2017

A Phenomenological Study on the Leadership Experience of Teleworking Leaders

Patrice Ann Louie
Walden University

Walden University

College of Management and Technology

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Patrice Louie

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Stephanie Hoon, Committee Chairperson, Management Faculty
Dr. Branford McAllister, Committee Member, Management Faculty
Dr. Janice Spangenburg, University Reviewer, Management Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2017

Abstract

A Phenomenological Study on the Leadership Experience of Teleworking Leaders

by

Patrice Ann Louie

MBA, University of California, Los Angeles, 1991

MS, Stanford University, 1985

BS, Loyola Marymount University, 1983

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Management and Technology

Walden University

August 2017

Abstract

Technological advances and the desire for employees to improve work-life balance have contributed to the growth of telework. Finding and retaining effective leadership talent are critical needs of organizations. Recruitment and retention of leadership talent can be supported by access to perquisites such as the ability to telework. Although research on teleworking employees in general, and virtual team leaders, can inform the industry, few leadership models exist that specifically help understand what it takes to be a teleworking leader. The purpose of this phenomenological study of teleworking leaders filled this gap by examining the experiences of 12 teleworking leaders with an average of 21 years of management experience across a broad range of industries. Six themes emerged from the interviews: communication, employee relations, individual leadership experience, employee or work issues, monitoring, and trust. Although many experiences of the teleworking leaders were consistent with existing research on teleworking employees and virtual team leaders, within the 6 themes, other aspects of the experiences within each theme are unique to the teleworking leader such as the development of efficient practices for communicating with employees and the intentional use of remote work for the important leadership activity of strategic thinking. Recommendations for further study include research specifically on teleworking leaders and their best practices that can be adopted by in-office leaders, and research on experiences of employees whose leaders are remote. Implications for positive social change include increased organizational sustainability through improved work-life balance for teleworking leaders and by increasing the strategic leadership capacity of leaders through telework.

A Phenomenological Study on the Leadership Experience of Teleworking Leaders

by

Patrice Ann Louie

MBA, University of California, Los Angeles, 1991

MS, Stanford University, 1985

BS, Loyola Marymount University, 1983

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Management and Technology

Walden University

August 2017

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge the support of my family and friends and give thanks to them, particularly my husband, Jeffrey Courion, who put up with my repeated disappearances into my office or some local coffee shop to study or work on my dissertation, and with my frequent lamenting of my state of progress. To my friend, Albert Alfaro, with whom the kernel of the idea of this study originated. To my friend, Heidi Tuffias, who inspired me to embark on this journey of advanced education as she was starting her own. To my children, Christopher Courion and Alexis Goswitz, who had to suffer through my balancing helping them through their own educations while I was pursuing mine.

I would also like to thank my committee members, Dr. Stephanie Hoon, Dr. Branford McAllister, and Dr. Janice Spangenburg, for their support of me in this process. I always felt that I ended up better for all their comments to my work. I would like to give additional thanks to Dr. Stephanie, who signed on early to help me with this project and stayed with me through this lengthy process.

And most importantly, I would like to thank all my participants. Without your generous grant of time and experience, this study would not have happened.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Leadership is a core topic for organizations because effective leaders help an organization reach its collective goals (Carter, DeChurch, Braun, & Contractor, 2015). Finding and retaining effective leadership talent is a critical among organizations. The aging and concurrent retirement of the Baby Boomer population exacerbates the ability of organizations to source leadership talent (Duxbury & Halinski, 2014a). Organizations can recruit and retain leadership talent in a cost-efficient manner by providing perquisites in addition to pay, such as flexibility in the workplace (Kossek, Thompson, & Lautsch, 2015; Moon, Linden, Bricout, & Baker, 2014). Talented employees look for job features such as work-life balance, which can be enhanced by allowing employees to work from home, known as teleworking or telecommuting (Greer & Payne, 2014). These employees may be junior staff members, but often they are at the managerial or professional level due to the autonomy that is afforded to such employees (Allen, Golden, & Shockley, 2015; Duxbury & Halinski, 2014a).

Because most researchers present their findings as a combined group of managerial and nonmanagerial employees, few leadership models specifically help people understand what it takes to be a teleworking leader. This insight could include the aspects of leading remotely that could create challenges for teleworking leaders if not addressed. Golden and Fromen (2011) showed that experiences were slightly less positive for subordinates of teleworking managers but not to a substantive degree, such that any adverse effects could be mitigated with training and awareness. Additional study into this arena could help leaders who desire to telework to be as effective as possible, and further

study could facilitate organizational competitiveness through recruiting and retaining talented leaders who want to telework.

Growth in telework has been largely due to improvements in information and communication technologies (ICT) (Bentley et al., 2016). These improvements help employees connect to the office and other team members through technology applications such as email, bulletin boards, instant messaging or texting, and teleconferencing. Studies on telework primarily focus on the benefits for employees, such as working at peak efficiency hours, reduced distractions and interruptions, increased concentration, and reduced incidental absences, and the benefits for organizations, such as productivity, retention, commitment, and performance (Martin & MacDonnell, 2012). However, literature that specifically studies the unique needs of teleworking leaders is rare, which is why my research approach was a qualitative phenomenological study format that examined the experiences of this unique group of leaders: those who telework, or work remotely, 1 or more days per week. Rich description highlighted the unique experiences of teleworking leaders, particularly with respect to their activities that specifically related to leading their team that was collocated on site in an organization's offices. This study could shed light on what it means to be a teleworking leader and facilitate the development of organizational leadership recruitment and retention strategies using telework as a perquisite.

Background of the Study

Recruiting and retaining talented leadership are primary goals among boards of directors of organizations (Stephens, 2013). Effective leadership is critical for the success of organizations (Landis, Hill, & Harvey, 2014; Lord & Dinh, 2014). Companies are

continually looking for ways to attract and retain talented employees (Schmidt, Mansson, & Dolles, 2013). The retirement of a large swath of the experienced leadership population known as the Baby Boomers further exacerbates the problem of recruiting talented leaders (Duxbury & Halinski, 2014a). People who are responsible for hiring leadership talent, or hiring managers, could include boards of directors, human resources directors, or other organizational leaders who have responsibilities for hiring. Hiring managers can expect to see the challenges of maintaining a talented workforce worsening with the exodus of experienced Baby Boomer employees.

In addition to pay or wages, hiring managers can use other ways to attract leadership talent. Allen et al. (2015) indicated that one way to attract and retain workers, including managerial and professional level employees, is to develop a culture of workplace flexibility, which includes (a) allowing employees to work remotely, (b) permitting part-time or intermittent work, (c) enabling leaves of absence for family, (d) developing job sharing, and (d) providing for phased retirement. Kossek et al. (2015) indicated that organizations that do not incorporate workplace flexibility policies could lose top talent, be less innovative, and make less profit. Because telework requires a level of autonomy with respect to one's work schedules and work tasks, employees who are managers or professionals are more likely to be able to telework (Allen et al., 2015). As a result, allowing employees (whether managerial level or nonmanagerial) to telework is one strategy that could help to solve this leadership talent recruitment and retention problem.

Nilles in 1975 first envisioned the idea of allowing employees to telework (Caillier, 2013). Since then, studies have examined groups of employees who telework,

with some categorizing the type of worker (male or female, manager or nonmanager, professional or clerical) but generally not distinguishing between manager and nonmanager with respect to study findings. This lack of information on subgroups in current research further exacerbates the gap of knowledge with respect to the specific experience of teleworking leaders.

Telework consists of working remotely, away from one's organizationally provided offices (Burbach & Day, 2015; Greer & Payne, 2014), often using ICT to interact with the office (Bentley et al., 2016). Although telework has been researched through the years, there has been little agreement on what exactly constitutes telework, with disagreements around whether telework includes those who are self-employed versus organizationally employed, the number of days in a month or days in a week, the type of work done while teleworking, and the location of one's remote work (Allen et al., 2015; Graizbord, 2015; Koh, Allen, & Zafar, 2013). Approximately one third of the articles reviewed for my research called out managers and professionals in their review of teleworking employees, whereas the remainder referred only to employees or teleworkers generically, without including or excluding managerial level employees.

Despite these variations in definitions of who teleworks and how often one teleworks, general agreement exists among researchers regarding the potential benefits and challenges for teleworking employees, regardless of whether managers are specifically called out as a category. These common stated benefits of telework include autonomy, better childcare arrangements, and better work-life balance (Anderson, Kaplan, & Vega, 2015; Collins, Cartwright, & Hislop, 2013; Greer & Payne, 2014). Potential challenges of telework for both managerial and nonmanagerial workers include

social isolation, increased work hours, and potentially stunted career advancement (Greer & Payne, 2014; Powell & Craig, 2015). Some researchers indicated that less work-family conflict occurs (Koh et al., 2013), whereas others indicated that work-family conflict could worsen (Kossek et al., 2015). Similarly, studies have shown that the organizations allowing their employees (whether managerial or nonmanagerial) to telework can gain from lower real estate costs, better productivity, and lower absenteeism, as well as improved ability to attract talent, better work-life balance, cost savings in recruitment and retention, lower turnover intention, and improved continuity of operations plan (Allen et al., 2015; Anderson et al., 2015; Donnelly & Proctor-Thomson, 2015). Additional benefits include increased opportunities for disadvantaged work groups such as women and minorities (Collins et al., 2013; Donnelly & Proctor-Thomson, 2015; Gilman, 2014). This makes telework an important benefit to the extent that organizations are able to recruit leaders from this talent base, who might have family issues that require special teleworking arrangements.

The rapid improvements in technology that facilitate communication during the past 30 years have contributed to the growth of telework. According to the U.S. census, 13.4 million people teleworked from home at least 1 day per week in 2010, an increase of 35% since 1997 (Kaplan, 2014). The Telework Research Network calculated that number of teleworkers in 2011 was 30 million (Burbach & Day, 2015). The U.S. government provided significant support to efforts to promote telework with the passage and signing into law by President Barack Obama of the Telework Enhancement Act in 2010 (Caillier, 2013; Rodriguez, 2013). According to Burbach and Day (2015), approximately 25% of federal employees telework.

Besides organizational competitive advantage and sustainability, positive societal implications exist for telework. For example, increases in telework will reduce traffic congestion and pollution (Linden, 2014). Society will accrue this benefit through the expansion in the number of leaders who telework.

This new context of work can upset the normal relational balances between employees and leaders. The leader has certain challenges related to an employee or group of employees who work remotely. New challenges also emerge as a result of the changing relationships between the employees who do not telework and the employees who do telework. When a leader works remotely, further relationship changes may require that the leader adjust his or her approach to leading, particularly during the times when he or she is working remotely. Kelley and Kelloway (2012) referred to remote leadership as a situation in which physical distance and reduced face-to-face interaction mediate perceptions of leadership and individual outcomes.

Some in the industry have coined the term *e-leadership* to denote that type of leadership that occurs via ICT. Cowan (2014) and Savolainen (2014) discussed some of the specific principles of e-leadership such as establishing a leadership presence, effectively using skillful written communication, and building team dynamics and trust. Other researchers have attempted to apply various leadership theories to teleworking leaders (Brunelle, 2013; Dahlstrom, 2013; Fan, Chen, Wang, & Chen, 2014). This approach to understanding teleworking leaders attempts to take existing leadership theories and alter them to apply to leadership in the context of telework.

However, existing studies of virtual team leadership and e-leadership begin to only scratch the surface of how to be a teleworking leader. Trying to fit the experience of

the teleworking leader into existing leadership theories can have some value, because teleworking leadership theories could build off of the large existing knowledge base of leadership. But a question remains regarding whether researchers miss key facets of remote leadership by taking this approach. A phenomenological study such as this one, which starts from the experience of the leader, could provide new insights into leadership not previously envisioned by building off of existing leadership theories. In particular, leading collocated teams remotely is a nuance that researchers have rarely discussed, creating a significant knowledge gap. Rather than start with existing theories of leadership and modifying them for a teleworking context, studying the experience of the teleworking leader could lead to new frameworks or theories as to how to lead remotely. With this newfound knowledge, telework can be used as an organizational strategy to attract and retain talented employees, particularly managers, professionals, and knowledge workers (Cooke, Chowhan, & Cooper, 2014).

Problem Statement

Recruitment and retention of talented leadership is an organizational challenge that is being exacerbated by the exodus of experienced Baby Boomers (Duxbury & Halinski, 2014a). The general problem is that not only is the experience of telework in organizations limited, with fewer than 12% of employees teleworking, or working remotely at least 1 day per week (Martin & MacDonnell, 2012), but insufficient research exists on leaders who work remotely (Kelley & Kelloway, 2012). The specific research problem is that a lack of knowledge and understanding exists regarding the specific positive and negative experiences that teleworking leaders face as they lead in a remote context. To solve this problem, the research approach was a phenomenological

qualitative study of the experiences of leaders who currently telework 1 or more days per week.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological research was to better understand how leaders who telework perceive what it means to be a leader in the context of working remotely at least 1 day per week, and using technology to communicate. To address this gap in the research and knowledge, I studied leaders who telework to create further understanding of their remote leadership experiences which could ultimately help hiring managers learn how to effectively use a perquisite such as telework to recruit and retain talented leaders. Interviews with teleworking leaders created a rich descriptive view of the experiences of teleworking leaders, which could lead to better comprehension of the positive and negative experiences of leading remotely. This research may help hiring managers devise responsive ways to support and recruit teleworking leaders, and to improve leader retention and recruitment. Further qualitative and quantitative research could also build off of my research to create additional understanding around how to optimize a teleworking leader's effectiveness and the teleworking leader's own leadership experiences.

Research Question

One way to solve the leadership talent shortage problem is to use the perquisite of telework to attract and retain leadership talent. To develop processes for using telework as a perquisite, it would be helpful first to understand deeply the experiences of leaders who already telework. The unique context of this research question relates to aspects of how a teleworking environment might modulate the leadership experience. The primary

research question was the following: How do leaders who telework perceive what it means to be a leader in the context of working remotely and using technology to communicate?

Conceptual Framework

The context that guided the framework for this research was that of the leader who teleworks while the rest of his or her team works in a traditional organizational office. The overarching conceptual framework is that leadership is situational and relational. The unique context of working remotely creates a special situation for the teleworking leader. Working remotely changes the dynamics of interpersonal relationships, potentially requiring a remote leader to adjust the way that leader manages, leads, and inspires one's employees. In my research, I considered both the relationships between leaders and followers as well as the relationship between the teleworking leader and the organization.

Researchers have modeled relationships between leaders and followers in traditional organizational environments with such theories as transactional versus transformational leadership, leader-follower theories, and motivation theories. Rather than starting anew to develop leadership theories unique to remote relationships, researchers have instead applied these existing frameworks for their studies on dispersed teams, virtual teams, or teleworking teams (Allen & Vakalahi, 2013; Jamnani, Boromand, & Salehi, 2013; Savolainan, 2014). The researchers who used these existing frameworks thereby made a significant assumption that leaders who work remotely adapt these theories to their unique circumstances.

A similar effort has been conducted in studies that look at the leader's relationship to his organization. In studying this relationship, researchers have applied leader-member exchange (LMX) theory in the context of remote work. The exchange would be between the teleworking leader or employee who has the opportunity to telework and attains better job satisfaction, and the organization, which can provide resources to the teleworking leader or employee such as IT support and supervisor support, in order to achieve positive outcomes for teleworkers' well-being and productivity (Bentley et al., 2016).

Trust, as a primary mechanism for enhancing work relationships, is moderated in an environment where the team is not collocated, with most studies indicating that trust is more difficult to develop over communication technologies (Brunelle, 2013; Cowan, 2014) as a result of perceived distances between team members (Siebdrat, Hoegl, & Ernst, 2014). Leaders work around this challenge through the development of swift trust (Crisp & Jarvenpaa, 2013), or other activities that intentionally build trust (Jawadi, Daassi, Favier, & Kalika, 2013). Adopting a particular leadership style, such as transformational leadership, is linked to the building of trust, particularly in situations wherein the team is not always face-to-face (Allen & Vakalahi, 2013). Although the teleworking leader presumably has some time in the office, and therefore has more opportunities to build trust than the virtual team leader, the teleworking leader must still consider certain factors when leading in the teleworking context.

A related issue to trust in teams is the management of team conflict. Chang and Lee (2013) looked at using transformational and transactional leadership styles to manage team conflict. Burbach and Day (2015) stressed that the skills a teleworking leader must

have to manage conflict. A teleworking leader needs to be able to handle team conflicts even while working remotely.

I aimed to look at the experience of a leader who teleworks from the perspective of the leader himself or herself. The study was set in the conceptual framework of leadership models of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, leader-follower dynamics, LMX, trust, and conflict management. These are the relational aspects of leadership that working remotely and using technology to communicate might alter.

Nature of the Study

My research method was qualitative because my goal was to achieve a deep and rich understanding of the experiences of leaders who telework. The phenomenon was being a leader in a teleworking context, particularly with respect to the leader's relationship with the organization and with the leader's interactions and relationships with his or her team members. This pointed to a study design that was qualitative and phenomenological.

Because the focus was on how teleworking mediates these relationships, it was important to understand how these derived themes fit into relationship-focused leadership theories such as leader-follower, LMX, and transactional and transformational leadership. Thematic concepts that my research revealed could be used in future qualitative or quantitative studies. The sample size was small and analysis was thematic and not statistical, which also calls for a qualitative approach.

Another potential qualitative design was that of a case study. A case study design could be used to examine how a teleworking leader conducts his leadership activities

remotely, how the organization supports that leader, and how peers and team members work effectively with that teleworking leader. Although this design could yield some interesting information, a case study might create a best practices model of telework for organizations, rather than seeking to answer the question of that leader's experiences as a teleworking leader. Future research using the case study design could build off of the themes derived from my research.

I did not use a quantitative approach because such an approach would need to assume that certain leadership models fit leadership in a teleworking context. Instead, the potential development of a new perspective on leadership in the unique context of telework may have more value than quantitatively testing existing face-to-face models of leadership as applied to a remote context. Measuring the effectiveness of different types of existing leadership models in a remote context is what existing quantitative studies have tried to do.

Research Design

To understand the lived experiences of the leader who teleworks, I used an interpretive phenomenological approach as my research design. Through a process of epoché, phenomenological reduction, imaginative variation, and synthesis of meaning and essences, as recommended by Moustakas (1994), my goal was to understand fully the experience of telework by teleworking leaders. Interviews of teleworking leaders helped me to develop a deep understanding of particular experiences of teleworking leaders and how these leaders have worked to improve their experiences to become more effective leaders. Reiners (2012) emphasized that phenomenological studies must look at the experience of the participant in the context of the phenomenon being studied. Van Manen

(2014) indicated that the description of experiences as they are lived includes aspects of experience and then self-reflection of such experiences. I probed participant's perspectives on their experiences, and sought to understand what those experiences mean to the participant. The approach was to use a few broad, open-ended questions that ask for detail and depth about the participant's experiences with follow-up questions for further depth.

Unit of Analysis

My unit of analysis in this research was the leader who works remotely and leads a team that works together in the same organizational office. The leader of a virtual team is distinct from the leader who teleworks. The leader of a virtual team has an entire team that is in the same situation, needing to communicate and collaborate using technology. In the case of the leader of a collocated team, only the leader is remote. The frequency of current research has tended to define telework as working remotely at least 1 day per week (Singh, Paleti, Jenkins, & Bhat, 2013). Singh et al. (2013) tried to develop new insights by expanding the population that falls into the telework category as those who telework at least 1 day per month. Conversely, Martinez and Gomez (2013) found 2.5 days per week to be a transition point for negative coworker relationships. The frequency of telework of no more than 1 day per week bounded my unit of analysis based on the frequency of telework in many existing studies, according to a meta-analysis by Martin and MacDonnell (2012).

Research Methodology

I used purposeful sampling of leaders who share the experience of telework and lead teams who are not remote workers and who are generally located in the

organization's home offices. My institutional review board (IRB) review included a review of any ethical concerns such as informed consent and transparency with my participants as to the purpose of the study and use of the data. In Chapter 3, I detail the process for ensuring confidentiality of subjects and data through various processes. Reiners (2012) recommended a circular hermeneutic interpretive process to achieve credibility. Confirmability and dependability were a goal of my research. The characteristics of the unit of analysis facilitated transferability.

Definitions

Chief Executive Officer (CEO): The lead executive of an organization and often the chair of the board of directors (Conger & Lawler, 2009).

Conventional workplace: The normal or traditional work office, where employees normally gather to work in an office location supplied by the organization (Brunelle, 2013; Greer & Payne, 2014).

Dispersed teams: The terms dispersed team and virtual team are sometimes used interchangeably, but Allen and Vakalahi (2013) indicated that in addition to geographically dispersion, dispersed teams could also mean teams from different organizational offices. The addition of using technology to communicate creates the virtual team (Collins, Chou, & Warner, 2014). Magni, Maruping, Hoegl, and Proserpio (2013) indicated that teams can be dispersed configurational, spatially, or cognitively.

E-Leadership: Leadership performed using technology for communication and interaction, often of virtual teams (Cowan, 2014; El Khouly, Ossman, Selim, & Zaghloul, 2014).

Information and communication technologies (ICT): The technologies that are used by virtual teams or by employees working remotely to communicate and interact with one's team or home office (Bentley et al., 2016).

Telecommuting: Telecommuting is equated with telework. Most researchers select one term to use. Those who mention both generally equate the two, and then select one term throughout their publication.

Telework: Working outside one's normal organizational office and using technology to communicate with that office (Greer & Payne, 2014; Linden, 2014). When speaking broadly about different work flexibility options, telework is known as flex-place (Kossek et al., 2015). Telework is also known as telecommuting, remote work, anywhere work, and agile work (Bentley et al., 2016).

Telework Enhancement Act of 2010: An act passed by the U.S. Congress and signed into law by President Barack Obama in 2010 that encourages telework in all federal agencies (Caillier, 2013; Rodriguez, 2013). *Telework* is officially defined within the Act as a situation in which an employee conducts his or her work activities at an alternative work location. The act further discusses the conditions under which a federal employee is eligible to telework.

Traditional office: The organization's home office, or conventional office, where an employee who does not telework works (Greer & Payne, 2014).

Virtual leadership: Leadership of virtual teams or e-leadership (El Khouly et al., 2014).

Virtual team: A group of people working together using computer communications to interact (Collins et al., 2014). A virtual team (also known as a

geographically dispersed team, or GDT) is a group of individuals who work across time, space, and organizational boundaries with links strengthened by webs of communication technology. Some never meet face to face and others do (El-Sofany, Alwadani, & Alwadani, 2014).

Work-family conflict: Situations in which conflicts occur or prioritization of work needs versus family needs occurs (Duxbury & Halinski, 2014b).

Work-life balance: The extent to which an employee is satisfied that his or her work role and life role is being effectively fulfilled according to his or her values at the time (Koh et al., 2013).

Assumptions

My primary assumption was that working remotely as a leader is a phenomenon that could be isolated and defined to create a group of people who uniquely experience the phenomenon being studied. Another assumption was that certain characteristics of this phenomenon can be further defined by setting certain characteristics, such as amount of interaction the leader has with his or her team while working remotely and the maximum amount of time that the leader spends working remotely. The assumption was that this phenomenon creates a common experience among those experiencing the phenomenon, even though they might work in different parts of the United States, or in different types of companies, or with slightly different teleworking arrangements. Setting specific parameters around leading remotely defines a phenomenon that resulted in a study that is transferable, dependable, confirmable, and credible. The ability to clearly define a phenomenon forms the basis for a phenomenological study. Participants ideally answered honestly and openly about their experiences of the phenomenon. My

assumptions also included my ability to bracket my own experiences of leading in a remote context.

Scope and Delimitations

Hiring managers face challenges in recruiting and retaining talent, particularly leadership talent, which is critical for organizational competitiveness and sustainability. When seeking perquisites to offer talented leaders, hiring managers need to understand how to structure an offer that might include telework as one of the perquisites. Because the telecommuting experience has been shown to vary based on the amount of time one spends away from the office, the goal of transferability warrants a consistent group of teleworkers, ones who telework an average of at least 1 day per week. Research on telework generally sets a lower boundary of time worked remotely; the upper boundary includes those who work remotely 100% of the time.

Because key distinguishing factors that differentiate a teleworking employee from a teleworking leader are the responsibilities that the leader has that require interaction and guidance of members of that leader's team, the goal was to select leaders who have requirements to interact with one's team members while working remotely. I did not select leaders whose work is largely independent so that while working remotely, little interaction with the home office is required. I excluded leaders who are away from their organizational office for only business meetings, because my intention was to study the experience of remote work that involves relating to one's team, rather than remote work that involves business meetings with outside parties such as customers or partners. As a rough guideline, selecting leaders who have five to 10 interactions (phone calls or emails, for example) per day while working remotely or a minimum of 25% of one's time spent

on team interaction while working remotely created a filter that resulted in participants with leadership responsibilities while working remotely.

The interview questions were open ended to spur free expression of the teleworking leader's experience of leading while teleworking facilitated the development of thick and rich descriptions that increased the likelihood of transferability. One way to do this was to ensure that the interview participant describe the meaning of various terms used in his or her interview response, rather than assume that his or her meaning is the same as mine. This also helped to reduce any biases that could improperly shape my interpretation of the interview participant's responses. For example, work-life balance likely had a different meaning to each interview participant.

