corrections were made in all Tables.

Example, Table 2.

	<b>Chi2</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>CFI</b>	<b>TLI</b>	<b>RMSEA</b>	<b>SRMR</b>
<b>Mediated model</b>						
FIT indices	353.889	0.000***	0.99	0.99	0.03	0.02
<b>Mediated-moderated model</b>						
FIT indices	900.608	0.000***	0.97	0.96	0.06	0.05

*b. Variables to replace Variable in Table 1.*

Please, check in Table 1 in pages 2 and 3.

Corrected.

*c. Min. or Max. to replace Min or Max*

Please, check in Table 1 in pages 2 and 3.

Corrected

*d. In Table 3, N=6,344 or N=2,433 to replace N=6.344 or N=2.433 currently.*

Table 3 is now like this. Please note that N = 8,777

Please, check below the new version of Table 3.

Table 3. Models Standardized Coefficients (N= 8,777)

<b>Dependent variable: Wellbeing</b>	<b>Standard coefficient</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>z-value</b>	<b>P &gt; z</b>	<b>95% conf. interval</b>	
<b>Mediated model</b>						
Telework Experience → Wellbeing	0.11***	0.02	4.42	0.000	0.06	0.16
Work-life interference → Wellbeing	0.21***	0.01	18.44	0.000	0.19	0.24
Job Satisfaction → Wellbeing	0.17***	0.02	6.77	0.000	0.12	0.22
Telework Experience → Work-life interference	0.25***	0.12	20.32	0.000	0.23	0.28
Telework Experience → Job Satisfaction	0.77***	0.01	87.44	0.000	0.75	0.79
<b>Mediated-moderated model</b>						
Telework experience → Wellbeing	0.08***	0.02	4.82	0.000	0.05	0.11
Work life interference → Wellbeing	0.22***	0.01	16.83	0.000	0.19	0.25
Job satisfaction → Wellbeing	0.20**	0.02	10.49	0.000	0.16	0.24
Telework Experience → Work-life interference	0.22***	0.01	17.48	0.000	0.19	0.24
Telework Experience → Job Satisfaction	0.60***	0.01	56.93	0.000	0.58	0.62
Telework Experience x Preference for telework → Wellbeing	0.75***	0.00	122.38	0.000	0.74	0.76

e. Table 4, 0.11\*\*\* to replace .11\*\*\* all ways through.

Below, you can check the new Table 4, in response to what was suggested.

Table 4. Structural models paths direct, indirect and total effects

Model	Paths	Direct coeff.	Indirect coeff.	Total
<b>Mediated model</b>	TW Exp.—Wellbeing	0.11***	0.18***	0.29***
	TW Exp.—WLI	0.25***		0.25***
	TW Exp.—Job Satisfaction	0.77***		0.77***
	WLI—Wellbeing	0.21***		0.21***
	Job Satisfaction—Wellbeing	0.17***		0.17***
<b>Mediated-moderated model</b>	TW Exp.—Wellbeing	0.08***	0.07***	0.15***
	TW Exp.—WLI	0.22***		0.31***
	TW Exp.—Job Satisfaction	0.60***		.75***
	WLI—Wellbeing	0.22***		0.22***
	Job Satisfaction—Wellbeing	0.20***		0.13***
	TW Exp. x Preference—Wellbeing	0.75***		0.75***

3. *The revised version requires a thorough proof-reading*

The proofreading certificate can be found attached.

4. *In the Findings, it needs to be made clear that the findings are under the Covid-context. The sentence 'the subsample high in preference for telework reveals stronger relationships between telework experience and wellbeing' is hard to understand. This is about H3, they may have to change this after the issue raised above.*

Certainly, that sentence was removed and the new paragraph is:

*“Findings: Key findings support that telework experience positive impacts on wellbeing, both directly and indirectly, particularly via work-life balance. Although preference for telework strengthens the relationship between telework experience and wellbeing, it does not enhance the predictive power of the mediated model.”*

5. *On P 11 S.D.=1.22 to replace SD=1.22  
On p13  $\beta= 0.13$  to replace  $\beta= .13$   
On p14.  $N=8,777$  to replace  $N=8.777$*

Changes made in the corresponding Tables.

6. *On p. 15 (Fana et al, 2020) (Irawanto et al, 2021) need to be (Fana et al., 2020) and (Irawanto et al., 2021)*

These necessary corrections have been applied.

1  
2  
3 Thank you very much for your help.  
4

5 Yours sincerely,  
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8 Amaya Erro-Garcés Ph. D.  
9 Corresponding author  
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