Limitations

Limitations to this study might affect the study's transferability. One limitation derived from having the small sample size that is typical with qualitative research, because a small sample size potentially limits the transferability of my research results, even if saturation is reached. This is because the small sample size naturally excluded certain organizational contexts (types of industries, sizes of companies) due to its inability to be comprehensive. Providing clarity of context and deep descriptions of the settings in which my participants operate enabled readers to determine the applicability of my research to their own unique contexts. In addition, a deep description of the phenomenon also helps readers determine transferability (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). Rich descriptions of each participant's teleworking experiences could help to achieve saturation of data, resulting in thematically repetitive themes across multiple participants' experiences, which could facilitate transferability.

Weaknesses in this study may occur that reduce the study's dependability. The research results could be considered dependable if the data were consistent. This can be better assured in one's research with solid processes and approaches to getting data from participants that is responsive to one's research questions (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Limitations to dependability may occur if participants are unwilling to share their experiences with thorough and deep descriptions. Participants may not want to share negative or embarrassing experiences, which reduce the dependability of my research through the lack of full or complete answers to my questions. This issue can be mitigated through assurances of complete anonymity, and through compassionate and nonjudgmental interview processes.

The process of reflexivity refers to a deep assessment of one's biases (Patton, 2016). Reflexivity helps to improve the confirmability of my research. Even though one may admit the subjectivity in the world, one still can work to reduce its effect on one's research results (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). One bias derives from my own experiences as a teleworking leader. My schedule is to work from home an average of 2 days per week, and work in the office an average of 3 days per week. My remote work does not diminish the multitude of communication interactions with my team. This experience contributes to my role as a researcher in this study through my ability to relate to those teleworking leaders and also creates a challenge in my need to bracket my experiences so as not to bias my findings. Moustakas (1994) recommended bracketing as an exercise in self-reflection, to come to the realization that a person's experiences create biases that must be bracketed or transcended to avoid bias. To avoid biases to the extent possible, the researcher must reflect on his biases and ensure that his study provides a thorough

description of the biases and explains how the researcher dealt with these biases

(Maxwell, 2013). My process, therefore, included a review my interpretations of themes

in the interviews with my participants. The interview process did not include a discussion

of my own teleworking experience, so that participants would not bias their responses to

match my experience. These design approaches should help to mitigate bias and facilitate

confirmability of my research.

<div align="center">

Significance of the Study

</div>

The goal of this study was to provide an understanding of the experience of

leaders who telework. As hiring managers gain further understanding of the experience of

leaders who telework, and are able to use this understanding to use telework as a

recruitment and retention tool, telework has the potential to increase in frequency. The

resultant effect has implications for practice, theory, and social change.

Significance to Practice

This study could have a clear professional application, particularly because the

use of telework is here to stay with 24% of American workers reporting some level of

telework (Anderson et al., 2015). Organizations that allow telework, for employees with

or without managerial responsibilities, can realize competitive advantages by being able

to recruit from a broader talent base (Greer & Payne, 2014). Organizations that further

understand the experience of remote work for teleworkers including teleworking leaders

could gain additional organizational benefits such as increased productivity, reduced

operating costs, and better employee retention (Allen et al., 2015; Anderson et al., 2015;

Donnelly & Proctor-Thomson, 2015). Organizations can also realize reduced space

usage. In addition, telework can be used to facilitate work continuity in the case of

emergencies or natural disasters that prevent employees from traveling into work (Allen et al., 2015; Greer & Payne, 2014). The U.S. federal government promotes telework through the Telework Enhancement Act of 2010 for these reasons (Rodriguez, 2013). Understanding the experience of telework for a teleworking leader might help hiring managers craft effective teleworking arrangements that enable those organizations who offer telework a competitive advantage in recruiting and retaining talent that will help that organization be more competitive and more sustainable.

Significance to Theory

As the incidence of teleworking increases, it is only natural that researchers study how to lead in special contexts such as telework. Carter et al. (2015) claimed the importance of leadership as "foundational" because effective leadership is what facilitates an organization to meet its goals (p. 597). Landis et al. (2014) stressed that in environments of change such as that resulting from advances in technology, organizational leadership must evolve to meet these new challenges. One older study looked at the difference in employee work experience and outcomes depending on whether the employee's manager worked in the traditional organizational office, worked virtually full time, or teleworked on a part-time basis (Golden & Fromen, 2011). Golden and Fromen (2011) found statistically significant differences in work experience and outcomes, with the manager in the traditional office faring best relative to both the virtual manager and the teleworking manager, although by a small amount. The few studies that look at leadership in the context of telework attempt to apply existing leadership theories to the study of leadership. They stress that a key difference is the challenge of building the relationship aspects of leadership over technology. Leading collocated teams from a

remote location is a nuance that is not often discussed in the literature. Applying existing leadership theories is not necessarily the right answer to effective remote leadership. Leaders could benefit from finding effective ways to lead using technology. These leaders will want to understand how best to facilitate a dynamic team environment when the team is centered in one office location but the leader is remote. My research, which is intended to develop an understanding of the experiences of the teleworking leader, might help to understand these challenges, which could then lead to solutions and guidance as to how best to lead in this context. New theories of leadership from the specific perspective of a teleworking leader could provide leaders with practical approaches to being effective even if the leader teleworks.

Significance to Social Change

Social change means that the world is becoming a better place to live for all (Walden, 2014). Understanding telework could lead to the development of processes and practices that result in improved telework experiences or increases in telework use not only for leaders, but also for employees. Some of the improvements that can accrue from increased telework include reduced traffic and emissions, improved business continuity, and improved community relationships (Allen et al., 2015). Positive environmental effects of telework include improved greenhouse gas emissions, reduced traffic and fuel consumption, reduced crowding in cities, and reduced wearing down of roads and highways (Burbach & Day, 2015; Singh et al., 2013). Allen et al. (2015) listed the managing of risk by allowing telework to ensure business continuity as an advantage of telework. Social relationships with one's family and community could replace work relationships (Allen et al., 2015).

Telework increases women and minority population at work, which could result in a positive social effect through improved equal opportunity (Collins et al., 2013; Powell & Craig, 2015). Greer and Payne (2014) found that individuals who telework, whether employees or leaders, could achieve better work-life balance, which creates lower turnover intentions, less stress, and more job satisfaction. Allowing work processes that enable employees to participate in family life more fully is a positive benefit to society. Teleworking leaders could take leadership positions on telework within their organizations, strategically promoting telework to improve community traffic patterns. The potential for these effects will continue to increase with higher levels of telework implementation.

Summary and Transition

A key organizational challenge is the problem of recruiting and retaining leadership talent. Hiring managers can access a broader talent pool if the organization has more workplace flexibility such as telework to offer its employees. This applies not only to employees with special skills and talents, but also to leaders, who can provide organizations with competitive advantages for growth and sustainability. The first step in the development of such workplace flexibility practices is to understand the experiences of current teleworking leaders. Although a plethora of studies have focused on the nature of telework for employees, a gap in research on the various aspects of leadership in the context of teleworking exists. Leaders have challenges that are unique as compared to employees, because of a leader's role in an organization in guiding one's team members. A thorough review of the literature that was currently available on the topics of virtual teams, virtual leadership, remote leadership, and telework will further clarify this gap.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

With the challenges that organizations have in attracting and retaining qualified leaders, exacerbated by the exodus of many Baby Boomer generation leaders who are retiring, hiring managers need various perquisites to attract and retain talented leaders. The general problem that I addressed is that organizations have a finite number of perquisites, such as telework, to solve this problem of attracting and retaining qualified leaders. Although the growth of telework has exposed organizations to this mode of work and required organizations to develop some policies around telework, organizations have room to increase their knowledge as to how to effectively use telework as a perquisite. Increasing the understanding of the experiences of leaders who telework could add to this knowledge base and could further the effective use of telework. The purpose of my research was to fill a gap in the knowledge base regarding telework by creating increased understanding as to how leaders who telework perceive what it means to be a leader in the context of working remotely and using technology to communicate. Such research could also lay the groundwork for additional theory and practice development on the unique situation of leading while working remotely.

The content of this chapter includes a review of my literature search strategy, a description of my conceptual framework, and a review existing literature that is applicable to my research. The literature search strategy section showed the databases used to obtain peer-reviewed research articles, my book selections, and my searches for other information such as census data, to guide my research. In the conceptual framework section, I explained my perspective on the role of the conceptual framework, and described the conceptual framework that guided my study. The literature review provides

a review of the existing knowledge related to my topic of remote leadership. This literature review also showed that although substantial literature exists on the leadership of virtual teams and some literature on the leadership of employees who telework, there was a gap in the literature on the experience of leaders who telework and guide teams who predominantly work in collocated organizational offices.

Literature Search Strategy

I reviewed research on the topic of teleworking leadership and concepts adjacent to remote leadership of collocated teams because of the gap in research on remote leadership of collocated teams. The conceptual map in Figure 1 guided my research. These concepts included *leadership of virtual teams*, *experiences of teleworking employees*, and *leadership of employees who telework*. Search words included topical terms such as *recruiting talent*, *telecommuting, telework, remote work, leadership, remote leadership, virtual teams, virtual leadership,* and *e-leadership*, research design terms such as *phenomenology*, and conceptual framework terms such as *leader-member exchange, leader-follower, followership, transformational leadership,* and *transactional leadership*. My conceptual framework research and leadership research focused on resources that were meta-analyses and historical reviews of leadership. Each article underwent a quality review and assessment of its applicability to my study.
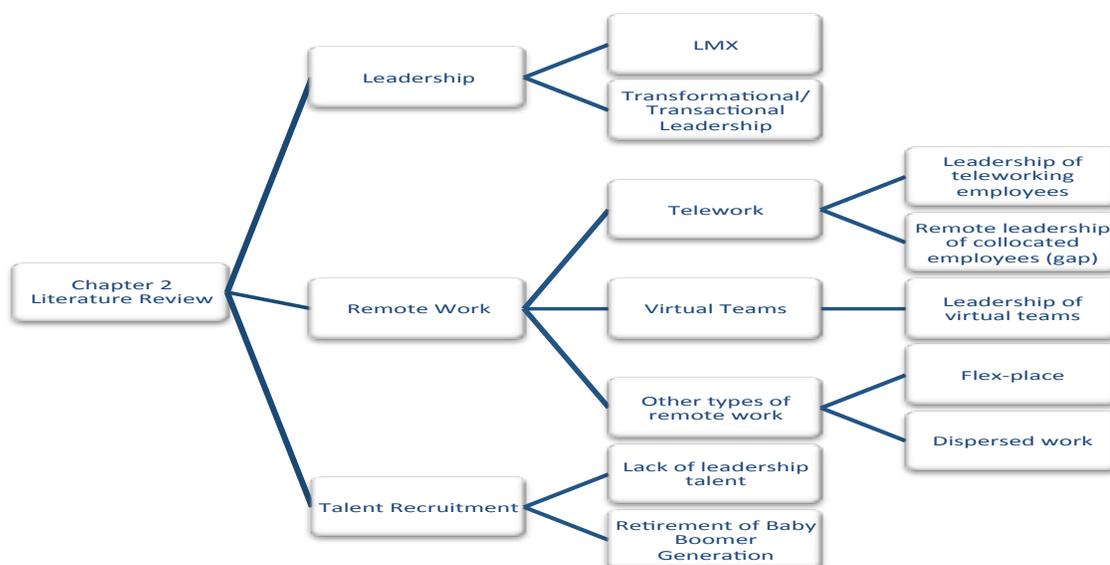
Figure 1. Concept map of the various concepts included in my literature search.

Databases that had relevant literature on leadership or the psychology of leadership provided the best research resources, whereas published books facilitated research into my design, method, and methodology, as shown in Table 1. EBSCOHost allowed me to search in the Business Source Complete, Academic Search Complete, and PsycInfo databases simultaneously, to avoid duplicate references. ProQuest provided access to the ABI/Inform database for international research papers. The first two databases, Business Source Complete and Academic Search Complete, provided relevant literature on leadership, particularly in the context of remote work. The PsycInfo database provided additional research on current leadership philosophies and conceptual frameworks. ABI/Inform provided additional international articles that may not have been included in Business Source Complete or Academic Search Complete.

A search for peer-reviewed literature from 2012 to the present resulted in more than 200 articles. A check against Ulrich's database (http://ulrichsweb.serialssolutions.com.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/), which is accessible

through the Walden University website, verified whether the journal achieved the status of peer-reviewed or refereed. If there was any question as to the article's status, the journal's own website provided verification that said journal was or was not peer-reviewed. The database search revealed that 45 of the articles that passed through the EBSCOHost and ABI/Inform database filters as "peer-reviewed" were in fact not peer-reviewed. I eliminated these from my literature review.

Table 1

Summary of Literature Search Categories and Databases

Content category	Category of literature	Databases	Key words
Topical	Peer-reviewed journals	• Business Source Complete • Academic Search Complete • PsycInfo	• recruiting talent • telecommuting • telework • remote work • virtual teams • social loafing
General leadership	Peer-reviewed journals	• Business Source Complete • Academic Search Complete • PsycInfo	• leadership • leader-member exchange • leader-follower • followership • transformational leadership • transactional leadership
Remote leadership	Peer-reviewed journals	• Business Source Complete • Academic Search Complete • PsycInfo	• remote leadership • virtual leadership • e-leadership
Dissertation design, method, and methodology	Peer-reviewed journals	• Business Source Complete • Academic Search Complete • PsycInfo	• phenomenology • qualitative research • interviewing
Dissertation design, method, and methodology	Books	• Amazon • Walden textbooks or recommended readings	• phenomenology • qualitative research • interviewing

Certain books contributed to the development of background for my research, for the development of my conceptual framework, and for my research method, design and methodology. When synthesized, these resources formed the basis for my study.

Conceptual Framework

The development of a conceptual framework for a research project relies on the researcher's definition of a conceptual framework, as well as an understanding of the purpose of a conceptual framework. Conceptual frameworks can have different meanings to different researchers, with some viewing the conceptual framework as the key theoretical tenets derived from one's literature review, others viewing the conceptual framework as equivalent to a theoretical framework, and still others viewing the conceptual framework as the process for linking the various elements of one's research (Ravitch & Riggan, 2017). Several authors concurred with the third perspective, that a conceptual framework is a dynamic system that ensures the ongoing alignment and structure throughout one's research process. Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) indicated that conceptual frameworks enable researchers to guide their research design, data collection, and data analysis. Maxwell (2013) indicated that the conceptual framework is a system that the researcher constructs, and that guides the entirety of the research process. Ravitch and Riggan (2017) further indicated that this construct evolves throughout the research process. The development of my own literature review relied on these perspectives, that the conceptual framework is a dynamic system grounded in the theoretical frameworks derived from my literature review to guide my research through the entirety of the research process.

Value of Leadership

The conceptual framework for my research began with the concept that the study of leadership is a worthwhile endeavor, because effective leadership results in positive organizational outcomes. A review of leadership research shows that leadership has been valued for centuries, because leadership is critical for organizational success (Landis et al., 2014; McCleskey, 2014). Extensive studies of leadership have proven the ability and role of leaders to inspire and motivate others to achieve or exceed organizational goals (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Historical studies under the great man theory in the 1800s assumed the power to accomplish organizational goals lay in the abilities of charismatic leaders (Dunn, Lafferty, & Alford, 2012). Over the last century, leadership has continued to be a key area of study, with theories of leadership evolving from the search for a universal theory to a more flexible and dynamic leadership approach that incorporates increasing complexity, relational dynamics between leaders and followers, and the dynamics of the systems in which organizational teams operate (Carter et al., 2015; Landis et al., 2014). The seminal theories of transformational leadership, transactional leadership or LMX have given way to applications of multiple theories, situational leadership, and the more intentional and strategic development of leadership focused on effectiveness and outcomes (McCleskey, 2014). This move from the concept of a universal leadership theory to the nature of leadership as relational and situational is an important perspective for the development of my research because this perspective calls for studies of leadership that are specific to individual contexts, such as leading remotely.

The Nature of Leadership as Relational

The relational nature of leadership can be shown to be a common theme in leadership studies throughout the last century to the present. Carter et al. (2015) asserted that leadership has always been relational, listing over 20 studies from 1925 to the present, showing definitions of leadership as a social process of mutual stimulation and influence. The emphasis on relationships has been driven in part by the popularity of transformational leadership theory, which focuses on the higher performance a leader can achieve when relationships with one's followers are strong (McCleskey, 2014). The development of leader-follower and LMX theories also emphasized the nature of the relationship dynamic between leaders and followers (Carter et al., 2015). Because of the ongoing pervasiveness of human social dynamics in contemporary leadership theories, the incorporation of the idea that leadership is relational into a conceptual framework for my study on remote leadership makes sense.

The relational aspects of leadership were an important factor in my research because relationships are a dynamic that can shift when a leader works remotely. Because telework is isolative, interpersonal dynamics are different than in an office environment (Dahlstrom, 2013). Factors that affect these relational dynamics include the stability of existing relationships, level of geographic and time dispersion, organizational culture, and the amount of time that an employee is remote versus in the office (Dahlstrom, 2103). Geographic dispersion alters the development of trust, expressions of conflict, and the quality of communications (Collins et al., 2014; Hosseini et al, 2013). However, studies on how leadership relations change in the context of geographic dispersion are still developing (Allen & Vakalahi, 2013). Further contributions to leadership studies that

examine the relational aspects of leadership in contexts such as remote leadership may be a valuable addition to the existing knowledge base.

The Nature of Leadership as Situational

Carter et al. (2015) indicated that leadership is highly situational, and that a single leadership style might be perceived differently in different contexts. Research today has evolved from the concept of a single most effective leadership style to the concept that leaders must change their style to match specific situations to be most effective (Ghasabeh, Reaiche, & Soosay, 2015; Landis et al., 2014; McCleskey, 2014). Van Wart (2013) indicated that some general leadership principles are broadly applicable, but once the leader is faced with specific situations, a leader must consider moderating his leadership approach to be most effective. Telework is a unique situational context that may warrant specialized leadership studies.

A leadership study wherein the central focus is a unique context, such as remote leadership, calls for a leadership approach that is tailored to that particular situation. Dunn et al. (2012) argued that situational leadership is the framework for new leadership concepts to be developed around contexts such as leadership of teams dispersed around the world. Researchers are starting to distinguish between leadership in a face-to-face environment versus a virtual environment (Fan et al., 2014; Kelley & Kelloway, 2012). Madlock (2013) asserted that most research on leadership is in the context of that face-to-face environment. Some attempt has been made to apply existing theories of leadership to the context of virtuality or geographic dispersion (Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014; Campbell, 2013). Others seek to develop new leadership models. Service and Kennedy (2012) were developing a comprehensive leadership model that works in a global context. Whether

these researchers look at existing leadership models and consider how they might apply to a remote context, or whether they seek to develop a new model of leadership demonstrates the call for an understanding of leadership in remote contexts. The next step then is to review what literature exists on remote leadership and consider its significance with respect to the conceptual framework of leadership as valued, relational, and situational.

Literature Review

The growth in remote work facilitated by the advances in communications technology have led to research on two contexts for remote work: telework, wherein individual employees who may or may not be part of a team work remotely, and virtual teams, wherein every team member works in a different location. The literature on teleworking employees has focused primarily on the nature of telework, and the advantages and disadvantages of teleworking to the employee and to the organization. This research has not distinguished between manager level and nonmanager level teleworkers, although approximately one third of the literature reviewed for this study indicated that managers, professionals, or knowledge workers are most likely to telework due to their ability to work autonomously. Powell and Craig (2015) further indicated that because telework is prevalent among managers and professionals, this group also tended to be more highly educated. Other researchers had participant groups that consisted of managers, but did not distinguish their findings separately for the managerial group. Greer and Payne (2014) conducted a survey in which 34% of participants had managerial titles but in their findings grouped managers and nonmanagers together. Graizbord (2015) expressed interview results from the entire group collectively although 20% of

teleworkers in his research had lower level positions with the rest being midlevel or executive level. The contextual situation wherein the remote manager leads a team that is collocated in the organization's traditional offices is a nuance that researchers rarely discussed.

Researchers of virtual teams have focused primarily on the unique challenges in developing team dynamics in a technology-mediated environment. Research on both remote leadership and virtual team leadership has looked at specific characteristics and challenges of leading remotely, particularly trust, communication, goal setting, time boundaries, and managing conflict. Geographic dispersion, whether in a remote work context or a virtual team dynamic, creates a unique context for the leader, which indicates that leaders might need to adapt their approaches when leading remotely. The difference in the dynamic and the relationship of the leader to the individual team members or to the whole team can be illustrated in the following figures.
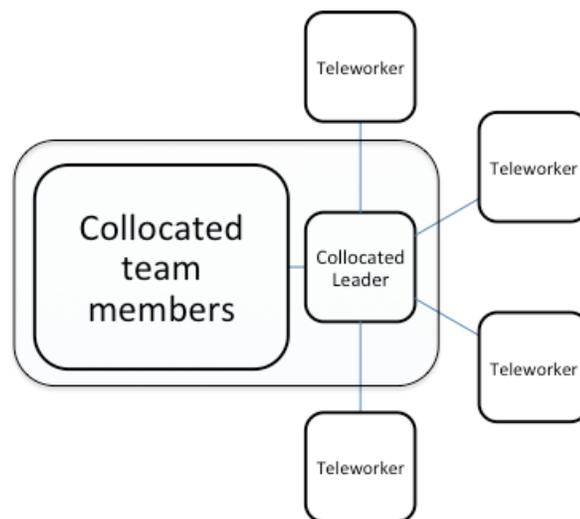
Figure 2. Team dynamic with teleworking employees. This figure represents the situation in which most of the team members are collocated at offices provided by the organization, along with the team leader, while a few team members work remotely.
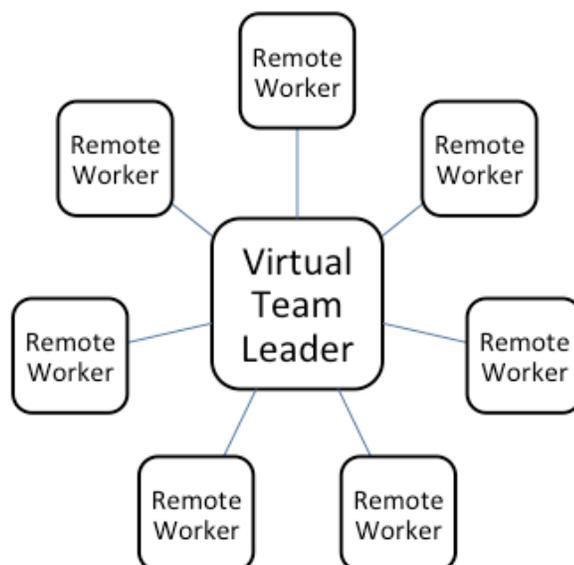
Figure 3. Team dynamic with virtual team. This figure shows a more balanced dynamic with every team member connected to the team leader from his or her location.
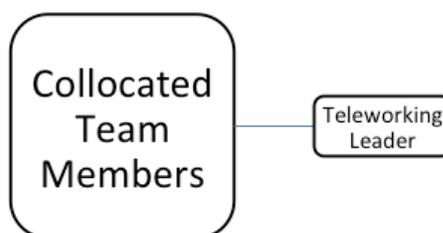
Figure 4. Team dynamic with teleworking leader. This figure shows that the teleworking leader is remote compared to the rest of the team that is collocated in the traditional offices of the organization.

Although the team dynamics shown in Figures 2 and 3 have been somewhat well

researched, this literature review showed the research gap related to the leadership

dynamic shown in Figure 4.

Research shows that finding talented leaders is challenging. These challenges

exist in multiple industries, across country boundaries, and in different sizes of

organizations. The retirement of the Baby Boomer generation is exacerbating the issue of

finding and retaining leadership talent. Some researchers have suggested using telework

as a perquisite to attract and retain talent. The literature review showed a gap in literature

with respect to the meaning of being a leader in the specific context wherein the leader works remotely, but the traditional organizational office houses the rest of his or her team. Filling this gap in knowledge could promote meaningful solutions to the organizational need for talent.

Telework and the Leadership of Teleworking Employees

Research on employees who telework focuses on the perspective of the employee, and the benefits and challenges resulting from this alternative work arrangement. Cooke et al. (2014) found that existing telework research is focused around three themes, the prevalence of telework in the workplace, characteristics of teleworkers, and the effect of telework on a worker's work-life balance, where the category of worker included managerial level employees. In addition to the effect on a worker's work-life balance, researchers also studied concerns of teleworkers with their remote work arrangement. Several researchers also studied the benefits and challenges of telework from the organization's perspective, including studies of organizational outcomes and the challenges of managing teleworking employees. I reviewed each of these topics and found a noticeable gap in literature around the specific experiences of leaders who telework.

Concept of telework. Researchers attribute the creation in the 1970's of the concept *telecommuting* or *telework* to Nilles (Caillier, 2013; Donnelly & Proctor-Thomson, 2015). Nilles developed the concept of telework while stuck in traffic in Los Angeles. He sought ways to reduce wasted time during one's commute to work. He later conducted research on the feasibility of different teleworking arrangements and their potential benefits to organizations (Zhang, 2016). Researchers use the terms

telecommuting and *telework* interchangeably (Zhang, 2016). Researchers have defined

telework as working from home or a location away from the traditional organizational

office, using computer technology to communicate (Bentley et al., 2016). Telework is

also formally defined under the U.S. Telework Enhancement Act of 2010 as "a work

flexibility arrangement under which an employee performs the duties and responsibilities

of such employee's position, and other authorized activities, from an approved worksite

other than the location from which the employee would otherwise work" (Caillier, 2013,

p. 638). The common thread among these concepts is that of working in a location

separate from an office provided by the organization, and using technology to

communicate with one's supervisor or the rest of the team in the office.

Although this definition of telework is a broad enough framework to enable a

wide range of research to be included in a review of telework, the specific context of each

study shows that the precise definition of telework varies among researchers. This

challenge of a lack of definition of telework not only creates debate around such

definition, but also affects the ability of researchers to come to conclusions about

telework (Allen et al., 2015; Cooke et al., 2014). Differences between permanent,

alternative, or occasional telework arrangements, voluntary or involuntary telework

arrangements in which an employee desires to telework as opposed to an organization

requiring the employee to telework, and the amount of time telecommuting are all

variables that could affect the outcome of a research study (Cooke et al., 2014;

Dahlstrom, 2013). Dahlstrom (2013), who wrote about teleworkers in general,

distinguished between periodically taking work home and setting up a home office or

remote office environment to work regularly out of the office. Each of these situations

sets up a specific context for the study of telework that needs to be considered in its broader application to other teleworking circumstances.

Another challenge with existing research and literature is the lack of focus on the experience of the teleworker with leadership responsibilities as compared to the teleworker without leadership responsibilities. Studies either generically discussed employees, teleworkers, or telecommuters, or they called out the number or percentage of managerial level teleworkers in their study without coming to any conclusions about managerial teleworkers as a subgroup. The one study that looked at the experience of subordinates of managers who worked in the traditional organizational office as compared to managers who teleworked for part of their work week, as compared to managers who worked virtually 100% of the time, found that subordinate experience and outcomes were worse for those who had a teleworking or virtual manager, but to such a small degree as to make the difference not consequential (Golden & Fromen, 2011).

The differences between formal and informal teleworking arrangements can have a significant effect on the teleworking experience of the employee. Letting an employee figure out all of the new dynamics of a remote relationship in an informal teleworking arrangement can feel different to the teleworker as compared to the situation where an organization provides formal support systems to facilitate the best work outcomes for the teleworking employee. This support could include information technology (IT) support for the teleworker, as well as other support such as training and task support (Allen et al., 2015; Friedman & Westring, 2015). Bentley et al. (2016) focused on social support such as managerial support and peer support for the teleworker, at managerial and nonmanagerial levels. Although most research on organizational support for teleworkers

is in the form of emotional support and technology support, a few researchers considered that the blurring lines between work and home could create the need to consider potential workers compensation liabilities for the organization or opportunities for additional support through organizational input into an employee's home office ergonomics (Allen et al., 2015; Ellison, 2012). Eversole, Venneberg, and Crowder (2012) hypothesized that supportive management could have the strategic intention of talent retention of teleworkers, but did not distinguish between managerial and nonmanagerial teleworkers. Consideration of the issues can drive teleworking from an accommodation for an employee to an organizational strategy for enhanced performance. This approach is even more critical when considering that a teleworking leader must not only complete his individual work in a remote context, but also guide others effectively.

Amount of telework and telework penetration. Despite the introduction of the concept of telework in the 1970's, telework barely existed until the 1990s (Alizadeh, 2012). The assessment of the level of adoption of telework is one of the biggest areas of disparity among researchers, in large part due to the differing frequencies of telework that researchers use to define their participant populations. Koh et al. (2013) defined workers who telework more than 2.5 days per week as *high-intensity* teleworkers. Certain researchers limited their assessments to these high-intensity teleworkers to prove certain hypotheses that they assumed would be harder to prove or nonexistent at lower levels of intensity. Giberson and Miklos (2013) also looked at high-intensity teleworkers, finding that there was more of a negative effect on coworker relationships than low-intensity telework. Koh et al. (2013) found that high-intensity teleworkers defined as those who worked from home more than 2.5 days per week had lower work-family conflict. Fonner

and Stache (2012) included anyone who teleworked at least 1 day per month, although

other researchers considered telework as working remotely at least 1 day per week

(Martin & MacDonnell, 2012; Neirotti, Paolucci, & Raguseo, 2013). Golden (2012)

compared teleworkers who worked during traditional business hours and teleworkers who

worked during nontraditional hours. Harmera and Pauleen (2012) looked at a specific

type of teleworker, which they called an *offroader,* who worked remotely in high

intensity bursts of activity to the exclusion of all other life activities on highly

autonomous projects. The one study of a non-US country Maruyama and Tietze (2012)

studied teleworkers at British Telecommunications PLC, dividing them into four

categories based on the amount of time worked at home, with the categories ranging from

greater than 90% work hours at home to under 40% of one's work hours at home. The

overarching assumption in these disparate definitions is that the amount of time that one

spends working remotely could moderate various study outcomes. Understanding the

norms of telework frequency could shape the perspective of telework for teleworking

leaders, with respect to their experiences of leading remotely versus face-to-face.

This disparity of definitions of telework has created confusion around the actual

growth in telework over the last several decades. Despite this confusion, all reports show

that telework usage is a significant number that is growing in the United States and

around the world. The vast majority of researchers focus on the number of teleworkers in

the United States. The United States has one of the highest rates of telework, driven by its

technological advancements and government support. Bayrak (2012) indicated that 17.2

million people telework in the United States. Allen, Cho, and Meier (2014) cited a survey

by Global Workplace Analytics that indicated that in 2011, telework in the United States

increased to 3.1 million, where telework is defined as working more than half time from home. Linden and Milchus (2012) showed the importance of distinguishing between self-employed and organizational employees, citing that 24.1 million workers teleworked at least 1 day per month in 2004, but of these, 16.5 million were self-employed and another 7.6 million were remote workers for organizations. Moon et al. (2014) cited the same statistic, with the number of remote workers increasing from 7.6 million to 12.4 million in 2006. Ellison (2012) cited a study by World at Work that indicated that telework growth increased from 23.5 million to 33.7 million between 2003 and 2008, where telework is working from home at least 1 day per month. Weyant and Palmer (2012) cited a World At Work study that indicated that 26 million individuals teleworked in 2010. Bayrak (2012) indicated that the number of people teleworking in the United States at any frequency reached 17.2 million in 2009. Giberson and Miklos (2013) cited a U.S. Census Bureau statistic that indicated that there was a 61% jump in telework between 2005 and 2009. Burbach and Day (2015) indicated that according to the Telework Research Network, telework has increased from four million in 1990 to almost 20 million in 1999 to a projected 30 million in 2011. Calvasina, Calvasina, and Calvasina (2012) cited a similar survey that indicated that 30 million work from home at least 1 day per week of which 2.8 million consider home their main office. Martinez and Gomez (2013) indicated that according to a U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics report, 84% of 16 million employees who do some work at home, do so at least 1 day per week. Rodriguez (2013) cited a study by International Data Corporation that expected 1.3 billion people to be teleworking in 2015 around the world. When counts do occur, they can conflict, likely indicating a difference in the definition of telework. The one study of a non-US country

indicated that in the United Kingdom, the incidence of telework tripled between 1998 and 2009, to 2.8 million (Maruyama and Tietze, 2012). The varying time points at which researchers measured numbers of teleworkers as well as the variance in the working definitions of telework contributed to the wide range of statistics on telework.

Penetration rates were another way that researchers evaluated the prevalence of telework. Penetration rates are the more common unit of measure for countries outside of the United States. Martin and MacDonnell (2012) in their meta-analysis of telework found that 2.2% to 12% of employees in the world telework. Cable and Elsbach (2012) indicated that telework is increasing, with the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics stating that 24% of people working from home part time while a United Kingdom survey in 2009 stated that one in eight work mostly from home. Robertson and Vink (2012) also cited a World at Work survey that indicated that 20% of employees in the United States telework. Greer and Payne (2013) showed that according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in 2013, 23% of employed persons work outside the home and 38% of employed persons with bachelor's degrees do some work outside the home. Kossek et al. (2015) indicated that 63% of U.S. employers allowed some work from home, with the caveat that acceptance of telework is inconsistent, as evidenced by large employers, such as Yahoo! and Best Buy, that recently set up policies to eliminate remote work. Beham, Baierl, and Poelmans (2015) found that despite the actions of Yahoo! and others, telework has increased in Europe and the United States over the past decade. Wheatley (2012) cited a lower statistic of telework in the United Kingdom, finding that in 2005 3.1 million or 11% of employees worked from home. Koh et al. (2013) cited a Robert Half 2012 survey of human resources directors that indicated that 79% of the companies in 13

countries allowed employees to telework. Cooke et al. (2014) indicated that the penetration of telework in Canada is 4% to 25%, depending on the source. Hynes (2014) compared telework penetration in different countries with some having higher penetrations (over 5%) such as Sweden (16.8%), Netherlands (14.5%), Denmark (10.5%), Austria (10.1%), the United Kingdom (7.6%), and Germany (6%), whereas others lagged, including Ireland (4.4%), Italy (3.8%), France (2.9%), and Spain (2.8%). However, this assessment was conducted in 2000, prior to the enactment in 2002 of the European Framework Agreement on Telework. Robertson and Vink (2012) indicated that 15.2% of employees in the Netherlands telework. Vink, Blok, Formanoy, de Korte, and Groenesteijn (2012) confirmed the penetration of telework in the Netherlands is 15%. Vitola and Baltina (2013) made a case for rural telework, using Latvia as a case study, where 15% of employees telework but significantly more (83%) are willing to consider telework. Troup and Rose (2012) indicated that in Australia, the goal of government is to increase telework penetration to 12% in 2020 from 6% in 2006. Allen et al. (2015) found telework to be popular in India, Indonesia, and Mexico. Alizadeh (2012) pegged telework penetration in the United States, Canada, Europe, and Australia as between 10% and 30%, rates that the author considered indicative of general levels of adoption of telework, rather than specific penetration rates to be numerically analyzed. Cultural differences could affect the penetration of telework, with countries with predominantly low-skilled workers being slower to adopt telework (Toaddy, 2014). Allen et al. (2015) concluded that despite these varying measurements, telework affects a significant number of workers. The data from the various studies substantiates this conclusion. Although a few of the studies distinguished between numbers or penetration rates of teleworkers of

different intensity levels, no research looked at the penetration rates or numbers of teleworking leaders.

Because the statistics provided are for different years, different locations, and different definitions of telework, obtaining clarity on the actual levels of penetration or numbers of teleworkers can be challenging. Allen et al. (2015) listed four variations in the way telework is studied: periodic versus full-time work at home, sampling various types of teleworkers, different sampling strategies, and reporting units of number versus percentage. Regardless of the variables, the researchers are consistent in indicating that telework is present and growing. Table 2 summarizes the findings from a review of the literature on telework penetration and prevalence.

Table 2

Summary of Research Data on Telework Penetration and Prevalence

Source	Date of Source	Date of Statistic	Statistic	Location	Definition of Telework
Alizadeh	2012		10% - 30%	World	General levels of adoption in S, Canada, Europe, Australia
Allen, Cho & Meier	2014	2011	3.1 million	United States	At least half-time from home
Bayrak	2012		17.2 million	United States	Any amount
Bayrak	2012	2009	17.2 million	United States	Any frequency
Vink, Blok, Formanoy, de Korte, Groenesteijn	2012		15%	Netherlands	
Burbach & Day	2015	1990	4 million		
Burbach & Day	2015	1999	20 million		
Burbach & Day	2015	2011	30 million		
Cable & Elsbach	2012		24% of employees	United States	Part-time from home
Cable & Elsbach	2012	2009	12.50%	United Kingdom	Mostly from home
Cable & Elsbach	2012	2009	20%	United Kingdom	Fewer than three days per week
Calvasina, Calvasina & Calvasina	2012		30 milion		At least one day per week
Calvasina, Calvasina & Calvasina	2012		2.8 million		Home is their main office
Cooke, Chowhan & Cooper	2014		4% to 25%	Canada	Penetraion of telework
Ellison	2012	2003	23.5 million		At least one day per month
Ellison	2012	2008	33.7 million		At least one day per month
Giberson & Miklos	2013	2005 to 2009	61% increase		
Greer & Payne	2014	2013	23%	United States	% of employed persons that do some work from home
Greer & Payne	2014	2013	38%	United States	% of employees with bachelor's degree that do some work from home
Hynes	2014	2000	16.80%	Sweden	
Hynes	2014	2000	14.50%	Netherlands	
Hynes	2014	2000	10.50%	Denmark	
Hynes	2014	2000	10.10%	Austria	
Hynes	2014	2000	7.60%	United Kingdom	
Hynes	2014	2000	6%	Germany	
Hynes	2014	2000	4.40%	Ireland	
Hynes	2014	2000	3.80%	Italy	
Hynes	2014	2000	2.90%	France	
Hynes	2014	2000	2.80%	Spain	
Linden & Milhus	2012	2004	24.1 million		At least one day per month
Linden & Milhus	2012	2004	16.5 million		Self-employed
Linden & Milhus	2012	2004	7.6 million		Work for organizations
Martin & MacDonnell	2012		2.2% - 12%	World	Meta-analysis, at least one day per week
Martinez & Gomez	2013		16 million	United States	Some work from home
Martinez & Gomez	2013		13 million	United States	At least one day per week
Maruyama & Tietze	2012	2009	2.8 million	United Kingdom	
Moon, Linden, Bricout & Baker	2014	2004	7.6 million		Work for organizations
Moon, Linden, Bricout & Baker	2014	2006	12.4 million		Work for organizations
Robertson & Vink	2012		20%	United States	
Robertson & Vink	2012		15.20%	Netherlands	
Rodriguez	2013	2015	1.3 billion	Global	
Troup & Rose	2012	2006	6%	Australia	
Troup & Rose	2012	2020	12%	Australia	Goal of government
Vitola & Baltina	2013		15%	Latvia	
Weyant & Palmer	2012	2010	26 million		
Wheatley	2012	2005	3.1 million	United Kingdom	
Wheatley	2012	2005	11%	United Kingdom	

The preponderance of employees who telework and the clear growth in telework over the last few decades supports the presumption that studies of telework are worthwhile endeavors.

Types of organizations that favor telework. Given the current and anticipated penetration of telework, studies that look at telework policies and the use of telework as an organizational success strategy are important for organizations who are making decisions on telework adoption. These same organizational characteristics could signal organizations that are open to using telework to recruit and retain leadership talent. Cooke et al. (2014) found that innovative organizations supported telework to benefit employee needs as well as organizational needs, but that contrary to their assumptions, organizations that emphasized employee involvement or cost containment strategies did not result in higher levels of telework. Giberson and Miklos (2013) found that younger firms and smaller firms were more likely to support telework. Moon et al. (2014) recommended that telework be used as a strategy for flexible hours rather than a permanent accommodation. Calvasina et al. (2012) suggested that organizations consider establishing a policy that looks at whether the employee has the characteristics suitable for telework, namely a strong work ethic and the ability to work autonomously. These studies were among the few to look at telework as a strategic tool to meet organizational goals, because most other studies simply sought to understand what telework is and the benefits and challenges for organizations and employees.

The benefits and challenges of telework. Advancements in communications technology have enabled telework to grow, particularly for certain types of jobs (Bentley et al., 2016). Employees with jobs that can be done in a remote work arrangement can then make decisions as to whether pursue teleworking arrangements based on expected benefits tempered by expected challenges. The rationale for employees to desire to telework and for organizations to support teleworking employees is one of the most

commonly studied aspects of telework. Similarly, organizations may allow or promote telework if telework facilitates organizational goals that outweigh the organizational challenges of allowing telework. Government initiatives in support of telework can facilitate its growth and acceptance. Telework also has certain social benefits including potential reductions in car emissions. The following sections review existing literature on these benefits and challenges of telework.

Types of jobs that enable telework. With respect to the type of employee who teleworks or is allowed to telework, one characteristic that seems to dominate are those workers with the ability to work autonomously, having specialized knowledge to do their work, hence the label *knowledge worker.* Bentley et al. (2016) focused their study on 804 knowledge workers who teleworked. Professionals are allowed to commute more than employees who have clerical jobs (Onchoke & Akash, 2012). Yet some clerical work can be performed at home, as shown in a qualitative study that sought to understand the psychological contract between thirteen clerical workers whose company demoted or who gave up promotions in exchange for the opportunity to work at home (Collins et al., 2013). Eversole et al. (2012) floated the idea of allowing experienced workers who might otherwise retire to use telework so that organizations could retain their expertise. The nature of telework as isolated and autonomous presents an interesting dilemma for the leader wishes to telework, because the remote and isolative nature of telework as described challenges the leader to fulfill his leadership responsibilities as a coordinator, guide, and inspiration to the team members who are working together in the organization's offices.

Employee rationale for telework. Letting employees telework results in reduced expenses, reduced commute time, reduced travel costs, and increased nonwork time (Bentley et al., 2016). These benefits can lead to reduced stress, improved work-life balance, and increased job satisfaction (Burbach & Day, 2015). An additional benefit is increased productivity resulting from more quiet time and fewer work interruptions (Kaplan, 2014; Madlock, 2013), although Fonner and Roloff (2012) suggested that the nature of the interruptions can change because technology allows the teleworker to be contacted at all hours. Reduced expenses could include money saved on travel to work, reduced childcare expenses, and reduced clothing expenses (Burbach & Day, 2015). Because the responsibilities of teleworking leaders could include independent work activities, the teleworking leader could realize these same benefits as the teleworking employee.

Work-life balance is a key driver of an employee's desire to telework (Brunelle, 2013; Burbach & Day, 2015; Church, 2015). Powell and Craig (2015) included the ability to handle family responsibilities, handle domestic care duties, facilitate child care, enjoy more leisure time, and get more sleep as factors in the work-life balance equation. Church (2015) cited reduced commute time as a contributor to better work-life balance. Leduc, Houlfort, and Bourdeau (2016) indicated that although most studies of work-life balance looked at families with young children, the consideration of work balanced with the rest of one's life should include family structures of all types. Kossek et al. (2015) cited elder care as a need to use telework for work-life balance. The multitude of work-life balance issues that different employees have shows that work-life balance might not be a single measure or variable in studies on telework.

Some studies suggest that having clear boundaries between work and family life produce better job satisfaction and less stress (Allen et al., 2014; Church, 2105; Greer & Payne, 2014). In contrast, Leduc et al. (2016) conducted a quantitative study that found evidence that the blurring of some work-life boundaries in both directions (bringing work into the home and bringing home into work) enriched one's work and family life. An employee who teleworks can establish the appropriate boundary control to maximize his work-life balance tuned to that employee's particular needs.

Although increased productivity can be an organizational driver of telework, employees also desire to increase their productivity. Fewer office interruptions and less wasted time spent in idle office gossip are two key advantages to employees who telework (Burbach & Day, 2015; Madlock, 2013). Ravas (2013) listed reduced distractions, reduced time for travel to work, fewer days off for illness, and higher time schedule flexibility as drivers of increased productivity. Martin and MacDonnell (2012) in a meta-analysis of 22 studies found that telework definitively improved employee productivity. Patterson, Harvey, and Bosco (2014) listed reduced stress as a driver for improved productivity. Employees who benefit from increased productivity experience greater job satisfaction and lower stress. Increased productivity would likely be a factor in a leader's decision to telework.

The way the work-life balance emerges may be different for females who telework as compared to males who telework. Alizadeh (2012) conducted a survey of three live-work communities that showed that female and male teleworkers used their flexible time differently, although the distribution between male and female teleworkers was approximately the same. In particular, men took work breaks to exercise or pick up

children, whereas women took work breaks to for domestic activities or other activities related to their children's school. Collins et al. (2013) found that women requested telework arrangements more than men, but that organizations granted men more telework opportunities than women. Considerations of diverse needs for telework between men and women may need to be incorporated into one's decision to telework or an organization's decision as to how to support telework.

One area of literature that could use additional study is matching the choice of an employee to telework with the permission of an employer to accommodate and support an employee's teleworking desires. Singh et al. (2013) found that employees with long commutes over 20 miles or who have flexible work hours are more likely to have the option to telework whereas people who work fewer than 34 hours per week and employees who live in high density households are less likely to have the option to telework. Stout, Awad, and Guzman (2013) found that manager's perspectives on telework are critical in the decision as to whether to allow an employee to telework. The matching of an employee's desire to telework and that employee's supervisor's decision to allow and support telework can make a difference in the success of the teleworking arrangement.

To improve an employee's experience of telework, organizations can provide a number of supports. A survey of 804 knowledge workers found that organizational support for telework, which included manager support, manager trust in the teleworking employee, and information and communications technology, increased job satisfaction, reduced psychological strain, and reduced social isolation (Bentley et al., 2016). These outcomes are significant because researchers have shown that increased employee job

satisfaction results in increased performance and reduced turnover intentions (Dahlstrom, 2013). When considering whether to hire an organizational leader who wishes to telework, or whether to allow an existing organizational leader to telework to retain that leader, organizational supports can enhance that leader's effectiveness.

Employee challenges with telework. Researchers often discuss the challenges that employees have with their telework arrangements. Certain of these challenges apply to the teleworking leader, and can be more or less exacerbated by the different demands on a leader as compared to an employee without supervisory duties. One of the primary disadvantages repeatedly cited in literature is the social isolation that the teleworker experiences by not being in the central office (Burbach & Day, 2015; Chen & McDonald, 2015; Greer & Payne, 2014). In a study of employees across 24 countries, 62% felt social isolation to be a key challenge of their teleworking experience (Allen et al., 2015). One study found that social isolation was the key reason that employees who tried telework decided to return to work in the office environment (Bloom, Liang, Roberts, & Ying, 2015). In the context of social identity theory, Belle, Burley, and Long (2015) found that social isolation negatively affected an employee's sense of organizational belonging. The significant amount of time that people spend at the activity of work makes the social effect of the work environment is strong. With this knowledge, organizations can take active steps to reduce social isolation, through organizational support systems for telework. The provision of such organizational support systems can reduce social isolation and improve an employee's well-being (Bentley et al., 2016). The amount of time that an employee spends working in the organizational office as compared to the time spent working at home can also affect the level of social isolation felt by an

employee. More isolation resulting from increased levels of telework can reduce performance (Allen et al., 2015). Thus, social isolation ties into a number of different challenges for both the employee and organization in ways that neither the employee nor the organization might anticipate.

Work-family conflict is another area that deserves special consideration in teleworking arrangements. Although many studies have shown that work-life balance improves with teleworking arrangements (Donnelly & Proctor-Thomson, 2015; Madlock, 2013; Stout et al., 2013), some research has shown that teleworkers have experienced increased conflict as a result of working at home (Higgins, Duxbury, & Julien, 2014). Drivers of this conflict could be excessive family demands, blurred work-family boundaries, and excessive work demands resulting from increased accessibility of the employee. Hilbrecht, Shaw, Johnson, and Andrey (2013) found that telework could improve work-life balance or telework could create more challenges, particularly for a working mother. Although fathers appreciated the additional time with their children, their work schedules did not change as they did for the mother, who tended to accrue more responsibilities resulting from a teleworking arrangement (Hilbrecht et al., 2013). Duxbury and Halinski (2014b) found that work role overload led to increased family conflicts. Greer and Payne (2014) found that teleworkers often work extra hours at home, causing increased family stress. Technology also facilitates increased work hours and expectations of accessibility around the clock and on weekends, which can create work overload, resulting in lower job satisfaction and negative work performance (Duxbury & Halinski, 2014b). Mustafa and Gold (2013) emphasized problems that employees have with being unable to have their work lives infringe on their family lives, dramatically

portraying the issue through the title of their article, *"Chained to my work?"* Kossek et al. (2015) found that employees who are reactive to insistent demands or interruptions from either work or family experienced higher levels of stress and conflict. Koh et al. (2013) found that only high intensity teleworkers could achieve lower work-family conflict. Even as telework has been found to improve work-life balance, high levels of telework have been found to negatively affect family life. Golden (2012), in a study of 316 teleworkers, found that work impinging on family life caused exhaustion, which is related to lower performance and burnout, resulting in increased turnover and negatively affects one's health. Giberson and Miklos (2013) found that high intensity telework had a negative effect on coworker relationships. This negative effect is an issue that deserves some special attention when considering what type of employees are appropriate for telework and what arrangements will not cause unintended consequences. Work-family conflict is also a consideration for teleworking leaders who often have to deal with unexpected demands from work.

Additional disadvantages for employees who telework include reduced spontaneity, increased expenses from nonreimbursed technology costs, distractions at home, the need for discipline to get work done, less visibility, increased conflict (Burbach & Day, 2015; Madlock, 2013). Employees worry about being passed over for promotion opportunities, smaller raises, and losing the effectiveness and connectedness that comes from informal work conversations in face-to-face settings (Burbach & Day, 2015; Dahlstrom, 2013; Kossek et al., 2015). Negative perceptions of employees who telework is a key factor in considering potential perspectives on leaders who telework. Raghuram and Fang (2014) found that these perceptions might be lessened if one's supervisor also

teleworks. Although these challenges do not make a case against telework, both employees and supervisors should preemptively address these challenges to make the teleworking arrangement as effective as possible.

Organizational rationale for telework. Organizational rationales for telework include reduced absenteeism, improved employee morale (for the teleworkers), better employee retention, reduced socializing in the office, greater organizational commitment, reduced expenses from office space and parking, and higher productivity due to fewer office distractions, and meeting workforce needs, including access to a global talent pool (Burbach & Day, 2015; Greer & Payne, 2014; Kossek et al., 2015; Moon et al., 2014). Research has shown that telework increases productivity, primarily due to less absenteeism and fewer distractions. Actual measures of increased productivity are less prevalent. Bloom et al. (2015) conducted a randomized control trial (RCT) study of call center operators and found a 13% performance increase due to more minutes on calls per shift resulting from fewer breaks and fewer sick days, a 4% increase in the number of calls per minute, attributed to a quieter work environment, and an increase in Total Factor Productivity, which takes into account all cost reductions and productivity gains, from 20% to 30%. Gajendran, Harrison, and Delaney-Klinger (2015) conducted a study and found that performance, as measured by supervisor ratings, was higher for teleworkers than nonteleworkers. Martin and MacDonnell (2012) conducted a meta-analysis and found that telework was associated with perceptions of increased productivity. Allen et al. (2015) suggested that organizational leaders consider the increased productivity of the teleworking employee as balanced against the potential reduced team productivity from having certain team members telework. Except for the study by Bloom et al. (2015)

limitations of these studies included uncertainty around whether causality can be implied that telework increased productivity, or that organizational leaders granted telework opportunities to those employees who were the most productive.

Along with deciding which employees are suitable for telework, organizational leaders should look at the nature of their industry to assess the appropriateness of telework for their company. Neirotti et al. (2013) looked at eight organizational characteristics to evaluate whether telework could potentially benefit the organization. Organizational characteristics that supported arguments for telework included the ability to offer telework as a perquisite to satisfy the need for human capital, the availability of updated technology in the organization to support telework, and the level of innovation that could drive the need for teleworking processes (Neirotti et al., 2013). An organizational characteristic that did not support arguments for telework was the level of capital equipment needed by the organization, such as with manufacturing, which signals the need for a lot of hands on work that would preclude telework (Neirotti et al., 2013). Further studies could provide nuanced forms of assessment as to the viability of telework for organizations.

Telework can also facilitate business continuity. If workers are already connected via a home office to their work environment, they could potentially continue to work at home in an emergency situation that prevents access to one's organizational office. The United States Telework Act of 2010 recommended that government agencies include telework in a business continuity plan (Rodriguez, 2013). Business continuity would be an important aspect of a teleworking leader's role.

Organizational challenges with telework. One of the most frequently cited

challenges for organizations with teleworking employees is the leader's perceived loss of

control by not having the teleworking employee visibly working in the office. Monitoring

quality of outcomes produced by teleworking employees rather than controlling the

quantity of time that an employee spends in the office requires a shift in perspective as

well as the development of new leadership skills for the leader of the teleworking

employee (Savolainen, 2014). Issues of trust emerge as a key factor in shifting this

perspective. One issue that has not been reviewed in the literature is whether a leader who

teleworks can trust that the team that is collocated in the traditional office will continue to

be as productive as when he is in the office.

Issues related to employee performance include a lack of access to employee

work product at home and decreased communication (Burbach & Day, 2015). Despite

concerns about monitoring employees who worked offsite, Caillier (2013) in a survey of

over 7600 federal employees found that the level of accountability that teleworkers and

nonteleworkers felt and the level of feedback given to the two groups was the same. A

more thorough discussion of this challenge as well as additional leadership considerations

for telework are discussed later in this literature review.

Other challenges for organizations that allow telework include the potential for

reduced productivity, information security breaches, the feeling of disconnection by

teleworkers, reductions in the lack of organizational identity by teleworkers, and

workplace safety issues (Burbach & Day, 2015). Although greater productivity from

teleworkers has been proven (Donnelly & Proctor-Thompson, 2015), reduced

productivity can also occur if the teleworker does not get adequate supervision, is unclear

on organizational goals, or has worse home technology than that available in the organizational office (Burbach & Day, 2015). One liability that is rarely discussed in literature is workers' compensation claims for injuries in one's home office, because organizational leaders rarely control home office environments (Allen et al., 2015). Organizational leaders need to consider these challenges in allowing employees to telework.

Although most research is done from the perspective of the individual teleworking employee, or the leader who has to supervise that employee, some research also delves into how the team dynamic changes when a few individuals begin to telework. Kossek et al. (2015) suggested that organizations be careful of nonteleworking employees who might feel that they get stuck with the last minute emergency tasks or that leaders show favoritism when they allow certain employees to telework and do not allow others. Telework might reduce team cohesiveness through perceptions of unequal treatment either to teleworkers or to other team members who are not allowed to telework, the exclusion of teleworkers from meetings (Burbach & Day, 2015). These problems can be exacerbated if employees who are allowed to telework are not fit for a teleworking arrangement or if the type of job that an employee has is not conducive to a telework (Heng, Hooi, Loh, Ong, & Hong, 2013). Thinking beyond the teleworking employee to the team that now has to deal with changes in the team dynamic is an important factor when considering allowing an employee to telework.

Additional challenges occur as a result of the lack of physical presence of a teleworking employee. The organizational leader might have challenges in scheduling meetings and ensuring meetings are effective (Kossek et al., 2015). In addition, the

feeling of social isolation can be heightened when the teleworking employee is not part of the natural camaraderie that can occur in a face-to-face meeting. Although there may be ways to deal with these challenges, the new team dynamic may warrant a more formal telework arrangement that includes a certain amount of face-to-face time so that the teleworking arrangement not only benefits the teleworking employee, but also upholds the quality of work of the team and ensures positive outcomes for the organization.

When telework first emerged, researchers anticipated high growth levels as organizations adopted telework policies to facilitate employee needs. Although telework has been growing as previously shown with the various statistics measuring the number of teleworkers and the penetration of telework, adoption is less than originally anticipated (Martin & MacDonnell, 2012). They hypothesized that the lack of adoption may be because broad scale adoption requires an organizational commitment to telework, and therefore organizational leaders need to see pervasive organizational outcomes. Martin and MacDonnell (2012) conducted their meta-analysis of 22 studies to provide a confluence of evidence that organizations benefit from developing telework programs on an organization-wide level. The acceptance of these findings may spur future growth in telework.

Government initiatives to promote telework. Governmental agencies have played a role in increasing the penetration of telework. In the United States, the federal government has supported telework through the passage of the Telework Enhancement Act of 2010. The funding of federal and state demonstration projects resulted in an estimated 10,000 federal employees teleworking in 1997 (Allen et al., 2015). Today, an estimated 25% of Federal US employees telework (Burbach & Day, 2015). Certain states

such as Virginia, Arizona, California, Connecticut, Michigan, Minnesota, Oregon, Rhode Island, Texas, and Utah and various cities such as Dallas, Phoenix, and San Diego allow telework for government employees (Burbach & Day, 2015). As might be expected, government agencies that allow telework have formalized plans that spell out various aspects of the teleworking arrangement. Mahoney (2014) found that the United States Department of Commerce has a teleworking plan that includes training, eligibility requirements, as well as the nature of the teleworking arrangement (ongoing, regularly schedule, situational/ad hoc, or unscheduled). The 2002 European Framework Agreement on Telework provided similar guidance (Hynes, 2014). This 2002 agreement allowed individual countries to set their own processes for telework development yet not always effectively (Hynes, 2014). For example, Ireland set forth a vision of being friendly toward telework arrangements in its Programme for Prosperity and Fairness, but a lack of regulation for its implementation has hindered its adoption (Hynes, 2014). The extent to which the government takes the lead in the promotion of telework could affect the acceptance of telework for leaders.

Societal benefits of telework. The societal benefit attributable to telework that researchers cite is the benefit from reduced traffic and reduced pollution. Allen et al. (2015) credited the passage of the Clean Air Act in 1970 and its amendments in 1977 and 1990 with pushing employers to develop commuter options to reduce pollution from vehicle travel. Glass, Kenjegalieva, and Sickles (2013) conducted a quantitative analysis showing how large and medium cities could manage traffic congestion, by increasing Total Factor Productivity, a measure of efficiency of travel, using a number of means including telework. Hynes (2014) cited an assessment that predicted 10 million fewer car

trips if 10% of employees in Ireland teleworked 1 day per week. Increasing public pressure to support telework can potentially be addressed by leaders who telework and guide their organizations through meaningful telework initiatives.

Leadership of teleworking employees. The prior discussion has focused on the perspectives of telework for the teleworking employee and organizational perspectives on the teleworking employee. Researchers examining leadership and telework predominantly look at the experience of the leader of a teleworking employee. Kelley and Kelloway (2012) indicated that although substantial research exists on transformational leadership and its effectiveness, research that discusses transformational leadership in different contexts, particularly in a remote context, is lacking. Often the leadership that is discussed relates to that of a virtual leader, or a leader of virtual teams. Leading a team at the central office from a remote location, or teleworking leadership, is rarely mentioned. Instead, teleworking leadership is usually mentioned in passing as to how telework is better accepted when one's manager also teleworks. A return to the conceptual framework of leadership blended with the findings from the literature review on telework can provide some initial insights into the research gap that this study hopes to fill.

Application of existing leadership models such as LMX and social identity theory stress the relational aspects of leadership that change in a teleworking dynamic. Leadership involves guiding and inspiring individuals and teams and incentivizing employees to reach organizational goals. Processes to achieve these goals include developing trust and communicating clearly. Trust-building and inspiration make the relational aspect of leadership is a prime consideration. In the LMX framework of leadership, help-seeking creates reciprocity issues. One aspect of trust is helping the

employee to feel comfortable with seeking help, which might be moderated in a teleworking relationship where the absence of physical cues increases the vulnerability of the one seeking help due to a lack of visual feedback (Golden & Schoenleber, 2014). Organizational leaders who create a culture of team cohesiveness will facilitate help-seeking behaviors. The development of help-seeking behaviors can be accomplished by recognizing that distance, even if in the same geographical area, reduces the opportunity for impromptu conversations. This communication barrier reduces productivity and performance (Barnwell, Nedrick, Rudolph, Sesay, & Wellen, 2014). In addition, communication over technology tends to be more impersonal, and related to tasks rather than relationship building, resulting in less trust (Mendez, Al Arkoubi, & Cai-Hillon, 2015). Because trust is critical for effective leadership, trust-building must be a priority for teleworking leaders.

Another challenge with leading remotely is goal setting. Although opportunities for goals to be set by the remote leader exist, distance and the lack of face-to-face communication hampered the leader's ability to clarify goals (Barnwell et al., 2014). The management of a team over technology was more effective when strategies for to establish common goals are set (Mendez et al., 2015). Clarity of communication of these goals was a key role of leadership.

Madlock (2013) used the conceptual framework of social identity theory and social isolation theory to study the types of motivating language that were best in a teleworking environment. Research using 177 surveys found that direction-giving motivating language was more effective than empathetic or meaning-giving language, where effectiveness was measured by job satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and

organizational commitment (Madlock, 2013). This research signals some considerations for teleworking leaders remotely managing the team at the home office. This lack of telework adoption for employees who are not leaders may signal the challenges with allowing leaders to telework.

Clark, Karau, and Michalisin (2012) looked at the Big Five personality dimensions of leadership as applied to a teleworking context. The authors found that Agreeableness was positively correlated to acceptance of telework and Emotional Stability was negatively correlated to acceptance of telework. They found no connection between the other three traits, Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness (Clark et al., 2012). Although the researchers conducted this study from the perspective of a leader of teleworking employees, the question of whether these findings are also applicable to a teleworking leader of collocated employees exhibits the gap in literature that has yet to be filled.

Remote leadership studies are not common (Pinar, Zehir, Kitapçi, & Tanriverdi, 2014). Like teleworking leaders, the remote leader is physically isolated from the team members. Characteristics or needs of remote leaders include remaining relevant, empowering team members to be self-directed, developing trust among team members, and setting common goals (Barnwell et al., 2014; Mendez et al., 2015). Muganda and Pillay (2013) recommended specific forms of power (such as reward, legitimate, or expert power) to establish legitimacy and coalition building to enhance team trust. Wadsworth and Blanchard (2015) suggested that certain forms of power that are used in face-to-face situations may engender different dynamics in situations where employees are remote. Fan et al. (2014) studied whether direction giving or encouraging empathetic

style of leadership worked best to drive creativity in a virtual environment, and found that

direction-giving created more ideas. Based on these limited studies, trust and power

emerge as key themes for the teleworking leader.

Virtual Teams and Overlap with Telework

With the advent of remote work, particularly in a global context, researchers have

focused on the dynamics of virtual teams and virtual team leadership more than telework

or working from home. An argument might be made that certain aspects of virtual team

leadership can be applied to remote leadership because both involve leading teams using

technology to communicate. The lack of emotion in an online communication dynamic is

a characteristic of virtual teams (Baralou & McInnes, 2013) and has previously been

shown to be a characteristic of remote work.

Virtual teams are work groups usually in multinational corporations that work

across geographic, multicultural, and time boundaries using communication technologies

(Gilson, Maynard, Young, Vartiainen, & Hakonen, 2015). These are characteristics that

do not necessarily accrue to the typical traditional team. These characteristics also

distinguish virtual teams from remote team members who periodically work from home

without crossing geographical, cultural, and time boundaries. Additional characteristics

of virtual teams might include their lack of permanence, their small size, their

membership in disparate organizations, and the unique capability of individual team

members to be sources of special knowledge (Pinar et al., 2014). Again, these

characteristics of virtual teams are distinct from the concept of a remote team member

that works consistently with the rest of the team that is collocated in an organizational

office.

Similarities exist between virtual teams and teleworking employees. The importance of knowledge sharing in virtual teams lends itself to services where in addition to having specialized knowledge, team members also have a high level of autonomy, personal judgment, and value knowledge exchange and collaboration (Breunig & Hydle, 2013). These characteristics of virtual team members were similar to the characteristics of knowledge workers who telework. Other characteristics of virtual teams may include flexible working from home, inclination to work long hours, the ability to respond quickly, and greater productivity (Barnwell et al., 2014). In virtual teams, each of the team members is communicating over technology, putting each person, leader or otherwise, in the same communications context. The challenges of communicating over a technology medium, such as the challenges hearing when everyone talks over each other, accrue to each team member. The ability to self-direct is an important aspect of virtual teams (Barnwell et al., 2014). The literature that finds virtual team members be self-directed parallels the literature that has suggested that teleworkers also be self-directed. These characteristics that overlap between virtual teams and teleworking employees make the study of virtual teams a relevant backdrop.

Benefits of virtual teams. Benefits to virtual teams include increased creativity and problem solving resulting from cultural diversity, reduced costs from allowing team members to participate remotely, accelerated decision processes from working across time zones, and broader participation in problem solving (Glikson & Erez, 2013). Magnusson, Schuster, and Taras (2014) conducted a laboratory study that proved the psychic distance paradox, that team performance is better when distance is perceived to be farther, resulting from the perceived challenges created by psychic distance and the

corresponding increased efforts to make the project succeed. These findings may be applicable to teleworking employees.

Challenges of virtual teams. The nature of virtual teams produce challenges in their effectiveness. These challenges include lower quality connections resulting from the lack of in-person connection, misunderstandings resulting from cultural diversity, and lack of team cohesion resulting from the temporary nature of teams, issues of trust due to challenges of communicating over technology (Benetytė & Jatuliavičienė, 2013; Crisp & Jarvenpaa, 2013; Jang, 2013; Nyström & Asproth, 2013). Because those are themes that have emerged in the literature on telework, the findings of this research may enlighten learning on telework.

Time can take on a different meaning when working remotely. Access is less instantaneous, and reasons for lack of access are not necessarily clear. When team members are located in different time zones, temporal barriers exist that can slow the pace of communication (Mendez et al., 2015). The existence of temporal barriers is a characteristic of virtual teams that does not necessarily apply to the concept of telework. Although there can be overlap between the characteristics of a virtual team and a group of teleworking employees, some key distinctions that have emerged are the global, multicultural nature of the virtual team and the need for the entire team to communicate using technology.

Leadership of virtual teams. Leadership of virtual teams is remote, managed over communications technologies. Although not quite the same as leadership of teleworking employees or a teleworking leader, because of the preponderance of research on leadership of virtual teams, a brief examination of the literature is warranted. The

geographic dispersion of the team creates a dynamic that pushes processes to be developed to manage the challenges that derive from all team members being in remote locations relative to each other. In addition, although both the traditional team and the virtual team need to communicate to accomplish their team goals, the virtual team most often communicates asynchronously over technology whereas the traditional team communicates predominantly in a synchronous and periodically face-to-face manner (Pinar et al., 2014). Schmidt (2014) found that the nature of virtual interaction and relations attenuates leadership capacity, whether under an LMX model or under a transformational leadership model. However, the implications vary depending on the level of media richness, the type of leadership style used, and the expected outcome (Schmidt, 2014). Ziek and Smulowitz (2014) added that an additional variable was the amount of experience that a leader had leading remotely, which experience could be enhanced through the development of remote leadership skills. A reasonable study would be to test the findings of these studies in a remote leadership context, with one's team members in a traditional organizational office. Studies on remote leadership could build off the virtual team studies that consider leadership style, media richness, and the level of experience that a leader has in leading remotely.

Cowan (2014) attributed the development of the term *e-leadership* to Avolio who defined e-leadership as leading, or providing social influence, predominantly through the use of information technology. Although this definition does not distinguish between e-leadership of virtual teams and e-leadership of collocated teams, Avolio only uses this term in the context of virtual teams. In their review of leadership models, Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber (2009) asked a number of key questions that researchers should

consider when studying leadership that is mediated through technology, particularly because leadership relates to the formation of trust, effectiveness of performance, and quality of communication. Fan et al. (2014) studied one aspect of e-leadership, that of the effect of motivating language on creativity performance. Despite the emergence of this term early in the century, little research has been done on e-leadership (Cowan, 2014; Savolainen, 2014; Schmidt, 2014). Specific studies of remote leadership or e-leadership should consider the special nature of leadership as mediated through communication technologies.

Challenges in Recruiting Leadership Talent

The preceding review of telework, virtual teams, and remote leadership show that leadership over technology is a unique context that warrants study. The question still exists as to whether telework is an important tool for leadership talent recruitment. If organizations found the recruitment and retention of leadership talent easy, the need for special perquisites would be minimized. In short, the argument for understanding the landscape of remote work relies on the claim that leadership talent is desirable and necessary for organizational success and that telework has been proven to be a resource to attract that leadership talent. A significant amount of research has shown the importance of leadership talent. In particular, a recent meta-analysis on the connection between LMX quality and performance showed proven effects (Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2016). Research has even delved into specific arenas that indicate that the problem has multiple facets beyond generic leadership studies. Schmidt et al. (2013) focused on the challenge with recruiting leadership talent into emerging economies of Brazil, Russia, India, and China. Stephens (2013) lamented that senior

management positions in the life sciences took over 6 months to fill. Duxbury and Halinski (2014a) focused on generational challenges, with the identification of the exodus of the Baby Boomers into retirement and the resulting loss of leadership talent as a key organizational issue. At its core, the cost of employee retention of 50% to 100% of salary seems reason enough to ensure that an organization has effective talent recruitment and retention strategies (V., 2013). The recruitment and retention of leadership talent continues to be a pervasive topic in leadership studies.

Telework as a Strategy to Recruit and Retain Talent

If telework is one of these methods that can facilitate this recruitment and retention, studying this topic is a worthy endeavor. A number of researchers have claimed telework as a way to attract and retain talent of all levels and types (Allen et al., 2015; Donnelly & Proctor-Thomson, 2015; Greer & Payne, 2014; Kossek et al., 2015). Allen et al. (2015) indicated that using telework as a way to recruit talent started in the 1970's for computer programmers. Further, telework eased work-family issues for two-income couples (Allen et al., 2015). Eversole et al. (2012) indicated the need to attract talent across generations. Greer and Payne (2014) suggested going outside of one's geographical area to seek talent. Bernardino, Roglio, and Del Corso (2012) pointed out that organizations could access a larger talent pool by allowing the use of telework. Maruyama and Tietze (2012) suggested that telework be used to attract more female workers. Onchoke and Akash (2012) suggested that telework was a way to retain talent at a lower cost. Neirotti et al. (2013) identified characteristics of small and medium sized companies that were ripe for telework adoption. Cooke et al. (2014) recommended that organizations consider their strategy for allowing telework, whether innovation,

involvement, or cost containment, and to further consider how that strategy aligns with the organization driving or requiring telework as compared to the employee desiring or requesting telework arrangements. Beham et al. (2015) conducted a study using hypothetical situations of telework and found that telework is allowed when employees are critical to the organization, a formal telework policy exists, the organization is supportive of family needs, and leaders have a high quality relationship with the employee. Beham et al. (2015) concluded that even though setting up a teleworking arrangement might be challenging, the long-term benefits from recruitment and retention of desirable employees would warrant telework arrangements. Because telework has been identified as an effective tool to attract and retain talented employees, and because organizations desperately need talented organizational leadership, studies that look specifically at telework as a tool to recruit and retain leadership talent would benefit organizations that could use telework as a competitive tool for that purpose. However, to assess the feasibility of such a competitive tool, an initial research step would be to understand the positive and negative experiences of existing leaders who telework.

Gap in Literature Related to Teleworking Leaders

Based on the number and breadth of articles in this literature review, what emerged was a picture wherein few topics dominate: research related to teleworking employees and the leadership of those teleworking employees, and research on virtual teams and the leadership of such teams. Discussions of teleworking leaders and their specific experiences as remote leaders were virtually nonexistent. This lack of research on leaders who telework was a clear gap in the literature to date that my research could fill.

Summary and Conclusions

The conceptual framework calls for a perspective of leadership that is valued, relational, and situational. The literature review shows that existing literature focuses on leadership in face-to-face situations, in virtual team situations, and in situations where a leader has some employees working remotely. The lack of research on the experiences of leaders who telework is noticeably missing, creating a research gap. A start to filling this gap was a phenomenological research study that explored the experiences of such leaders, thus laying the groundwork for future studies on teleworking leadership. The following chapter lays out a design and methodology for a research project that sought to understand the experiences of leaders who telework.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Organizations have a finite number of perquisites to solve the problem of attracting and retaining qualified leaders, which is a general problem that is common to organizations of various sizes and types. Hiring managers need to use a wide variety of incentives to find, hire, and retain these leaders. One of these incentives could be allowing the leader to work remotely, which is known as telecommuting or telework. The specific research problem was that organizational leaders lack knowledge and understanding of the specific positive and negative experiences that teleworking leaders face as they lead in a remote context. The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological research was to better understand how leaders who telework perceive what it means to be a leader in the context of leading remotely and using technology to communicate with one's team. The selected research design was qualitative phenomenological, wherein the phenomenon is the experience of being a teleworking leader of a collocated team that is situated in the organization's offices.

A qualitative phenomenological approach was the best research design to answer my research questions, as discussed in the next section. My role as a researcher in the study was as a researcher-as-instrument in interviews, and as an interpreter of the teleworking leader's descriptive narratives. Careful participant selection was a key aspect of the research methodology. The interview used simple open-ended interview questions designed to obtain descriptive narratives of the experiences of teleworking leaders. The initial questions were consistent across all interviews. Follow-up questions for clarity ensured that each participant provides a consistent level of depth of description. Data analysis consisted of transcribing the interviews, member checking, and analyzing themes

using NVivo software. This section concludes with a discussion on issues of trustworthiness, including credibility, transferability, dependability, and the approach for ensuring that ethical procedures are followed.

<div align="center">**Research Design and Rationale**</div>

The Research Question

The question my research sought to answer was the following: How do leaders who telework perceive what it means to be a leader in the context of working remotely and using technology to communicate? These open-ended questions sought to get at the heart of the phenomenon of being a teleworking leader.

The Central Phenomenon

The phenomenon that defined the study was the experience of being a leader while working remotely. Although much of the literature has discussed the challenges of a leader managing employees who work remotely, or a leader managing a virtual team, little has been written about the experiences of a leader who works remotely to manage collocated employees in a traditional office environment. This phenomenon was the essence of my qualitative phenomenological study. A phenomenological study was appropriate because it was important to understand the unique experience of a leader who works remotely.

Carter et al. (2015) described leadership as a phenomenon that is relational in nature, with formal and informal influences, and specifically highlighted specific social contexts as a key component of the phenomenon of leadership. Leading from a different physical location creates a different social context that needs examination and further understanding. As the field of leadership studies develops, more nuanced research occurs

that moves investigations from the level of the individual and associated characteristics that affect leadership outcomes to a more contextual dynamic that takes into consideration dependency on more than the individual (Dionne et al., 2014). Leading while working remotely is an example of such a context.

The Research Tradition

Husserl (1913/2014) created phenomenology as the principle that looks at "transcendentally purified 'experiences'" (p. 5). Many psychologists and philosophers built off of Husserl, including Moustakas, who followed the Husserlian tradition (Moustakas, 1994). Moustakas (1994) started the process of phenomenological analysis with the process known as epoché, which is a Greek word that means to refrain from judgment, and to try to see things in new ways, not the traditional and familiar ways of perception. Epoché refers to the process of putting oneself into a state of mind whereby one is looking at the experience as if it were a brand new experience (Patton, 2016). Epoché does not imply that one does not have knowledge about a phenomenon, but instead requires an agnostic perspective that does not bias one's view nor assumes any hidden meaning (Lewis & Staehler, 2014). My own experience as a teleworking leader gives me knowledge about the phenomenon of leading remotely, which is an important consideration when bracketing my biases.

Following epoché, the researcher then engages in a process called *transcendental-phenomenological reduction*, or bracketing (Moustakas, 1994). What is the meaning of that term, transcendental-phenomenological reduction? Moustakas (1994) indicated that the process is *transcendental* because it asks the researcher to rise above or transcend the ego to perceive things anew; the process is *phenomenological* because it isolates an

experience into the concept of a phenomenon; the process is a *reduction,* from the Latin word *reducere* or *lead back* because the process leads one back to the original essence and meaning of the phenomenon. In short, the transcendental-phenomenological reduction process, or bracketing, of a participant's description of a phenomenon requires a process whereby the researcher identifies and isolates key phrases that are essential features of the phenomenon being researched (Patton, 2016). The process of epoché and bracketing require the researcher to find the essence and meaning of the phenomenon in an intentional manner that assumes that the researcher can be self-reflective, recognize one's biases, and separate oneself from those biases.

Moustakas (1994) indicated that phenomenology consists of obtaining descriptions through open-ended questions, which is the intended process for my research. These questions asked the participant to describe the experience of leading remotely. These questions did not require the participant to reflect on or provide interpretations or meaning, as Applebaum indicated that participant responses for a phenomenological study should be descriptive, rather than reflective or therapeutic (2012). Yet there remains an interpretive aspect, because the researcher is selecting themes to find meaning and essence in the experience, and checking with the participant as to his own interpretations of the experiential statements (Patton, 2016). A key part of the interviewing process was to seek enough of a participant response so that the description is rich, without forcing a more interpretive or therapeutic process whereby the participant is encouraged to seek deeper, hidden meanings in his experience.

Rationale for the Chosen Tradition

Part of the selection process of my research design included the evaluation of the possibility of choosing other research designs, including the use of a quantitative method, or other qualitative designs such as grounded theory, case study, narrative, or ethnographies to determine whether they would be appropriate for my research. An assessment of the level of maturity and development of existing research on my topic was part of this consideration. The entirety of the research project, including the research problem, research questions, purpose of the study, and the expected outcomes of the study, further guides the selection of the research design. The result of this assessment was the conclusion that a phenomenological qualitative design is best for my research, as discussed below.

Quantitative versus qualitative approaches. The first consideration in justifying a qualitative phenomenological approach for my study was to consider the possibility of using a quantitative method instead of a qualitative method. Years ago, Conger (1998) argued for the use of qualitative research to understand leadership, stating that quantitative surveys and other quantitative approaches were sterile and shallow, and did not get at an understanding of the phenomenon of leadership. Bailey (2014) cited the last two decades as the timeframe in which the use of qualitative research finally established a firm footing although he traced its origins back to psychologist Paul Felix Lazarsfeld in 1925. More recently, Carter et al. (2015) concluded from their meta-analysis of leadership studies that qualitative studies help to discover patterns of emergence of leadership as leadership develops. This is an important finding as a key purpose of my research is to discover how leadership evolves or develops in a remote context. Carter et

al. (2015) recommended that both quantitative and qualitative studies be used to determine these the emergence and presence of leadership. Aime, Humphrey, DeRue and Paul (2014) in their study of power dynamics in cross-functional teams conducted interviews to "document the phenomenon of interest" (p. 328). To study how leadership emerges in a remote context requires similar approaches. Before more constructivist theories can be developed about leading remotely, an exploratory study to understand emergent leadership parameters in a remote context could set some groundwork for future studies.

The debate between qualitative and quantitative studies often centers on scientific philosophies as to the purpose of science as being postmodernist constructivist. Scientists seek rigor and repeatability to make their research meaningful. Although qualitative studies can be less rigid than quantitative studies, they can also have the qualities of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. These characteristics create a scientific rigor that can substantiate the value of a qualitative design. Further support for a phenomenological study can be found in Applebaum (2012), who argued for the value of qualitative phenomenological designs as compared to postmodernist constructivist approaches, most often quantitative, by arguing that science is systematic, methodical, general, and critical, all qualities that can be pursued in a qualitative study. The debate is between the scientific rigor, which tends to impersonalize one's research, and qualitative inexactness, which potentially leads to a lack of repeatability, credibility, transferability, and confirmability. Applebaum argued that a qualitative phenomenological approach could be systematic, and therefore repeatable, without needing to create an a priori system to be evaluated or followed (2012). When qualitative

research uses a series of guiding steps, a balance is achieved between being overly rigid and overly loose. The researcher should ensure a methodical approach to one's research, tempered by an appropriate level of flexibility to match the research being conducted (Applebaum, 2012). The qualitative researcher should seek to achieve a level of scientific rigor by seeking those qualities that make one's research meaningful for the practice and further research. My plan is to achieve a high enough level of scientific rigor to make my study meaningful.

Consideration of other research designs. Upon choosing a qualitative method, a further assessment of a specific qualitative design was warranted. A grounded theory approach seeks to develop new theories (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Although future theories on leadership using a grounded theory approach might derive from my research, the goal of this project is not to develop theories as an outcome, but instead seek to understand the phenomenon. A case study is a study of a bounded system (Patton, 2016). In my context, a cast study research project could study the infrastructure, the policies, and the support systems that constitute a teleworking case. A case study research design is a potential approach for the researcher seeking to answer different research questions, such as *What are the best practices for teleworking leaders to be most effective?* or *How can organizations develop teleworking policies and procedures to best support teleworking leaders and ensure organizational performance?* A case study would be an interesting follow-on research project emanating from the understanding generated from my phenomenological research project that would help organizations to understand best practices for implementing a telework practice in one's organization, including teleworking for organizational leaders. The narrative approach seeks individual stories to

understand cultures and social norms (Patton, 2016). The narrative research approach works best when a strong cultural component pervades a group with a common experience, which is not the case with teleworking leaders. The phenomenological approach instead sought general themes that are common among multiple persons experiencing the same phenomenon. Taking only one deep narrative could distort the experience, and prevent me from obtaining answers to my research questions. The ethnographic approach was not appropriate, because ethnography assumes a cultural or an ethnic unity derived from a common lived experience and shared social norms (Patton, 2016). Many other research designs were similarly eliminated as inadequate or inappropriate to answer my research question.

Conclusion as to why phenomenology was best. Phenomenology was the correct design to use for this study that sought to understand the experiences of leading by a teleworking leader. Much of existing literature assumes leadership concepts can be applied in a teleworking or remote context with some adjustments. A process that attempts to apply leadership theories that worked in a face-to-face environment to a remote working environment could miss potential contextual aspects of leadership that are not currently a part of the literature on leadership. The conceptual framework discussed in Chapter 2 showed that leadership is relational and situational demands a clearer understanding of the teleworking leader's experience of relating to others from a leadership perspective in the context of working remotely. With the decision to use a phenomenological research design, my research methodology was able to emerge.

Role of the Researcher

Role of the Researcher as Observer

My role in this research was primarily as an observer, as opposed to a participant or observer-participant. In this context, observer does not refer to visual observation of actions, but as a witness to a participant's experiences through the relating of their narratives. Interviews are an effective way to witness a participant's inner perspectives, such as thoughts, feelings, and intentions around specific experiences. The interview process then allows researchers to witness the other person's perspective (Patton, 2016). These interviews helped me to gain a deep understanding of participant experiences of leading remotely.

The quality of interview data rests largely on the skills and capabilities of the interviewer (Patton, 2016). An effective interviewer must establish rapport, be nonjudgmental, be trustworthy and authentic, ask genuinely open-ended questions, be clear, ask appropriate follow-up questions, be able to distinguish different types of questions, and be skilled in the art of listening (Patton, 2016). Mock interviews with colleagues and friends who were not a part of the participant pool helped me to further develop these skills.

Professional Relationships and Power Dynamics

To mitigate issues of direct power over participants that result from my role as a senior leader, I did not research anyone in my organization. Ravitch and Carl (2016) argued that power dynamics can come into play simply because of the relational construct created by one person being the researcher and the participant being the subject, especially because the researcher has significant power over how a participant's

experience is interpreted. Ravitch and Carl (2016) further indicated ways in which researchers can reduce the power that derives from the researchers role as interpreter, through using raw data, conducting ongoing reflexivity processes, engaging in participant validation, and logging one's processes. These processes are an integral part of my research plan.

Researcher Biases

My biases derive from my experiences as a leader, as a leader of teleworking employees, and as a teleworking leader. Over most of my career, my teleworking frequency has resulted from my need to work remotely to finish up unfinished assignments, and to guide others in their work, with that type of work comprising less than 10% of my work time. Some researchers include this type of ad hoc remote work as telework, whereas others do not. Over the past year, my teleworking schedule is now regular, with an average of 3 days per week in the organizational office and 2 days per week working from home. As the chief financial officer of my organization, my direct reports and shared direct reports number seven. I interface with another 75 indirect reports collocated in the organizational office with me, and another 50 managers as needed.

Biases might enter into the process with participants within my own organization, because my senior position might alter the dynamic between researcher and participant. For this precise reason, no one within my own organization can participate in my study. However, other leaders in organizations affiliated with mine, over whom I have no direct or indirect control and who are unknown to me prior to my research are potential candidates. My experience as a teleworking leader requires me to intentionally suspend

any judgments and create an atmosphere of neutrality during the interview process. Patton (2016) distinguished between rapport, which is the stance the interviewer has with the interview participant, and neutrality, which is the stance the interviewer has with the content of the interview. Both are critical for obtaining quality interview data. The continued bracketing of my biases further requires suspending judgment during my analysis process, ensuring that the voices of the teleworking leaders are not altered or filtered based on my own biases as someone who has experienced this phenomenon.

Other Ethical Issues

The ethical issues commonly attributed to vulnerable populations should be minimal as a result of my selecting leaders of organizations who presumably can speak for themselves if the process enters realms of discomfort or vulnerability. That does not relieve me of an obligation to consider how participants responded to my research project. Maxwell (2013) suggested that some participants might fear saying the wrong thing on a recorded interview, misunderstand the purpose of the study, or be concerned about data handling. Transparency regarding the purpose of the study is an IRB requirement (Patton, 2016). My research plan includes avoiding other ethical issues by being transparent about the purpose of my study, both in the written consent form provided to participants and with verbal explanations prior to conducting the interview.

Method

This section discusses the design of the actual research process, including the participant recruitment and selection process, communications to my participants, my data collection instruments and plans for implementation, plans for a pilot study, and my data analysis plan. With this roadmap, and other documentation and audit trails in my

actual study, other researchers should be able to replicate my study or at least understand my research parameters.

Participant Selection Logic

The participant population. The population consisted of organizational leaders who have been a teleworking leader for a minimum of 6 months and who currently telework at least 1 day per week from home. This ensured sufficient exposure to the phenomenon. The typical study on telework includes employees who work at least 2 days per week on average. In past research, teleworkers who work remotely with this level of frequency are called high intensity teleworkers. Researchers assumed that this level of frequency changes interpersonal dynamics as well as home office dynamics enough to warrant separate study. My goal was to interview participants at a fairly senior level in the organization to capture the nature of leadership over as large of a span of control as possible. Regardless of their position, a leader who is at a senior level in an organization, but while working remotely only works on independent projects that do not require any leadership actions is not a good subject for this study. The context of this study was the situational environment wherein a leader conducts the activity of leading while working remotely.

I solicited leaders to participate in this study from a population of networks accessible through my various alumni and professional networks. The home country of most of my participants appeared to be the United States, although one participant was from another country that spoke English and met my participant selection criteria. Potential Walden University participants might exhibit more geographic diversity than participants from my other networks due to the geographically diverse nature of the

Walden population. Additional detail on recruitment and selection of participants is discussed in the section below entitled "Sources of Data."

The sampling strategy. The key criterion for the choice of sampling strategy was whether such strategy aligned with the purpose of the study (Patton, 2016). The overarching sampling strategy was purposeful or purposive sampling. Purposeful sampling is used to find participants who have the experienced the phenomenon (Palinkas, Horwitz, & Green, 2013), which is leading while teleworking. The goal was to intentionally select certain participants for the study that are aligned with the research question in a way that is most likely to provide answers to the research question (Patton, 2016). Patton (2016) listed 40 sampling strategies, which could be used synergistically as a part of a purposeful sampling strategy. The strategies that made sense for my study, and that were important to emphasize for the emphasis on their contribution to the strategic design of my sampling strategy were criterion-i, maximum variation, saturation, and snowball. Criterion-i sampling is a specific type of purposeful sampling that seeks participants that meet a certain criteria as opposed to criterion-e cases which fall outside a particular set of criteria (Palinkas et al., 2013). Because the specific context of leading while working remotely is the core phenomenon that I am studying, I required participants to have at least six months of teleworking leadership experience. I did not include leaders outside of the criterion because the study did not involve a comparison of the experiences of teleworking leaders to leaders who do not telework or who do not telework at the intensity levels of my participant sample. A maximum variation sampling approach facilitated covering a wide range of organizational environments, with participants from different industries and different organizational sizes, to improve the

transferability of the study. A sampling strategy that seeks maximum variation is used when the researcher seeks patterns across a diversity of cases (Palinkas et al., 2013). Including the concept of saturation sampling in my purposeful sampling strategy helped to strengthen the credibility of the study. To achieve saturation, the researcher seeks themes in participant responses while collecting additional participant responses until these themes become repetitive and no new themes emerge (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Patton (2016) was clear in his emphasis that the sampling strategy be highly intentional when he wrote that the researcher should "think of sampling as a core design issue" (p. 265). My emphasis on the various aspects of my sampling strategy followed Patton's advice to immerse myself in the development of this strategic component of my research plan.

The criteria on which the participant selection is based. The threshold criterion was whether a participant has the experience of leading while teleworking. Leaders in the study teleworked at least 1 day per week. My selection criteria did not limit the type of industry, or the company size. All participants were necessarily English-speaking because that is my primary language, although they could be working in any country. Because of my networks, most participants were likely from the United States. Their position as a leader must include their position of oversight and their need to interact with employees on a team. Someone who is at a leader level and teleworks, but whose activities rarely require leadership would not be a good candidate for this research.

How participants are known to meet the criteria. My target participants were leaders who telework on a regular basis. The distinction between a teleworking manager who did not meet the criteria of my study and teleworking leader who did meet my

criteria was not precise, but was important. The desired participant had a sizable span of control and creative independence with respect to their leadership roles. An administrative manager who was simply monitoring task completion but had little influence over the inspirational and motivational aspects of leadership did not meet my criteria. The imprecise nature of the criteria between manager and leader is due to the fact that often leaders play dual roles, as task managers as well as inspirational forces.

Participants also filled out a short questionnaire and answered a few questions over email to see if they met basic threshold requirements. Preliminary data included their number of years of leadership experience and the number of people they lead both directly and indirectly to determine their span of control. The focus was on leaders who are more senior in their organizations. With respect to their teleworking experience, qualifying data included the amount of time the teleworking leader works remotely on a regular basis and how long they have been teleworking under this arrangement. The participant must work a minimum of 1 day per week remotely and must have done so for at least 6 months, in order for the teleworking leader to experience the phenomenon enough to be able to provide deep descriptions of the experience.

Rationale for the number of participant cases. The number of participant cases for a phenomenological study cannot be answered in a formulaic manner. Van Manen (2014) recommended that generalizing the appropriate sample size for a phenomenological study is challenging, because the answer is dependent upon being able to effectively describe the experience of the phenomenon, rather than achieve a certain number of samples. Patton (2016) did not support the creation of a universal rule that determines required sample size for a qualitative study, instead suggesting that sample

size in qualitative studies is by nature "emergent and flexible" (p. 313). Morse (2000, as cited in Patton, 2016) suggested a sample size of six to 10 for phenomenological studies. As a starting point, my target sample size ranged from 10 to 15 participants, although this number was flexible.

Relationship between saturation and sample size. Because my goal was to reach saturation, my sample size was dependent on achieving that goal. Saturation is achieved when a researcher finds they can learn nothing new (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Reasons for the sample size becoming smaller might be the ability to go into more depth with the existing samples, which could result in additional themes and potentially reaching saturation sooner than expected. On the other hand, the sample size might grow if new themes in participant interviews continued to emerge, resulting a larger sample to reach saturation.

Although time and cost considerations can be factors in any study, they were not significant factors in limiting my sample size, particularly since all interaction was by phone. My plan was to do my own transcribing, because this enabled me to connect to the data more deeply. This did not cause a schedule delay, because my transcription abilities were strong.

Instrumentation

The data collection instrument. My data collection instrument approach was an open-ended interview, wherein the participant had the opportunity to describe the meaning of the phenomenon in some depth. Moustakas (1994) stressed that the understanding gleaned from the inquiry must be held "in the context of a particular situation" or the phenomenon (p. 14). The key goal of phenomenology is to grasp the

essence of an experience or phenomenon (Van Manen, 2014). The interview then, must

be both open-ended, but also focused enough to get at the phenomenon of interest.

A key component of the approach relies on the conceptual framework of

leadership being valuable, situational, and relational. To situate the study inside the

conceptual framework, it was important to focus the participant on the specific

experience of the phenomenon, that is, the situation wherein the remote leader is leading

remotely, a process that includes relational interactions with other employees. That goal

is not achieved if that essence is not captured. If a description discusses other aspects of a

remote leaders work, such as the work that leader does as a teleworker, then the

description has missed the essence of the experience of remote leadership. Moustakas

(1994) described two levels of description, the first being the raw description obtained

through the interview process, and the second being the interpretation and meaning

derived from an analysis of the participant's responses.

Basis for instrument development. To Moustakas (1994), the phenomenological

interview is more about creating an atmosphere for the participant to relate his

experience, than creating a perfect instrument. Moustakas recommended that the

interviewer start with social conversation or even a meditative exercise to create a relaxed

and open environment (1994). The participant relays a direct description of his

experience, without seeking causality, opinions, or interpretations of such experience

(Van Manen, 2014). To do this, questions must be carefully framed so as not to guide the

participant down paths that result in answers that are not phenomenological. Simply put,

questions should not be framed as opinions or what the participant thinks about

something but instead as an experience or what the phenomenon was like (Van Manen,

2014). The instrument in a phenomenological study is less about the questions, and more about the process of the interview to evoke the desired category of responses.

Establishment of content validity. The particular type of validity in question here is that related to the instrument used in this phenomenological study. The argument for using a previously developed instrument are research situations in which context do not matter and research is confirmatory, whereas a researcher-developed instrument is more appropriate when the research purpose demands rich description, the researcher is seeking descriptive data, and research approach is qualitative only (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). Therefore, in this research project, a researcher-developed instrument was more appropriate. The issue then was how to achieve validity with such an instrument. In a phenomenological study where the instrument consists of open-ended questions asked by the researcher, the issue of validity is related to the skills of the researcher (Miles et al., 2014). With the researcher-as-instrument, indicators of validity include the interviewer's familiarity with the phenomenon and strong interview skills including the ability to be neutral or nonjudgmental and to be in drawing people out to obtain rich, thick descriptions of their experience of the phenomenon under study (Miles et al., 2014). To be a good research instrument, I practiced my interview skills on sample subjects that were not included in my actual study. Ravitch and Carl (2016) recommend additional practice as the interviewee, to create empathy and understanding of the process of being interviewed. These specific and intentional processes can strengthen my project's content validity.

Sufficiency to answer research question. Obtaining interview responses that answer the research question requires a level of skill and focus by the researcher

conducting the interview. A researcher who is unable to maintain a level of control over the interview process risks wasting time and introducing extraneous data (Patton, 2016). The researcher must be clear on what he wants to discover, and ask the right questions to get those intended answers, assess answers in real time, and provide feedback and follow-up questions to guide the interviewee to the types of answers that the researcher seeks (Patton, 2016). Asking descriptive questions but receiving answers about a participant's hopes and dreams is not responsive to the interview question (Patton, 2016). Achieving sufficiency to answer the research question is an intentional process by the researcher.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Sources of data. My various networks were resources for participant recruitment. This outreach consisted of the following approaches: postings on LinkedIn, Facebook, and Proformative; emails to my alumni networks at Stanford, UCLA, and Loyola Marymount; and requests through the Walden University participant pool. Participants could also come from the CEO, COO and CFO networks from organizations affiliated with my own. Combined, these networks consisted of thousands of people who might have fit my participant criteria. Only respondents who met my criteria were eligible to participate. The first criterion was that they telework a minimum of 1 day per week on a regular basis. The selection of the criterion of 1 day was to ensure consistency with other studies of employees who telework 1 or more days per week, a common criterion for studies of employees who telework (Martin & MacDonnell, 2012). The second was that they conduct leadership activities from their remote location. Leaders who only conducted leadership activities while in the office, and worked on independent projects while they are remote were not included in the participant pool.

The data were collected through phone interviews or in-person interviews with participants primarily in the United States but potentially from around the world. A landline provided a voice quality that was superior to that on my cell phone, and also facilitated the recording instrumentation.

Who collected the data? In this study, my role is as a *researcher-as-instrument* who collected all the data, speaking directly to my interview participants. This enabled me to assess the emerging themes and ensure interview quality. When the researcher is the instrument, data collection can be consistent, which will help strengthen its trustworthiness. The data should align with my research questions. However, at times, participants may not answer a specific question. At those times, gentle encouragement redirected the participant back to the question asked. For example, a question about an experience of dealing with a problem employee remotely might degenerate into a discussion about how the organization does not have processes in place to effectively deal with problem employees. This is a nonresponsive answer to the original question about experience, and instead has moved from a phenomenological, experiential response to a response that would be more appropriate for a case study. Nonresponsive answers are extraneous data that make the process of data analysis more challenging.

Frequency of data collection events. The data collection events for each participant occurred in the narrow time span of a few weeks to minimize deep reflection of the participant, which could yield more interpretive answers rather than descriptive answers. The plan was to take no more than 1 month to collect all the primary data. There should not be any issues with data collected from one participant being separated in time from data collected from another participant.

Duration of data collection events. The interviews lasted a half hour to an hour, depending on how detailed the interviews were. Follow-up interviews to obtain clarifying remarks or to fill in gaps in information did not need to be conducted. Member-checking process also involved the collection of data as the participant reviewed the transcript of the interview and made changes as desired.

How data were recorded. My interviews were conducted over the phone or in-person. The interview data were recorded on one recording device connected in line with the telephone. The recording was stored in a cloud database, and subsequently copied to my computer drive, as well as to a back-up drive.

Back-up plan for recruitment. My follow-up plan if recruitment produced too few participants was to enact a snowball sampling process wherein existing participants recommend other potential participants. In snowball or chain sampling, interviewees who are strong participants recommend other potentially strong participants (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). My backup plan would only come into play if my extensive networks covering thousands of professionals in the United States and around the world were insufficient. Although I did not initiate a snowball sampling process, I did conduct a second outreach process to obtain additional interview participants.

Data Analysis Plan

In order for a successful phenomenological analysis to be conducted, Van Manen (2014) recommended two pre-existing conditions: the appropriate phenomenological question, and the depth of experiential responses by the participants. Further, participant data must consist of tangible experiential narratives as opposed to interpretive

experiential narratives (Van Manen, 2014). Once these conditions are met, the details of the analysis plan can be spelled out, as shown below.

Connection of data to research question. The analysis focused on the experiential aspects of the remote leader's experiences that are specific to the activity of leading remotely. This was as distinguished from two activities that are not leadership: working independently in a remote location; leading while face-to-face in the traditional organizational office. These experiences may creep into the interview responses, but were not included in the analysis because they were not specific to the context of leading remotely. However, to the extent that the participants tie such experiences to the act of leading remotely, they may be included in the analysis.

Type of and procedure for coding. Moustakas (1994) recommended a modified Van Kaam method of analyzing phenomenological data. This process consisted of listing expressions related to the experience (horizontalization), phenomenological reduction, creating themes around the invariant constituents of the experience, constructing textural themes and then structural themes, and then combining them into the meaning or essence of the phenomenon (Moustakas, 1994). Bazeley and Jackson (2013), in their guide to qualitative data analysis using NVivo, suggested that phenomenological coding begin with more detailed thematic analysis and working up to broader categories (p 71).

Software used for analysis. My research analysis was facilitated by the use of NVivo software. Data analysis software does not fulfill the requirement to intelligently and critically synthesize the data; this role falls to the researcher (Patton, 2016). This process involved assessing the information, developing themes, and coding such themes using NVivo. Bazeley and Jackson (2013) outlined the three different types of data that

NVivo stores: original source data such as interview transcripts (internals), my reflecting thinking about the project (memos), and other data that cannot be imported (externals). NVivo enables several different types of qualitative analysis: constant comparison analysis, classical content analysis, keyword-in-context, word count, domain analysis, taxonomic analysis, and componential analysis (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2011). Classical content analysis enabled me to find themes in the interviews and also to highlight frequency of themes in participant responses, suggesting key areas that future researchers might want to explore to get the most generalizability.

Manner of treatment of discrepant cases. Discrepant cases, also known as disconfirming evidence, negative cases, or outliers, indicate situations where the data are not fitting current understandings based on other data (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Ravitch and Carl (2016) recommended that before discarding such cases, the researcher should engage in reflection as to why the case is discrepant, which might create new insights into assumptions and preconceived ideas about one's data. Discrepant cases could also include outlier participants whose narratives add unforeseen experiential themes as a result of a more intense experience of the phenomenon. Ravitch and Carl (2016) suggested that outlier sampling could identify themes that did not emerge or were not as apparent in existing participant samples. The lesson here regarding discrepant cases is that every step in my research project must be intentional, including the discarding of cases that do not seem to fit emerging patterns in my research.

Issues of Trustworthiness

As a scientific construct, a qualitative study should seek ways to strengthen its validity to make the study worthy of scientific merit. Lincoln and Guba in 1985 in their

seminal work, *Naturalistic Inquiry*, recommended that qualitative researchers seek to attain the characteristics of trustworthiness – credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. The research industry resisted their promise of objectivity through validation processes. Kosnik and Bonoma (1985) critiqued Lincoln and Guba's promotion of naturalistic inquiry while honoring Lincoln and Guba's attempts to have conversations around validity. Holt (1991) discounted Lincoln and Guba's attempt to attain trustworthiness through various activities such as member checking and reflexivity, citing the premise of seeking trustworthiness in this manner creates unavoidable epistemological conflicts. Holt (1991) recommended that qualitative research be judged instead on its insightfulness and its ability to convince the reader. More recently, Ravitch and Carl (2016) recommended that scientific rigor in qualitative studies need not parallel the quantitative model but should instead seek validity in ways that align with the specifics of one's qualitative research project. Despite the resistance and criticisms of Lincoln and Guba's work, qualitative experts such as Patton (2016) and Ravitch and Carl (2016) continued to encourage qualitative researchers to seek as much objectivity as possible using the criteria of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Although these parameters need not be the ultimate judge of a project's trustworthiness, the exercise of evaluating one's project using these criteria, with specific reflective questions such as those proposed by Ravitch and Carl (2016) is worthwhile.

Credibility

Credibility or internal validity is an important component of qualitative research in that one's research must appear credible or believable to readers of the research whether they be other researchers or practitioners. Credibility is a measure of how the

participant describes and experience and how the researcher has chosen to represent these experiences (Patton, 2016). One way to establish and enhance credibility is to have the participants review transcripts of their narratives of the description of the phenomenon. This review helped to ensure that participants' original statements are represented in the way they intended.

A second method to enhance credibility is through saturation. Saturation occurs when no new themes emerge from any of the participants in the study (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). This saturation is also a way to use the experiences of the participants to cross-check other participant experiences. A common theme that repeatedly emerges indicates that characteristics of the experience of the phenomenon is common to all participants in the phenomenon.

Participant checks and saturation helped me to enhance the credibility of my study. Participants either signed off on the interview transcript, or added supplemental narratives to their interview to clarify descriptions. My intention was to have each of my participant interviews member-checked, not to determine or verify phenomenological themes, but to ensure that descriptions of their experiences were as they intended. The participant learned about the member-checking process as a part of the introduction to the study. The process included a timeline for review.

Transferability

Transferability or external validity occurs when the data and analysis are such that a reader of the research gains some comfort that the outcomes of the research can be transferable to situations other than the specific situation done in the research (Patton, 2016). Methods to obtain transferability are rich, thick description, variability in client

selection, admission of limitations in sample selection, a discussion of the researcher's perspectives on the transferability of the data, and consistency with other studies that might exist (Miles et al., 2014). Rich, thick descriptions require full transcripts of interviews, not simple notes or paraphrases (Maxwell, 2013). With respect to variability in client selection, when common themes are derived from participants with varying backgrounds, the reader of the study can gain more comfort that the outcomes can apply to his own context. As applied to this study, common themes that are found across teleworking leaders of organizations of different types or different sizes could strengthen transferability. To achieve transferability, I included only participants who telework at least 1 day per week in my study. This is a common parameter in literature on employees who telework (Martin & MacDonnell, 2012).

Dependability

Dependability results when the researcher is careful to execute the project in a systematic manner. Miles et al. (2014) recommended that the study strive for stability and clarity of method, including a consistent process for collection of data, clear research questions and clarity about the researcher's role, and the implementation of various quality checks. A good process to strengthen dependability is the audit trail, wherein all the steps in the research process and details on decisions made are logged (Barusch, Gringeri, and George, 2011; Patton, 2016). Creation of an audit trail requires detailed notes, clear sequencing of activities, descriptions of methods and procedures, and honest assessments of one's own biases (Miles et al., 2014). The goal of the audit trail is adequate documentation of the research process so that someone who follows the same steps could duplicate my research and depend on my process and results. Detailed notes

from the beginning of the project that document processes and procedures were used to enhance the dependability of my project.

Confirmability

Confirmability in a qualitative study is the counterpoint to a quantitative study's objectivity. Confirmability is also called external reliability (Miles et al., 2014). Reflexivity or an acknowledgement and understanding of researcher bias both helps the study achieve confirmability and enables the reader of the study to better understand the perspectives of the study to better judge or confirm the lack of bias (Patton, 2016). Reflexivity is more than just being reflective about one's experiences and biases. Reflexivity requires a deeper and more systematic process that includes questioning one's biases and interpretations that results in an understanding of how and why my interpretations exist (Patton, 2016). This process should include active and intentional monitoring of one's biases throughout the research process, to the extent that it would be unethical to not do so (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Recognizing this moral imperative to reflexively be aware of, monitor, and suspend my biases was a responsibility of mine as an ethical researcher.

Ethical Procedures

The main ethical consideration for this study was confidentiality. My experience in keeping private information confidential comes from overseeing my organization's federally funded randomized control trial on pregnancy prevention for female students attending middle and high school, which included a thorough IRB approval process. Walden University's IRB procedure for confidentiality, which includes obtaining consent forms and full disclosure of the intent of the project and the process for handling data, is a

part of my research plan. A key step prior to beginning the research is obtaining IRB approval. All responses were confidential, as were participant names and organizations. Digital recording devices captured the interviews, which were subsequently transcribed into computer documents that were stored on my computer and my own computer backup that was safely locked away. No one else had access to the data. Participants had the opportunity to provide feedback on several fronts including asking questions about the data collection and analysis process, and the process for reviewing and editing their interview transcripts. All transcripts will be destroyed following the successful acceptance of my dissertation.

The participants of my study received personal thank you notes from me. Some researchers believe that incentives increase response rates, even if the participant is a corporate CEO (Patton, 2016). My own feeling was that an incentive was a token that would not be necessary for my study.

Summary

This study attempted to answer the important research question about what it means to be a leader in the context of leading remotely. The research method was a phenomenological study, because past research has attempted either to apply existing leadership studies based on face-to-face environments to a remote environment, or studied virtual team leadership which is a similar, but not equivalent context as remote leadership of collocated organizational teams. The way to fill this research gap was to go directly to the source, the teleworking leader, to gain an understanding of these leaders' experiences. From there additional studies could emanate which could further the understanding of how one leads effectively in a remote context.

My research plan was to conduct open-ended interviews of approximately 10 – 15 teleworking-leaders. Subsequently, my analysis process consisted of clustering themes using NVivo software as a tool to accomplish this. My plan included ensuring trustworthiness through various methods including member-checking, saturation, participant diversity, an audit trail, reflexivity, and clear and transparent data collection and analysis processes. The following chapter details the results of the implementation of this research plan.

Chapter 4: Analysis

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological research was to better understand how leaders who telework perceive what it means to be a leader in the context of working remotely at least 1 day per week, and using technology to communicate. To better understand the teleworking leader's experiences, I posed the following research question: How do leaders who telework perceive what it means to be a leader in the context of working remotely and using technology to communicate? In Chapter 4, I discuss the analysis process and resulting data from interviewing 12 teleworking leaders. I also included a description of the research setting, data collection process, how the data were analyzed, the trustworthiness of the data, and finally, the results of the analysis.

Setting

My sampling strategy was purposeful sampling. Participants shared the common phenomenon of leading while working remotely. Participant characteristics varied in terms of participant work industries, participant years of experience in leadership, and the amount of time participants worked remotely. None of the participants identified any ongoing personal or organizational conditions that might influence their experiences, although several participants indicated that past experiences did play a part in building their current leadership capabilities and shaping their current experience.

Demographics

I identified participants through multiple university alumni networks of which I am a part, as well as LinkedIn, an online professional networking site. The combined reach of the various networks exceeded 40,000 potential participants. I initially received responses from 18 potential candidates. I numbered these respondents sequentially, P1

through P18. I initiated requests for consent forms and experience surveys with these

participants. Upon receiving consent forms, participants answered experience survey

questions as approved by IRB. These questions were:

- Please tell me how long you have been a teleworking leader.

- How many people report to you directly and indirectly?

- How many days per week on average do you work remotely?

- On average, how many leadership communications or interactions do you

  have with your direct and indirect reports (excludes outside vendors or

  partners) on those days that you work remotely?

Additional questions when necessary helped to determine whether participants'

subordinates were virtual or collocated in an organizational office. The intention was to

exclude leaders of teams whose members are all remote, making them virtual teams. By

mid-January, I had determined that eight (P2, P5, P6, P8, P9, P10, P17, P18) of the 18

candidates were not eligible or non-responsive, prompting a second outreach to the same

networks, which yielded an additional nine responses (P19–P27) for a total of 27

responses. Of the second batch of nine responses, five (P20, P21, P22, P23, P25) were

not eligible or non-responsive after multiple attempts, which left 14 potential participants.

I reached saturation on February 8, 2017, after preliminarily coding my first 12

interviews, and decided to stop seeking interviews with the remaining two participants

(P1, P27). Twelve participants (P3, P4, P7, P11, P12, P13, P14, P15, P16, P19 P24, P26)

constituted my final participant pool. The following table summarizes the participant

status and rationale for exclusion, if applicable.

Table 3

Participant Inclusion and Rationale for Exclusion

Participant designation	Consent form (Y/N)	Survey (Y/N)	Include (Y/N)	Reason for exclusion
P1	Y	Y	N	Reached saturation while working through interview scheduling issues
P2	N	N	N	Non-responsive; wanted compensation
P3	Y	Y	Y	
P4	Y	Y	Y	
P5	Y	Y	N	Not eligible - virtual team leader
P6	Y	Y	N	Not eligible - virtual team leader
P7	Y	Y	Y	
P8	Y	Y	N	Not eligible - virtual team leader
P9	N	N	N	Non-responsive.
P10	Y	Y	N	Not eligible - virtual team leader
P11	Y	Y	Y	
P12	Y	Y	Y	
P13	Y	Y	Y	
P14	Y	Y	Y	
P15	Y	Y	Y	
P16	Y	Y	Y	
P17	Y	Y	N	Not eligible - virtual team leader
P18	N	N	N	Not eligible - virtual team leader
P19	Y	Y	Y	
P20	Y	Y	N	Not eligible - virtual team leader
P21	Y	Y	N	Not eligible - virtual team leader
P22	N	N	N	Not eligible - virtual team leader
P23	N	N	N	Not eligible - virtual team leader
P24	Y	Y	Y	
P25	Y	Y	N	Not eligible - virtual team leader
P26	Y	Y	Y	
P27	Y	N	N	Terminated process; saturation reached

Demographics of the Participant Sample

The participant pool demographics are provided in Table 4. The average of 27 years indicated a high level of leadership experience and capability. My participants spanned a wide range of industries. These leaders managed between two and 10 direct reports and zero to 200 indirect reports.

Researchers of telework categorize different amounts of telework as high intensity and low intensity. Koh et al. (2013) defined workers who telework more than 2.5 days per week as high-intensity teleworkers. The participants in my study sorted into two broad categories: low-intensity teleworkers who worked remotely 1 to 2 days per week and high-intensity teleworkers in my study worked remotely full time except for the few days or a week every few months when they went into the office. The Results section contains the potential implications of this observation.

Table 4

Demographics of Participant Pool

No.	Field	Years of experience	Years of management	No. of direct reports	No. of indirect reports	Relative frequency in remote work
3	Technology	30	25	10	0	H
4	Life sciences	35	20	6	0	H
7	Education	22	20	3	4	L
11	Banking	34	24	4	200	L
12	Finance and banking	33	23	4	0	H
13	Telecommunications	18	10	5	15	H
14	Telecommunications management	20	18	6	30	L
15	consulting	17	12	7	20	H
16	Financial services	18	15	4	2	H
19	Software development	44	38	5	12	H
24	Construction	44	37	2	3	H
26	Technology	11	9	2	18	H
	Average	27	21	5	25	
	Maximum	40	38	10	200	9 High
	Minimum	11	9	2	0	3 Low

This demographic data showed diversity in teleworking leaders in my study by industry, level of experience, the size of one's team (particularly when considering the number of

indirect reports), and the amount of telework done by each leader. This diversity in participant characteristics enhanced the trustworthiness of my data.

Data Collection

I conducted interviews with 12 participants from December 14, 2016 through February 2, 2017 by phone (no video). Participants were interviewed over the course of the 7 weeks, depending largely on participant schedule and availability. Each interview ran from 15 to 40 continuous minutes, with the average interview lasting 29 minutes. I recorded the interviews (after asking permission) and later transcribed the interviews myself, to be familiar with the data. My data collection process was exactly as originally planned and presented in Chapter 3. I did not encounter any unusual circumstances during data collection. All participants seemed extremely open and willing to talk about their experiences of leading while teleworking.

I used open-ended questions to elicit experiential responses from participants about their experience of leading while teleworking. I asked similar open-ended questions to continue to probe participant's experiences. For example, I asked questions such as the following:

- Please tell me about your positive and negative experiences of leading while working remotely.

- Could you say more about that?

- What other unique leadership experiences occur while you are working remotely?

A recording system on my office phone captured all of the interviews, which enabled me to play the recordings repeatedly to get them transcribed. I removed fillers such as "um" and "you know" that did not change the content or context of the

participant's description. As part of my member-checking process, participants were asked to read through the transcripts and to provide comments. Three participants commented on or modified their transcripts. The remainder provided affirmative approvals for the transcripts as originally transcribed. The transcripts were subsequently loaded into NVivo for analysis.

<div align="center">**Data Analysis**</div>

Moving Inductively From Coded Units to Larger Themes

My coding process consisted of several iterations. Miles et al. (2014) recommended that coding be divided into two steps, First Cycle and Second Cycle, wherein First Cycle coding looks at specific data chunks and Second Cycle coding takes those First Cycle data chunks and makes meaning out of them. Patterns emerge from the codes, but can be disintegrated and reintegrated again. My data analysis process included reflecting on the data, seeking patterns, and checking fit in an iterative process of linking and connecting data.

My initial coding process resulted in 18 different codes. Bazeley and Jackson (2013) indicated that the existence of a large numbers of nodes signals that it is time to group or merge them. The next step was to cluster the codes into various themes. My clustering process resulted in six clusters, of which one cluster had three sub-clusters. Bazeley and Jackson advised that when organizing nodes into categories and subcategories, that there should be no more than ten categories that go no further than two to three layers deep. Reviewing the transcripts again resulted in my adding six additional codes to the existing 18 for a total of 24. The initial coding and clustering was not solidifying into a set of themes that felt compelling. The solution, as recommended by

Miles et al. (2014), was to take these loose chunks of meaning and reconfigure them as necessary. Recoding the transcripts into 17 codes enabled me to cluster the codes into six major compelling themes. Rereading the transcripts multiple times and recoding multiple times gave me a comfort with the data and the themes that felt like an accurate portrayal of my participants' experiences. A final review of the transcripts ensured that no major themes were missing and that the six themes encompassed all major participant experiences.

Emergent Themes

The six themes that emerged were communications, employee relations, monitoring, employee/work issues, individual leader experiences, and trust. Each time a code is assigned to a highlighted portion of an interview text, NVivo counts the assignment as a *mention*. The total number of mentions of each of the themes across all participants is indicated in Table 5. The number of mentions for the theme of communications was approximately three times that of the theme of trust, but does not indicate that the theme of communications is 3 times as important as trust, because there could be numerous reasons for the difference in frequency, including ease of a particular theme as a discussion point, the ability to describe a particular theme in more expansive ways, and my coding decisions. A participant being more expressive about their experiences could result in increasing the number of mentions of a particular theme.

Table 5

Recurring Themes and Number of Mentions

Theme	Mentions
Communications	68
Employee relations	61
Individual leadership experience	43
Employee work issues	42
Monitoring	40
Trust	23

Note. Themes are sorted by number of mentions.

Discrepant Cases

My analysis did not exclude any participant cases. Some transcript material that discussed the experiences of teleworking employees from a theoretical perspective or from the perspective of one of the leader's own subordinates who also periodically worked remotely did not warrant inclusion in my analysis, although any descriptions of that teleworking leader's own experiences did merit inclusion.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

To strengthen the validity of a qualitative study, evidence of trustworthiness must be provided. Rigorous processes strengthen a qualitative study's stature, particularly in the face of the generative nature of qualitative data. Credibility, transferability, dependendability, and confirmability are all characteristics that fortify a study's trustworthiness (Patton, 2016; Ravitch & Carl, 2016).

Credibility

My research process used member checking and saturation to ensure credibility. Each participant had the opportunity to review, approve, or change his or her transcript if desired. My member-checking process resulted in participant acceptance of the transcript

in nine cases and a few changes and additions in the other three cases. The fact that participant experiences had many commonalities increased credibility. Ravitch and Carl (2016) indicated that saturation occurs when common themes emerge across participant samples. Finding common themes also serves as a way to cross-check member experiences against each other, to ensure a common experience of the phenomenon being studied. These similarities led me to conclude that my research process had achieved saturation after interviewing 12 participants. The results my study showed this high level of commonality across participants as evidenced by their own words.

Transferability

Miles et al. (2014) indicated that rich, thick descriptions, variability in client selection, admission of limitations in sample selection, consistency with other studies, and a discussion of the researcher's perspectives on the transferability of the data can facilitate the quality of transferability of a study. Transferability is a key quality for my study to have useful implications for further research and for practitioners. My assessment of my study in each of these areas is discussed in greater detail below.

Rich, thick description. One of the key processes used in this study was eliciting rich, thick descriptions from my participants. Maxwell (2013) recommended that researchers use full transcripts of interviews, not just notes, to elicit rich, thick descriptions. Repetitive open-ended questions can produce these rich, thick descriptions. Open-ended questions included the following.

- Please tell me about your positive and negative experiences of leading while working remotely.
- Regarding ____, could you tell me more about that experience?

- What was that like for you?

- I'd like to hear more about ____.

- Could you say that another way?

- What else can you tell me about ___?

- Could you say more about your experience doing ____?

- How does this experience compare to your doing ___ in an in-person context?

- What other unique leadership experiences occur while you are working remotely?

- Positive experiences? Negative? Rewarding? Challenging?

- Could you talk about experiences that are unique to leading while teleworking, that do not occur in a face-to-face context?

Open-ended questioning continued until the participant informed me that they had nothing else to say or until they started repeating themselves. For example, when I asked Participant 16, "Is there anything else about your experiences leading remotely that we haven't discussed that you want to bring up?" P16 replied, "Nothing's really coming to my mind."

Variability in client selection. Variability in participant selection included the four dimensions of gender, industry, level of experience, and amount of telework. The greater the variability, the more my study can be transferred to multiple situations. Transferability was enhanced because my participant group varied by gender, represented multiple industries, had a range of years of experience, and undertook varying amounts of telework.

Limitations in sample selection. Small sample selections can limit transferability, particularly if a lot of commonalities exist between participants in the

sample. Sampling that is diverse can facilitate broader applicability to other situations (Miles et al., 2014). My participants varied in gender, industry, amount of telework, and level of experience. This variation reduced the potential limitations on transferability due to sample selection. The lack of or presence of such limitations is described below.

Gender was mixed with eight males and four females. It is unclear as to whether this would limit transferability. Gender did not seem to account for any noticeable differences between the experiences of the males and females in this study.

Participants in my study represented nine industries: technology, life sciences, education, telecommunications, financial services, banking and finance, construction, software, and management consulting. Although it would be impossible to cover all industries in this type of study, the reader has a range of industries from which to determine transferability.

With respect to amount of telework, my participants fell into two categories: either they worked full time from home with several days in the office every 2 to 4 months, or they regularly worked a few days from home 1 to 2 days each week but were also in the office almost every week. Existing studies classify anyone working remotely more than 2.5 to 3 days per week as high intensity teleworkers (Belle et al., 2015; Koh et al., 2013). Based on this definition, my participant group included nine high intensity teleworking leaders and three low intensity teleworking leaders. Although these two groups had similar experiences of being teleworking leaders, a few differences did emerge.

The range of years of leadership experience went from 9 years to 38 years. The number of people reporting to my participant leaders averaged five direct reports and 20

indirect reports. Noticeably absent were participants at the lower end of leadership experience. There could be a difference in experience for those leaders who are new to teleworking and leading. Participant 13 indicated that, "I certainly think that over time it got easier for me. Because you would try out and figure out what things worked and what things didn't." The fact that the experiences of teleworking leaders with only a few years of leadership experience were not included is a limitation of this study.

Consistency with other studies. Transferability is enhanced when attributes of a study are consistent with other studies. The findings in my study were consistent with other studies with respect to definitions of telework. Although the actual experiences of my participants had some unique qualities, overall the categories of experiences described by the teleworking leaders in my study were consistent with those found in existing research.

Transferability of the data. The similarities of the rich, thick descriptions of the phenomenon by various participants indicate that teleworking leaders in other situations are likely to have similar experiences. The wide variety of participants also bodes well for transferability. Only minor limitations exist in sample selection. My study was consistent with other studies and fit into place with existing research.

Dependability

Achieving dependability relies heavily on project organization and execution. Although data drawn from sources such as interviews is unknown prior to data collection, the process for collecting such information can be known and rigorously applied. Miles et al. (2014) recommended that the process for collecting data should be consistent. My process followed that proposed in my IRB application. This process included participant

outreach, screening, receiving consent, interviews, and member-checking. My tracking

process included logging the dates of all of the indicated steps for each participant

(including those that were deemed ineligible), as recommended by Barusch et al. (2011)

and Patton (2016). In addition to recording the interviews, my process involved note-

taking to facilitate review of my contemporaneous impressions. All my coding notes

contributed to my audit trail. As indicated in Chapter 3, the audit trail enables other

researchers to have clear understanding of the processes needed to duplicate my research.

Confirmability

To strengthen confirmability, the researcher needs to do his or her best first to

recognize one's biases and then work to reduce them. Ravitch and Carl (2016) suggested

that even though bias exists, one must still do one's best to minimize its effect on one's

research through awareness of its existence throughout the research process. As advised

by Patton (2016), a neutral and open frame of mind during my interviews and throughout

my data analysis facilitated reduction of bias. Bracketing my experiences, as

recommended by Moustakas (1994), caused me to reflect on my own experiences and

compare and contrast them with those of my interview participants. This reflection

resulted in my recognizing that some of the interview responses resonated with my own

experiences whereas others revealed new experiences that had not matched my own.

<div align="center">**Results**</div>

My single research question sought to understand the phenomenon of leading

while working remotely. As previously indicated, current research has focused mainly on

the experiences of teleworkers in general or on virtual team leaders rather than the

specific experience of teleworking leaders. My research both attempts to fill this gap as

well as evaluate my findings in the context of prior findings from the perspective of a conceptual framework that looks at leadership as situational and relational.

My specific research question was How do leaders who telework perceive what it means to be a leader in the context of working remotely and using technology to communicate? The following six themes emerged in the responses of my participants.

1. *Communications*: The experience of communicating remotely

2. *Employee Relations*: The experience of developing relationships with employees remotely

3. *The Individual Leadership Experience*: The experience of the leader as a remote worker

4. *Employee or Work Issues*: The experience of dealing with employees or handling work-related issues

5. *Monitoring*: The experience of monitoring activities to track employee progress and work product

6. *Trust*: The experience of the need for feelings of trust or the lack thereof

A review of Chapter 3 shows that many of these broad themes are present in existing research literature on teleworking employees and virtual team leaders. Using the conceptual framework that leadership is situational and relational required me to delve deeply into these broad themes to look at how the teleworking leader's experience compares to other leadership contexts. The following discussions of each theme present the theme and the illustrative descriptions of the experiences by the participants of that particular theme, including an assessment of how the teleworking leadership experiences compare to those of the teleworking employee and virtual team leader. The excerpts

below may include generic placeholders to protect participant privacy instead of specific names or places.

Communications

Communications is one of the most important aspects of the experience of the remote leader, as evidenced by the number of mentions (68) and the normalized density of this topic (28%) in participant interviews. Several researchers list strong communication skills as a requirement for remote leadership (for example, Burbach & Day, 2015; Cowan, 2014). Participant responses revealed several themes around their experiences with communicating as a remote leader. These responses included their experiences with respect to the absence of informal communications and the resultant structuring of communications to make up for the lack of informal communication, the inability to read emotion without facial cues and actions to make up for this inability, and the resulting emergence of solutions to these communications problems including emergence of more efficient processes as employees learned the best ways to communicate with their remote leader. Following are sample excerpts from the participants that provide more richness to this description of their experiences.

Informal communications. Informal Communications relates to the experience of leaders' ability to informally commute with employees. The nature of these communications was reflected in language such as "pop over . . . unannounced" and "spontaneous." The teleworking leadership experience was that teleworking hindered informal communications.

> **P13**: You are probably more thoughtful in how you're leading those individuals and how you're communicating with them because it is really the only . . . you

know you can't sort of pop over by the desk unannounced and talk about something.

P24: I've usually had a lot of cases where I have a problem, and the guy down the hall has an answer for my problem. Or I have . . . am doing something, the guy down the hall has a better way of doing it better, more efficiently, cleaner, and so on. Those exchanges are really informal, and unstructured. You just can't get those easily when you've got one-on-one conversations on the telephone. They're not as spontaneous and they're also one-on-one as opposed to drifting from guy to guy or person to person. And you lose perspectives and you lose I think idea exchange. So that's the downside of distance work.

P24: What I've always missed is the interaction you have, especially the informal interactions that you have as you're wandering around the floor. I've generally worked in organizations that have more than a few people in the immediate area where I've worked. Oftentimes those people are working on either a project similar to mine if they're not working on my project and so we can . . . there's a lot of common experiences that you can share.

Structured communications. The lack of informal communications resulted in teleworking leaders specifically structuring communications to make up for this lack of informal communications. This structure ensured ongoing connection to one's team that could not be facilitated informally because the leader was remote.

P3: I think the consistency of communication is something that I realize is really important, especially as a remote manager.

P4: Usually we have a set agenda. We go through that agenda point wise. We agree on next steps, action items, and then move onto the next thing in the agenda. And then if we get through the entire agenda, which is always the plan, sometimes we run a little bit over but most of the time we finish and there's open time to air any concerns, any grievances, any what if scenarios.

P7: I usually lead the meetings. We are all on Google Docs anyway. We are following an agenda, taking notes. And then I do the exact same thing remotely as well, through Skype.

P11: I prefer to send mail than to speak by phone. I don't speak a lot by phone. I don't like phone because the problem by phone is that you are not sure that people say, "Well you know you told me that." And I say, "what, I'm not sure I told you that." "Yeah, you told me that." And then if you tell something . . . and if you tell something you're not sure that . . . people tend to understand what they want. It's a kind of selective memory. And so I always work by mail.

P13: So it would be perfectly fine to do sort of a weekly one-on-one over the phone but on a quarterly basis that . . . needs to be a longer in-person session to keep things on track.

P13: And then adding to that over time the notion that okay, you know what, we're going to do this as a web session. And we're not just going to talk about it but each of you is going to present . . . we'll talk about it and we'll do a deep dive on one of the projects each month. You'll present your project each month in a deeper session and we're going to do that with everybody looking at the same slides or the same spreadsheet or whatever, and we're going to . . . I found that to

continue to create more cohesion and more understanding the more we improved

both our verbal communication and also employing collaborative tools to help

pull us together onto a virtual same page.

P14: We have a set agenda. Sometimes we do a videoconference as well, just to

shake things up a little bit.

P15: So if I am giving the team some direction or something, or something to

discuss and I'm not being clear because I am not providing enough details, that

leads to that ambiguity and that's where the confusion lies and then a lot of

misinterpretation and then the other thing is wrong decisions are the result.

P16: I ask all my team members for example to create a weekly status email that

they send.

P24: This is a meeting where to kick the meeting off and organize it, I would

issue discussion points by email, sometime before the meeting, usually the day

before but it could be as much as five minutes before, depending on what I am

doing.

P26: It's one of those things where it has been really important to me to carve out

specific structures to ensure that we maintain communication and for me that has

meant daily ten minute "stand-up meetings" with the leaders under me. . . . And

then every Friday, doing a ten-minute give-or-take one-on-one with each of them

individually. Even not just my direct reports but the people underneath them,

those managers. And those two things, along with the weekly retrospective for the

whole team to just briefly share their highs and lows, those three things actually I

think all together have enabled us to have an effective communicating culture

where I feel like I'm being a good leader, people believe in my leadership skills, etcetera.

Reading emotion. Another experience of teleworking leaders was their challenge with and compensation for reading emotion. This is an experience that has been discussed in literature relating to teleworking employees and virtual teams. Baralou and McInnes (2013) cited the lack of emotion in online interactions. Glikson and Erez (2013) studied how virtual teams create emotion display norms. Marett and George (2013) indicated how nonverbal cues facilitate deception. The experiences of teleworking leaders in my study ranged from problem identification, compensating actions, and the use of technology to mitigate the issue.

P4: Unless you know the person really well and you've worked with them for I would say 6 months to a year and you kind of know the inflections in their voice or when they pause about something you kind of get it and you know that it's not a simple answer, it's not a simple yes or no or . . . or A, B or C. They are thinking of how to qualify their answer or their holding back something and so you dig a little deeper.

P7: It makes it a lot harder for the person who is remote to really read the room and really get the sense of "Hmmm, how are people taking this or that?"

P7: But with Skype, or sometimes we use Fuse or any of those videoconferencing technologies, I feel like it's actually seamless, like almost as if I was there.

P11: So you need to be physically around to look at people straight in the eyes and say, "Listen my friend. Do you really mean that? Do you understand that this is what we want to do?" and all this kind of thing. I think that natural leadership

needs your physical presence. I don't think a CEO can work remotely for a long time.

P12: If you have a lot of people in the room and people are saying different things, it's very . . . you can very quickly lose the cues of who's talking, who's not, who's ready to stop talking, and that kind of stuff. So I think what happens is you pick up different mannerisms. You start saying . . . you say your piece, and you say "Okay, I'm pausing. Who wants to go next?" So you have different process steps and process cues that occur as part of the operating and managing style that go along with this.

P12: That's one of the reasons that I'm trying to use videoconferencing more or in cases that I can because you can see the visual cues of people. You can see them fidget in their seats. You can see them smile. You can see them if they're doing other things so that you can manage the interaction, the attention span and all that kind of stuff. You can't see that on the phone.

P14: You kind of have to pay attention to what your originally established baseline is. The way I look at things, there is a normal. And in terms of how a person is responding or how they are communicating, or how . . . what their inflection is on their voice, etcetera. When I am remote I have to pay extra attention to those cues that I can only hear to make sure that they are attentive, that there's not something simmering beneath the surface, I'm touching not a nerve, so I have to pay extra attention in that regard.

P14: Are you sure they got it? When you are sitting across from somebody you can look in their eye and you can tell that they got it. They gave you some type of

visual cue, that: "I got it. We're on the same page." Whereas if you are remote, you are hoping that they do. So with that I change my style and I'm always asking, "Am I getting my point across?" I'm asking, "Did this make sense?" And I try to invite them to respond.

P15: And either chat, messaging, phone, Webex or any other ways to be able to communicate outside of physically being there where I can literally go up to someone's desk and say, "Okay, this is what I really meant and this is what I think you understood."

P16: I think that you have to be a little more formal in communicating with everything that's going on and what you are working on and things because you can't extract it just from the natural visuals that you get when you're in an office together.

P16: But I think one of the things that I really try to do probably more so is more active listening. And what I mean by that is repeating back what I think I heard someone say. You know, rephrasing it in . . . so, "here's what I think we said," or "here's what we came to agreement on." I mean those are things to do no matter what when you manage people but I think when you don't have the physical cues, . . . it's just that much more important to kind of reiterate and . . . do that kind of active listening.

P19: But it really may be that the quiet person on the side who is not forceful in his or her communication to the group, maybe you . . . in a face-to-face you may overlook that contribution which actually could be much more important, much more relevant.

P24: It's a lot easier to exercise that authority, demonstrate that . . . your position

in the hierarchy when you're there face to face and you can see the body language

and feel the body language or you can't avoid pounding the table or smiling or

whatever as you're going through this.

Most participants identified the lack of nonverbal cues as a challenge with being a

teleworking leader. Some participants developed alternative mechanisms to make up for

the lack of verbal cues. Others cited new technology such as Skype as reducing the

problem. These experiences are consistent with those studied in existing literature.

Efficiency of employee communications. Several teleworking leaders noted that

their experience of communicating with their employees remotely often led to more

efficient communications as the active intention of an employee to communicate with

their leader remotely apparently leads them to communicate more intentionally and

therefore more efficiently.

P3: I think the positive thing is that because you are not with them you end up

sort of focusing on issues that they can't solve on their own.

P4: They have to understand how to communicate with you. They have to

understand how to, make a decision on what that mode of communication is,

whether it's live voice, real time, video conferencing, Skype-ing, or just a

telephone call or whether they can email and wait to hear from you or the same

thing, texting and emailing seem somewhat similar to me.

P4: But what I think is really positive about teleworking is that the

communication rapport and capabilities that you're able to develop and manage

with your employees becomes far superior than if you're just working with

somebody always in the office. . . . I just felt that when you are teleworking with

employees they become really good at communicating, they know, they begin to

sense when a lot of discussion is necessary versus when they can just draft you a

note by some other means and wait for your response. . . . They become very used

to knowing what the rules are in terms of: here's decisions I can make on my own

while I'm in the office and my manager is away; here's decisions I need to inform

her, but I can make them; here's decisions I need to run past her and wait for a

decision; or here's something I need to get her live and get a call on it right away.

P11: Sometimes people are waiting in line to talk to you about some things which

are supposed to be important but which in fact which are not so important so I

think it's obliged people to send . . . to work with you by mail and as they

announce their time through the mail, they have to prepare in advance what they

are doing.

P12: There's no daily wastage of time that goes along with having people around.

The communications are always compact, and I like that.

P16: So it probably does create people being a little bit more effective in their

communications because they need to think about it a little bit more to write it

down even if it's writing it down in IM. It's a little different than popping your

head in. It takes a little bit more thought.

Cowan (2014) listed focused communications void of extraneous information as a

guiding principle for remote leadership. If subordinates of remote leaders communicate

efficiently, then a question arises as to whether employees of in-office leaders

communicate inefficiently. In-office leaders might consider improving their own communications efficiencies to match that of the teleworking leader.

Employee Relations

There was a strong focus on developing relationships with employees from all participants. This theme has been studied fairly extensively in existing research. Leduc, Guilbert, and Vallery (2015) identified communicating over technology as detrimental to the formation of employee relationships. Martinez and Gomez (2013) indicated that telework worsened employee relationships. O'Leary et al. (2014) found that the quality of relationships is not as correlated to distance but rather the quality of one's relationship through communication frequency, shared identity, and personality. Participants in my study who had a high level of telework intensity identified relationship development as a problem, often solved or mitigated through periodic visits to the organizational office. Relationship development was not identified as a problem for leaders who teleworked at a low intensity, and were generally in the office every week, although these participants did still have challenges communicating and reading emotion when communicating over technology. Following are the experiences of the leaders who were high intensity teleworkers.

> **P3**: I think the obvious negative thing for me is you do lose some of that . . . a little bit of that camaraderie as a team even though I get to visit them every few months but I'm . . . I'm not there on a day-to-day basis so I think there is a little bit of that relationship building does suffer.

P3: I have a pretty good relationship with the team so it's kind of its sort of a bigger deal every 3 months when I do go there. So they're sort of . . . Everybody's happy to see me or at least they pretend to be happy to see me.

P4: You do miss sometimes getting to interact with somebody a little bit more socially in terms of maybe, I guess going out to lunch, taking a break with each other, and having that kind of down time. However I wouldn't necessarily say it compromises any long lasting friendships that you have.

P4: I always figured out a way to create that face time, even if it was once or twice a year, the more often the better. I just felt that it was necessary to build that in to the agenda.

P12: And, so I found that over time, not just the stuff that I'm doing now but other teams that I've worked with in the past, that maintaining that level of ease in communication becomes very critical to maintaining efficiency. And so that's mostly how I do it. I tell a lot of jokes. We give people nicknames.

P12: And so when I go and see them I'll deliberately budget into my timeline planning socializing time with people. And that has a payoff when you are again remote in that now you have a social basis for maintaining contact and smoothing issues and also if there are strengths or weaknesses that you detect, you can be more sensitive to them and work those sensitivities into it because now you know them better.

P13: You have just that sort of casual banter interaction. When you are working remote, there is a lot less of that. Because typically you get on the phone and there is a purpose and a reason why you're on the call and there's not a lot of time spent

just . . . and that was one of the things that I was always careful to try to inject a little bit of when I had my one-on-one's. Ask them about them and their family and that sort of thing to try to recreate that.

P15: If the leader has a strong enough presence where he or she does not have to be onsite where he can really empower people to reach their potential then that leader basically is doing as great of a job as possible because without the actual presence he can still get people to motivate.

P16: And that's part of the reason that I choose to go out there once a quarter is really just so I can make that face-to-face contact and have lunch with my team members which is not something I can do from here. And when you go have lunch together you end up chatting about non-work things.

P16: And I think that's probably the biggest challenge working remotely is how do you kind of create that? You have to that a little bit more purposely. You have to think about that and focus it. I have to try to make myself ask . . . start my phone conversations with a little bit of chit-chat if possible which I wouldn't normally do.

P19: But I think it's a little bit more important to do it remotely. It may only take a minute or two but that minute or two pays off in great dividends for the quality of work that the person will do for you because they know that you care about them.

P24: So I think the social interaction is much tougher and if you're in an organization or a work environment, work structure, where you really have to

communicate amongst other people, you really have to work a lot harder to keep

the lines of communication open.

P26: And the truth is when I think of when the biggest jumps occurred just in

terms of the connection between us, I do think that me going out there and

meeting in person and them flying out and meeting me in person, having a few

times together and kind of making things more human actually leaps that forward

quite a bit.

P26: But even with a camera, it just . . . it pales in comparison to being in person.

There's just a different feel that happens. There's a different closeness that

happens being in person.

High intensity teleworking leaders frequently missed relationship development with

subordinates, and valued the trips to the organizational office several times per year.

The Individual Leadership Experience

The teleworking experience for the leader has aspects that are similar to the

teleworking employee, but with the unique perspective of the leader. These experiences

include feelings of responsibility to staff members, using remote work for deep strategic

thinking, and the appreciation of work-life balance.

Feelings of responsibility to staff members. Allen et al. (2015) discussed the

tendency for teleworkers to work at all hours and Duxbury and Halinski (2014b)

discussed work role overload from a tendency to work excessive hours. The teleworking

employee works additional hours to both show performance and also because

productivity increases with remote work (Greer & Payne, 2014). In contrast, the tendency

to overwork for the teleworking leader was driven more by a sense of obligation to one's team.

> **P3**: Certainly there are lots of tools, both software and hardware that allows you to be accessible at times . . . all the time. Again this is where you start to have a little bit of an over-reliance on sending people IM's, and now we're sending messages via Flash, and we're sending messages via Confluence, on top of that we have email, we have text messaging. So . . . it can be a little bit burdensome.

> **P3**: If the people are working for me are asking for things that I need to be responsive. And so I think I put some pressure on myself to be . . . to be able to pull over and answer a question.

> **P3**: And I always feel that pressure that I gotta be really responsive. So, I do find myself working much longer hours, often trying to stay one . . . one day ahead of them so it's not uncommon for me to be up at one in the morning making sure everything is set, then before they come into the office, so I'm online again at 7 or 8 in the morning before we have our stand up call to make sure again that I'm not a bottle neck.

> **P11**: I'm 24/7. Yeah, but you must be. You can't be a CEO and say okay my friend, I have the CEO, I have the package of the CEO but I'm not available. That doesn't make sense.

> **P19**: You could get into the trap of working excessive amount of hours. . . . There are some days where you might very well put in sixteen hours or even 20 hours.

Using remote work for strategic thinking. Kaplan (2014) cited quiet time as an important benefit of telework. Bloom et al. (2015) found that telework improved

productivity, even for a clerical work such as in a call center. Other researchers such as

Greer and Payne (2014) and Brunelle (2013) cited increased productivity as a benefit of

teleworking. Most existing research discusses productivity increases without specifying

what were the specific productivity increases. In addition to being able to focus on one's

own work, several of the participants responded that they use this time to think

strategically.

> **P4**: I can figure out a strategy, work up a plan, execute that plan, and measure my
> results and I know I can do that whether I'm in the office or not in the office.
>
> **P7**: When I'm not in meetings, not in scheduled meetings, I can actually get more
> done because I am not interrupted.
>
> **P7**: It gives me a chance to think, and kind of look at the bigger picture, and just
> look at everything a little more objectively, which is nice. And that's one of the
> reasons that I like to work remotely when I can because it just gives me that
> thinking time, without being constantly in the fray of conversations and
> interruptions and things like that.
>
> **P11**: I try when I work when I do teleworking to work on more strategic issues . .
> . or let's say projects where I have to take some time to think about it.
>
> **P11**: Teleworking for me is good about in-depth working. Not day-to-day
> operations but structural . . . structural problems or organization problems or
> strategic problems. You can read more in-depth reports or you can take more time
> to solve issues.
>
> **P13**: And I found that to be extremely rewarding to have those sort of naturally
> built in quiet hours to do the thinking part of the job that sometimes gets swamped

when you're in an office with everybody sort of just coming by and popping in and that sort of thing.

P15: When I worked remote, for me, I get . . . I can get . . . I can be more productive because I have an extra one or two hours that I can be productive because I don't have to deal with other factors.

P19: A lot of what I do is design work, and I could focus on the design without interruptions.

P26: And that doesn't necessarily mean individual contributor like coding work, but it could mean even just planning leadership oriented stuff or planning strategic stuff. Just having that separation gives me a lot of productive time.

P24: And you don't have to . . . you can really avoid distractions if you're concentrating on individual tasks or activities.

The contrast with in-office leaders is an important comparison. Organizations that desire more strategic vision from their leaders might encourage more remote work.

Work-life balance. Koh et al. (2013) found that employees benefit from support for telework and work-life balance. Greer and Payne (2014) studied strategies to create work-life balance. Hynes (2014) indicated that more employees do not telework because organizational leaders do not appreciate work-life balance. Stout et al. (2013) looked at how managers affect acceptance of telework in organizations. Beham et al. (2015) studied decisions by managers to let their employees telework. The experiences of the teleworking leaders in my study were consistent with existing literature on work-life balance gained from telework.

P7: It's actually a little nice to be able to do that once a while as we all have personal lives too. And every once in a while it's nice to be able to be home and take care of things that are hard to do when you're at work 50 hours a week, Monday through Friday.

P11: I think life is made of equilibriums and so the company takes advantage of my experience and I take advantage of still having an interesting professional life but being able to be in [Place].

P12: So you work real hard but you can also detach from it. And having those two life balances is I think critical in terms of keeping you motivated and keeping you centered as you go about your business particularly as you get into more strategic levels of management, painting courses of action and paths for companies to either survive or grow, strategic C-suite type issues.

P13: Being able to really bucket those together at the time that I was there was helpful to me in creating a better balance.

P16: It also just gives me a little more flexibility. Like when the dishwasher needs to be fixed I don't have to plan time away from work. I'm here. I get to work.

P19: For example, I'm looking at a field full of cows and the hills in the background as I'm speaking with you. It's a relaxation you have in the comfort of your home and lets you focus upon the task at hand.

P24: You can set your own time pretty much. You can work at your own time. In working remotely you usually have control over the work environment.

P26: Sure, so, I think probably the most positive thing is that it has been a great way for me to find balance between communicating when necessary and then having time on my own to focus and be productive.

P26: Because I think that if you're capable to work from home and you are happy doing it, it just makes you so much more versatile than having to be located in the office.

Employee or Work Issues

One of the key challenges that leaders have when working remotely is when an employee has a problem or work issue that needs to be resolved. Both high intensity and low intensity teleworking leaders identified the challenge with resolving employee or work issues as a key challenge with telework.

P3: Having the negative conversation you're not really sure what they're really thinking. And so you're just sort trying to guess and just figure things out as you have that conversation. I find that to be a little challenging as a remote manager especially as you have things that . . . not such a positive call with them.

P4: But one thing I can say is that it is difficult when you have direct reports and you have . . . and they are struggling. And that's another opportunity where you have to say, "Am I going to help this person? What's it going to take?" And that may mean that you have to come into the office.

P7: If there's things that require last minute consultation with other departments and stuff, if I'm working remotely I can't just walk over to the department and knock on the door and say, "Hey, can I have a minute?" you know? So that's one of the challenges.

P11: So the problem with working . . . with teleworking is basically when you have to meet someone and to say, "You know my friend, there is a problem there and you have to change the way you work." Because this is something hard to do. You have to do that face-to-face and say "Okay, if you keep going like this you are going to have a problem with me. Either you change or you are out." And so this is hard to do with teleworking.

P12: They are not always hyper-efficient. And in many cases, they can be quite inefficient and they can be quite meanderingly frustrating. And so those are the times where it becomes a challenge to do things remotely. Because when people are essentially lost . . . and all projects can get lost . . . It's just the way things work. . . . In those times, trying to communicate and come to better approaches to carry forward can become very very challenging. And that's usually when I will just hop on a plane and go over there and spend a week, maybe 2 weeks, however long it takes to get past the issue.

P13: I found managing performance issues to be very difficult remotely.

P14: Let's say you're having a very good fight with someone. You're having a very good disagreement and you're not seeing eye-to-eye. Typically when you finally see somebody face-to-face, you can work it out. You can figure it out. And I think it becomes more challenging when you don't have that opportunity to do so. Where you can't really have a good disagreement and come to a really good ending point with that. So that's the challenge.

P15: You can't walk up to them and ask why something is behind schedule and what is the reason for it. So that is another negative aspect of remote.

P16: I think there are times when you are trying to have some really heart-to-heart or provide critical performance feedback that it would be really helpful to be able to physically see the reactions of somebody, to see their facial expressions. . . . I had recently have put one of my employees on a performance improvement plan basically indicating that they are not meeting the expectations of the role and having to do that all entirely remotely without ever being able to have the face-to-face. . . . and you know you can hear a certain amount over the phone but interpreting a pause, a quiet is really different when you're in the room with somebody.

P19: But it does really require that you keep very careful track of the progress that is being made. You can't just walk around and pop in on somebody and see if they are doing what they are supposed to if they are wasting time or whatever.

P24: If there's something where I want to know what's going on, I can pick up the phone and call someone if I am working remotely. If I'm working collocated, I go down the hall, pound on the desk or whatever, and say, "Hey, what's going on here?" or "Let's talk about this." And I believe that to be productive, the leader has to walk around and ask the people what's going on, make the calls, check with them what's going on. I find that telephone is a much tougher way of carrying out these informal discussions because you both have to be there and you both have to be focused on the issue.

P26: There's been sometimes the downside to that which is, we had one younger guy in [State1] who kind of over time because unruly and egotistical, and kind of thinking he was just super-amazing and that kind of got in the way of him

communicating with folks and being effective. And . . . so that's one thing that I feel like if I were in the office up physically out there, that probably wouldn't have gotten as out of hand.

Monitoring

Regular monitoring or tracking of project progress is an important part of remote leadership. Studies of teleworking employees and virtual team leaders often discussed the need to monitor their remote employees. Burbach and Day (2015) and Greer and Payne (2014) listed monitoring as a key challenge of telework. Gilson et al. (2015) conducted a meta-study on virtual teams and found the use of technology for monitoring as a key trend. The overarching theme of the participants' experiences was the need to focus on specific measurable goals.

> **P3**: But we do try to center all our conversations around, especially when we are discussing projects, that everything gets tracked so that there . . . you can always go back to see what task that you've been assigned to. So between communication tools and project tracking tools . . . like I said, sometimes it can be a little bit overbearing so there's just a lot coming at you and you have to rely on these tools since you are not physically there. But so far we've found them to be fairly effective for us to be able to have a team remote and I'm not there physically.

> **P4**: So we're constantly measuring ourselves. We're constantly working towards completing plans that have been agreed upon and budgeted down to the last dollar.

> **P7**: All of the communications is done through email, through the same email thread because that's how we keep track of everyone's input and stuff.

P7: And I think one of the nice things that was kind of set up early on for our entire department is that things are pretty . . . like we put a lot of stuff in writing. Everything is kind of written out. And we are pretty disciplined about who does what and the processes. And we all follow those processes, who needs to be part of which discussions and what not. And who's in charge of things and who is the second person in charge of those things. So it runs pretty smoothly because everyone knows what they need to do.

P11: So by reading a report, by reading information that is circulating, I can figure out very easily if everything is under control or if they need or if I need to call someone and say, "Are you sure it's okay?" and this kind of thing.

P12: And you can also track the work not as much on input by supervising and watching people as they are going along, but by on their output.

P13: I also think . . . it's also a challenge sometimes to figure out exactly what . . . what is going well in terms of how the team is performing and what isn't going well. Sometimes you're operating on sort of lag indicators.

P14: I'll have scheduled meetings where we're checking in with each other. So I have a once a week management meeting where I meet with my team and then I schedule individual meetings with them depending on the projects.

P15: If I have sent an email out or some list of things that need to be done and a week later instead of being 100% we are at 50% or 60% or less than that, that means that people are not focused enough to get things done.

P15: But when someone is on TV or I mean on camera or like or on a monitor, they are a little more cognizant of the fact that they are kind of being watched. So

they can't pretend like they are just sitting around lounging and they are actually

doing work. They have to have a professional demeanor about it.

P16: I ask all my team members for example to create a weekly status email that

they send . . . .and made that more formal. Whereas perhaps if I worked right

there, we might have more informal check-in meetings.

P19: The dynamic of the environment is one where the deliverable, the

completion of various task milestones was measurable. So I could tell if

somebody was meeting expectations, not meeting expectations or exceeding

expectations.

P24: But they all have to be working toward the same goal, which is to complete

their part of the job so that their part of the job allows the rest of the job to come

to completion. If they don't do the job then it's like your car where you've got

three of the four tires.

P26: We ask people to write weekly notes, which just tracks all the work they've

done for the week and I review them each week. And so that's another way for

me to kind of counteract that.

Trust

Most participants specifically mentioned the challenges of generating trust and the

need for trust to be established. This experience is prevalent in literature on virtual team

leadership and telework. Allen and Vakalahi (2013) in their meta-analysis and Benetytė

and Jatuliavičienė (2013) found that trust was a key issue for leaders of virtual teams.

Bentley et al. (2016) found that manager trust of teleworking employees was a key issue.

Although trust has been frequently mentioned in literature on virtual team leadership and

telework, having it emerge as a theme in my study shows that it is not the employee being remote that is the issue. The issue is the physical separation between the leader and employee. Trust remains an issue when leaders are remote and employees are in an organizational office.

> **P3**: The level of trust that you have to build so that you can trust that they're doing the work that they're supposed to be doing even though nobody's there watching over their shoulder.

> **P4**: Because I have a very proven track record and it's like if you don't trust your employees

> **P11**: If you have someone that just wants to hide or to work . . . or not to work, or to work to use his intelligence against you then you have a hard time to solve it.

> **P12**: The coaching methodology that goes with making it work well and efficiently is building up the trust and confidence of the people that you're working with remotely so that they start to see that they are not waiting for orders that they . . . and it's okay that they initiate actions and tell you later that this is the decision they made.

> **P13**: There is a certain amount of trust that's established by in-person interaction and being a remote. . . . .Especially a remote people manager, you definitely have to be very mindful of that and making sure that you're coming at other ways of achieving that.

> **P14**: I just have to always be mindful of how those folks are, you know, how well they're interacting with the project. So it's an extra effort to make sure that

they're very much integrated, motivated, and in line and aligned with the actual project.

P15: Well, you have to trust people or you really have to question, okay they are late. Is it habit or is it just a one off type of thing? So having a trust factor gets to be something that you have to work with, with different people because they may take an attitude that there is no one physically there to really monitor them.

P16: It means that I have to have a level of trust that employees don't take advantage of that I can't see that. But it also goes the other way that I don't necessarily see when somebody is working a lot of extra hours. I mean they do submit time sheets but it's just not as in your face as it would be if you were there.

P19: We had a few people that were working remotely and I always wondered "Am I getting the amount of work out of them that I should be getting?"

P24: It's only after you've worked together for a period of time that you can begin to develop that level of trust and that level of confidence that you're being directed in the right way.

P26: In the first year or two it was really hard for me to know if somebody wasn't pulling their weight or wasn't doing a good job, people were very ready to defend that person and it was really hard for me to tell really what was . . . where were mistakes being made or who wasn't pulling their weight. . . . Once that trust was earned, then this dynamic kind of became less and less of an issue.

P26: In reality my gut sense is a lot of the progress that happened there was because of the time we took to meet in person and some of the closeness that came from that in addition to having these little established meetings each week

and gaining trust through those. But I don't . . . I think without those in person

meetings I'm not sure that we'd be at the level of closeness that we are today.

The experience of these teleworking leaders was that relationship building helps to create

trust, whether that occurs over time, through intentional building of the relationship over

technology or preferably, in person. In addition to relationship building to mitigate trust

issues, three participants suggested that a leader who places resources in the

organizational office creates the oversight that is missing when the leader is remote.

> **P11**: To have efficient teleworking means that you must be in the job for a while
>
> to have a good idea of what's happening in the different departments. . . . You
>
> need someone in your office to help you out.
>
> **P13**: Yeah, I mean that was just working the relationships that I had and really
>
> building very strong relationships up my management chain and also in other
>
> departments so that people when they would see things that were going on that
>
> they thought I might need to know about, they would tell me.
>
> **P26**: If somebody has a problem with something I did, I will almost never hear it
>
> directly from the person. But I will almost always hear it directly from this senior
>
> leader, his name is [Name1]. I will almost always hear these things from
>
> [Name1]. And as long as he and I have a strong relationship I'm able to move
>
> through these challenges and know what's really going on.
>
> **P26**: I would be vigilant about . . . basically trying to have a "spy in the office,"
>
> shall we say, somebody who is trustworthy who I can see what's really going on
>
> over there and what are they talking about because I wouldn't feel like I had a real
>
> read into that myself.

Trust becomes an issue not only for the leader but also for the employee in an unexpected way. The theme of teleworking employees being concerned about their performance being appreciated while working remotely is an issue that is extensively discussed in literature of teleworking employees (Church, 2015; Stout et al., 2013). What my interviews revealed is that it is the separation between the leader and employee that is the issue, not whether an employee works away from the organizational office. When a leader chooses remote work, the employees become remote to the leader, even though these employees have not moved from the organizational office. The idea that employee-leader relationship dynamics change when a leader works remotely makes sense from the vantage point of my conceptual framework which presumes that leadership is relational and situational. Working remotely changes the dynamics of interpersonal relationships. Several of the participants in my study showed an awareness of the change in interpersonal dynamics.

> **P4**: I think you really need to go the extra mile with your employees to make sure that they are thriving, that they are advancing, and that you are grooming them for their next opportunity.

> **P12**: So one of the things that happens, and it happens regularly, and I think it's an artifact of all businesses is there's competition for resources; there's competition for attention; and there's competition for mindshare even within an organization. So when you're managing teams remotely and managing projects remotely, you have to always bear in mind that you got guys that are not remote and have a bit of an advantage over you in terms of grabbing bodies.

P13: And then I think one of the things that I always felt was difficult too was just my direct reports . . . there would be times where they would be concerned that things were going on in the headquarters location that I was out of the loop with and that was going to impact us all negatively because I wasn't there to champion for us in person. I overcame that for the most part but I definitely understood why they would be concerned about that.

P16: I think it goes both ways from a perspective of knowing how much . . . their knowing how much or little I'm working and my knowing how much or little they're working, as well as gauging how busy we all are.

P19: But when you are doing it remotely, I think it's a little bit more important to make sure the person knows that they are appreciated and their work product is valuable.

Low Intensity and High Intensity Teleworking Leaders

For both groups, communications was the most frequently mentioned experience and trust was the least. For the leaders with low intensity telework, experiences of employee relations, monitoring, employee work issues, and individual leadership experiences were comparably important, whereas trust was much lower on the list.

As previously indicated, the length of each interview ranged from 15 minutes to 40 minutes, with 29 minutes being the average. The participants with low intensity of telework had the three shortest interviews. I deemed interviews to be completed when the participant had nothing to add to their descriptions of their experiences after repeated open-ended questioning.

Summary

My research question, "How do leaders who telework perceive what it means to be a leader in the context of working remotely and using technology to communicate?" generated descriptions of experiences from all twelve participants around the themes of communications, employee relations, monitoring, employee/work issues, individual leadership experiences, and trust. Viewed from a conceptual framework of leadership being situational and relational, certain findings emerged that confirmed and extended existing literature. I assessed these experiences to be highly trustworthy based on my adherence to process, variability in my participant pool, and consistency of experiences across the group. The following chapter includes my interpretation of the findings of my research, limitations of my study, recommendations for future work, and implications for positive social change and for practice.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological research was to better understand how leaders who telework perceive what it means to be a leader in the context of working remotely at least 1 day per week, and using technology to communicate. The study design placed the rich descriptions of the experiences of these teleworking leaders into the conceptual framework that the act of leading remotely created a situational and relational dynamic that could alter the leadership experience.

Several overarching themes emerged that were consistent with existing research, but, in many cases, the nuances of the experiences of remote leadership added to the body of knowledge of the unique characteristics of remote leadership. The themes that emerged centered around communications, employee relations, the individual leadership experience, employee or work issues, monitoring, and trust. The nuances of remote leadership that emerged included (a) the development of certain communications practices to mitigate the lack of in-person communication such as more structured communications, developing an enhanced ability to read emotion via technology, and the benefit of employees needing to streamlining their communications with their remote leader for enhanced efficiency; (b) intentional creation of in-person visits to enhance employee relations; (c) the experience of feeling obligated to be available for one's team; (d) the use of remote work to do the important leadership activity of deep, strategic thinking; (e) the use of in-office contacts to help with the monitoring process; and (f) the employees being challenged to trust one's remote leaders to support them.

In the following section, I discuss these findings; the limitations of the study; implications for further research and practice; implications for positive social change on

individual, family, and social levels; methodological, theoretical, and empirical

implications; and recommendations for practice.

Interpretation of the Findings

My research approach assumes that although teleworking leaders may have some

similar experiences to teleworking employees and virtual team leaders, they also have

unique experiences that are worth exploring. A conceptual framework that sets the

function of leadership into a situational and relational context respects the unique

situation of the teleworking leader and the changes in relationship dynamics as a result of

the context in which the leader is operating. The key themes developed in the analysis of

my interview data have commonalities with existing research on telework and virtual

teams. The nuances of the remote leadership experience emerge when comparing and

contrasting these experiences to those found in existing research. These are discussed

further below.

Communications

As Zhang (2016) and others found, communications can be challenging over

technology from a remote environment. The participants in this study experienced

challenges when needing to communicate over technology, consistent with existing

literature. Structured processes have been identified as mitigating factors to this challenge

(Gilson et al., 2015). Consistent with this finding, teleworking leaders in this study

developed more structured communications processes to mitigate the lack of in-person

communication. One process that participants expressed is the development of enhanced

abilities to read emotion over technology through more active listening, getting to know

employees' emotional norms, and intentionally being aware of the spirit and energy of employee's communications.

One experience not mentioned in existing literature is that the some of the unique processes resulted from employee action, rather than direction from teleworking leader. Participants found that employees learned to streamline their communications with their remote leader for enhanced efficiency. Thus not only does the teleworking leader face a different work context when that leader chooses to telework, but also employees whose leaders are remote must adjust their behaviors to account for their working in the context of having a remote leader. This finding occurs in several of the themes.

Employee Relations

Gilson et al. (2015) looked at relationships in virtual teams. Leduc et al. (2015) is one of the few researchers who found reduced employee relationships as a result of the resultant focus on tasks during telework. Participants in my study realized the importance of employee relationships and intentionally created in-person visits to enhance employee relations. Their visits were not simple office visits but intentional processes designed to enhance relations including preplanning of visits and intentional socializing.

The Individual Leadership Experience

Allen et al. (2015) found teleworking employees can enjoy additional focus by working from home. My participants' experiences matched these findings. However, little is said in current literature about what the focus of one's remote work is. My participants emphasized that they used the quiet time and lack of interruption to focus on the important leadership task of deep strategic thinking. Research also discussed the tendency of teleworkers to put in more hours (Barnwell et al, 2014; Chen & McDonald,

2015). Again little is said about what those hours are used for. In the experience of my participants, the additional hours are often used to be more responsive and available to staff, even if staff members do not realize the number of hours their leader is working.

Employee or Work Issues

A key challenge to leading remotely were employee or work issues. Although participants described this experience as a challenge, they did not have many solutions, except to handle those employee or work issues as best as possible remotely, or to jump on a plane and meet to deal with the situation in person. The problem of how to handle employee or work issues was more of an challenge with participants who were high intensity teleworkers. Cowan (2014) suggested that issues should not be a problem because rapid communications can serve to facilitate rapid resolution of such issues. But participants in this study clearly expressed the challenge of both discovering and resolving these issues.

Monitoring

Greer and Payne (2014) and others have identified the need to monitor employee performance as a key need of remote work. Task or goal monitoring is also often mentioned. The need to monitor exists even when employees are collocated in an organizational office and the leader is remote. Several participants suggested the use of in-office contacts to help with the monitoring process.

Trust

Martinez and Gomez (2013) cited lagging careers as a problem with employees teleworking. Although none of the leaders in my study mentioned their own careers lagging, several did mention that there was a potential trust problem with employees

trusting that even though these employees were collocated in an organizational office, that their contributions would not be recognized by a remote leader.

Low Intensity and High Intensity Teleworking Leaders

Two observations emerged in the comparison of the high intensity and low intensity teleworkers. The first is that the interview lengths were shorter for the low intensity teleworking leaders. One potential reason for the interview length being shorter is that participants who had a low intensity of telework did not see their experiences as teleworking leaders as significantly different than working in the office. For example, P7 indicated, "Really for me it's the same as if I were there" and "A lot of that's done through email as well . . . and that I can do whether I'm remote or not." The second observation was that although trust was a theme for both low-intensity and high-intensity teleworking leaders, trust seemed to be less of an issue for leaders with low-intensity telework. A potential reason for the variance in frequency of mention is that trust issues may be moderated by their frequency of time in the office. Future studies might take more rigorous measurements of face-to-face or office time and correlate that to issues of trust.

Overall, these six themes were both consistent with and built on existing research. The underlying conceptual framework that working remotely creates a unique work situation and changes relationship dynamics with one's team was effective in analyzing the interview responses. A key overarching finding is that although the intention of this project was to look at how leadership experiences change in the context of remote work, the teleworking leaders also showed awareness of how the experience of the employee changed when one's leader was remote. Remote leaders appreciated that their employees

strived to make their communications processes more efficient. These leaders further understood that employees felt anxiety around their performance being recognized, not because the employee was remote, but because the leader who was remote was not available on site to both witness their performance and also to stand for them in negotiations for pay and experience.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations to trustworthiness in my study did not emerge from any divergence from my original proposed plan to achieve trustworthiness. My process adhered closely to all of the intended procedures as outlined in Chapter 1 of my proposal. Any limitations that emerged were the result of the small sample size. Although saturation was achieved, which helps with trustworthiness, my sample did not include every type of industry or organization. Enough information was provided or is available for any users of this research to determine the transferability of the study to their own situation. A more prevalent limitation was the lack of novice teleworking leaders. The average level of leadership experience of my participants was 21 years, which is a high level of seniority and leadership experience. My study did not include the experiences of teleworking leaders with little experience, for example, fewer than 5 years. Although teleworking leaders with less experience might learn from the capabilities of more experienced teleworking leaders, the experience of these leaders may not be transferable to their own situations.

Recommendations

This study can lead to several avenues for further research. One avenue would be further study of the specific experiences of teleworking leaders, as unique from that of

teleworking employees. A review of my literature shows that 38% of my literature review sources mentioned that their population sampled included both teleworking employees and teleworking leaders, but none of them called out the unique experiences of teleworking leaders. A second area of study stems from the high level of experience of the teleworking leaders in my study. A study of teleworking leaders who are new to teleworking would fill this gap.

This research could also further the understanding of the best practices of teleworking leaders that could help in-office leaders. Existing research often takes the perspective that teleworking has several disadvantages. The research looks at how leaders must modify their behavior to adjust to their new situation and new relationships. Studies do not discuss how strategic organizational advantages gained by teleworking can be applied to an in-office context. One research goal might be figuring out how to encourage in-office employees to have more efficient communications with in-office leaders. Another possible course of study would be to examine whether instilling remote work practices provides strategic advantages through the enabling of added deep strategic thinking by the leader.

Another avenue of study would be the dynamic of employees who remain in an organizational office but now work remotely from their teleworking leader. Although teleworking leaders took the initiative to ensure that they develop their employees appropriately, some employees worried that their direct supervisor being remote would stunt their own careers.

Implications

Past studies have touted the benefits of telework to individuals, families, communities, and society. Benefits to individuals and families of telework include better work-life balance and better family relationships (Powell & Craig, 2015). Organizations can benefit from more productive employees and lower office expenses (Allen et al., 2015). Telework has been said to reduce traffic and emissions, reduced road wear and tear, and reduced crowding (Allen et al., 2015; Burbach & Day, 2015). The increased understanding of the teleworking experience for leaders in my study should help individuals, organizations, and society have more information upon which to base their teleworking decisions. The positive social change that comes from this understanding is discussed below.

Positive Social Change on the Individual Level

One way that this study could create positive social change on the individual level would be to disseminate the information from this study to help teleworking leaders reflect on their own experiences and note potential ways that their own experience might benefit from others. As previously indicated, newer teleworking leaders could also benefit from the experiences of the teleworking leaders in my study.

Positive Social Change on the Family Level

The most realistic implication for positive social change on the family level related to work-life balance, which was mentioned repeatedly as a benefit for teleworking leaders. Work-life balance could provide better family relationships through the avoidance of having to uproot one's family to work in the organizational office. This benefits both the individual leader and the leader's organization.

Positive Social Change on the Organizational Level

Organizations could understand these experiences and evaluate the role of telework for the leaders in their organization, such as developing training to more quickly ramp up the abilities of new teleworking leaders. In addition, organizations could recruit talented leaders with the understanding that they could work remotely but still significantly contribute to the organization. As telework provides increased capacity for leaders to think strategically, promotion of telework for leaders who telework regularly and for those who are primarily in-office leaders could help organizational sustainability. Understanding the benefits and challenges of telework for the leadership level could help organizations further understand whether allowing telework is right for the organization, and if so, how to implement it.

Positive Social Change on the Societal/Policy Level

One of the biggest benefits for society is the ability of work to continue in the face of a disaster or emergency. Donnelly and Proctor-Thomson (2015) studied telework after an earthquake. Although certain emergency and health and safety functions are more critical for business continuity, minimizing the chaos caused by business interruptions is a clear benefit to society. City and county agencies could benefit from understanding the experiences of teleworking leaders so that their leaders, whether they telework on a regular basis or not, might successfully function while working remotely in the event of an emergency.

Methodological, Theoretical, and Empirical Implications

The key methodological implication from this research is that telework creates a unique situational and relational context for leadership, confirming that a situation exists

that is worthy of further study. Lessening that need is the finding that many of the experiences of my participants were consistent with existing research on teleworking employees and virtual team leaders. Expanding knowledge in the area of teleworking leaders could focus on how employee relationships change when their leaders telework. Best practices that teleworking leaders adopt for efficiency, such as expedient communications practices, could help resolve challenges that in-office leaders might have.

Recommendations for Practice

Several recommendations for practice emerged from this study. The first evolves from the finding that teleworking leaders cherished the opportunity for deep, strategic thinking that they could do remotely but struggled to achieve while they were in the office. The focus on allowing leaders to telework has been centered on the leader being able to fulfill the roles of employee relations, employee development, and employee monitoring.

The second is that organizations could also consider offering low intensity telework to their leaders. Based on the experiences of my participants, frequent in-office experience can produce some of the benefits (strategic thinking) without some of the downsides (working employee issues face-to-face).

<div align="center">

Conclusion

</div>

As technology continues to develop, teleworking continues to expand, making this study on teleworking leaders timely and pertinent. This phenomenological study of teleworking leaders has created a body of knowledge about the experiences of teleworking leaders that can be used for further research and understanding of this topic.

My research showed that the experiences of teleworking leaders, virtual team leadership, and teleworkers have both common experiences and also unique experiences that warrant further exploration. In addition to studying the specific experiences of teleworking leaders, a focus on the experiences of employees of teleworking leaders, and taking best practices from teleworking leader might inform in-office leaders and improve organizational productivity with or without the implementation of telework.

References

Aime, F., Humphrey, S., DeRue, D. S., & Paul, J. B. (2014). The riddle of heterarchy: Power transitions in cross-functional teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, *57*(2), 327-352. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0756

Alizadeh, T. (2012). Teleworkers' characteristics in live/work communities: Lessons from the United States and Australia. *Journal Of Urban Technology*, *19*(3), 63-84. https://doi.org/10.1080/10630732.2011.642569

Allen, S. A., & Vakalahi, H. F. O. (2013). My team members are everywhere! A critical analysis of the emerging literature on dispersed teams. *Administration in Social Work*, *37*(5), 486-493. https://doi.org/10.1080/03643107.2013.828002

Allen, T. D., Cho, E., & Meier, L. L. (2014). Work-family boundary dynamics. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 1*(1), 99-121. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091330

Allen, T. D., Golden, T. D., & Shockley, K. M. (2015). How effective is telecommuting? Assessing the status of our scientific findings. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, *16*(2), 40-68. https://doi.org/10.1177/1529100615593273

Anderson, A. J., Kaplan, S. A., & Vega, R. P. (2015). The impact of telework on emotional experience: When, and for whom, does telework improve daily affective well-being? *European Journal of Work & Organizational Psychology*, *24*(6), 882-897. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2014.966086

Applebaum, M. (2012). Phenomenological psychological research as science. *Journal Of Phenomenological Psychology*, *43*(1), 36-72. https://doi.org/10.1163/156916212X632952

Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60,* 421-449. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163621

Bailey, L. F. (2014). The origin and success of qualitative research. *International Journal of Market Research*, *56*(2), 167-184. https://doi.org/10.2501/IJMR-2014-013

Baralou, E., & McInnes, P. (2013). Emotions and the spatialisation of social relations in text-based computer-mediated communication. *New Technology, Work and Employment, 28*(2), 160-175. https://doi.org/10.1111/ntwe.12012

Barnwell, D., Nedrick, S., Rudolph, E., Sesay, M., & Wellen, W. (2014). Leadership of international and virtual project teams. *International Journal of Global Business, 7*(2), 1-8. Retrieved from http://www.gsmi-ijgb.com/Pages/IJGBV7N.aspx

Barusch, A., Gringeri, C., & George, M. (n.d). Rigor in qualitative social work research: A review of strategies used in published articles. *Social Work Research*, *35*(1), 11-19. https://doi.org/10.1093/swr/35.1.11

Bayrak, T. (2012). IT support services for telecommuting workforce. *Telematics and Informatics, 29*(3), 286-293. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2011.10.002

Bazeley, P., & Jackson, K. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis with NVivo.* Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

Beham, B., Baierl, A., & Poelmans, S. (2015). Managerial telework allowance decisions—A vignette study among German managers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *26*(11), 1385-1406. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2014.934894

Belle, S. M., Burley, D., & Long, S. (2015). Where do I belong? High-intensity teleworkers' experience of organizational belonging. *Human Resource Development International*, *18*(1), 76-96. https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2014.979006

Benetytė, D., & Jatuliavičienė, G. (2013). Building and sustaining trust in virtual teams within organizational context. *Regional Formation & Development Studies*, (10), 18-30. https://doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v10i2.138

Bentley, T., Teo, S., McLeod, L., Tan, F., Bosua, R., & Gloet, M. (2016). The role of organisational support in teleworker wellbeing: a socio-technical systems approach. *Applied Ergonomics*, *52*, 207-215. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apergo.2015.07.019

Bernardino, A. F., Roglio, K. D. D., & Del Corso, J. M. (2012). Telecommuting and HRM: A case study of an information technology service provider. *Journal of Information Systems and Technology Management: JISTEM,9*(2), 285-306. https://doi.org/10.4301/s1807-17752012000200005

Bloom, N., Liang, J., Roberts, J., & Ying, Z. J. (2015). Does working from home work? Evidence from a Chinese experiment*. *Quarterly Journal Of Economics*, *130*(1), 165-218. https://doi.org/10.3386/w18871

Bloomberg, L. D., & Volpe, M. (2012). *Completing your qualitative dissertation: A road map from beginning to end.* Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

Breunig, K.J., Hydle, K.M. (2013). Remote control: Measuring performance for value creation and governance of globally distributed knowledge work. *Journal of*

Management and Governance, 17, 559-582. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10997-011-9194-1

Brunelle, E. (2013). Leadership and mobile working: The impact of distance on the superior-subordinate relationship and the moderating effects of leadership style. *International Journal of Business and Social Science, 4*(11), 1-14. Retrieved from http://www.ijbssnet.com/

Burbach, M., & Day, F. (2015). Does organization sector matter in leading teleworker teams? A comparative case study. *International Journal of Business Research and Development (IJBRD), 3*(4), 8-21. Retrieved from https://www.sciencetarget.com/Journal/index.php/IJBRD/article/view/547/149

Cable, D., & Elsbach, K. (2012). Appearance is everything. *Business Strategy Review*, *23*(4), 56-58. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8616.2012.00899.x

Caillier, J. G. (2013). Does teleworking affect managing for results and constructive feedback? A research note. *Canadian Public Administration*, *56*(4), 638-654. https://doi.org/10.1111/capa.12043

Calvasina, G. E., Calvasina, R. V., & Calvasina, E. J. (2012). The virtual office: HRM legal, policy, and practice issues. *Business Studies Journal*, *4*(2), 37-46. Retrieved from http://www.alliedacademies.org/business-studies-journal/

Campbell, A. (2013). In-depth analysis of global leadership challenges. *Mustang Journal of Business and Ethics, 5*, 69-76. Retrieved from http://www.mustangjournals.com/MJBE/MJBE_home.htm

Carter, D. R., DeChurch, L. A., Braun, M. T., & Contractor, N. S. (2015). Social network approaches to leadership: An integrative conceptual review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(3), 597-622. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038922

Chang, W., & Lee, C. (2013). Virtual team e-leadership: The effects of leadership style and conflict management mode on the online learning performance of students in a business-planning course. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 44*(6), 986-999. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjet.12037

Chen, W., & McDonald, S. (2015). Do networked workers have more control? The implications of teamwork, telework, ICTs, and social capital for job decision latitude. *American Behavioral Scientist*, *59*(4), 492-507. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764214556808

Church, N. F. (2015). Gauging Perceived Benefits from 'Working from Home' as a Job Benefit. *International Journal Of Business & Economic Development*, *3*(3), 81-89. Retrieved from http://www.ijbed.org/admin/content/pdf/i-9_c-96.pdf

Clark, L. A., Karau, S. J., & Michalisin, M. D. (2012). Telecommuting attitudes and the 'big five' personality dimensions. *Journal Of Management Policy & Practice*, *13*(3), 31-46. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/journal/1913-8067_Journal_of_Management_Policy_and_Practice

Collins, A. M., Cartwright, S., & Hislop, D. (2013). Homeworking: negotiating the psychological contract. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *23*(2), 211-225. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-8583.2012.00200.x

Collins, N., Chou, Y., & Warner, M. (2014). Member satisfaction, communication and role of leader in virtual self-managed teamwork: case studies in Asia-Pacific region. *Human Systems Management*, *33*(4), 155-170. https://doi.org/10.3233/HSM-140824

Conger, J. A. (1998). Qualitative research as the cornerstone methodology for understanding leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly 9*(1), 107-121. https://doi.org/10.1016/s1048-9843(98)90044-3

Conger, J. A., & Lawler, E. E. (2009). Sharing leadership on corporate boards: A critical requirement for teamwork at the top. *Organizational Dynamics, 38*(3), 183-191. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2009.04.007

Cooke, G. B., Chowhan, J., & Cooper, T. (2014). Dialing it in: A Missed Opportunity Regarding the Strategic Use of Telework?. *Relations Industrielles / Industrial Relations*, *69*(3), 550-574. https://doi.org/10.7202/1026758ar

Cowan, L. D. (2014). e-leadership: Leading in a virtual environment–guiding principles for nurse leaders. *Nursing Economics, 32*(6), 312-319, 322. Retrieved from http://www.nursingeconomics.net/cgi-bin/WebObjects/NECJournal.woa

Crisp, C. B., & Jarvenpaa, S. L. (2013). Swift trust in global virtual teams: Trusting beliefs and normative actions. *Journal Of Personnel Psychology*, *12*(1), 45-56. https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000075

Dahlstrom, T. R. (2013). Telecommuting and Leadership Style. *Public Personnel Management*, *42*(3), 438-451. https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026013495731

Dionne, S. D., Gupta, A., Sotak, K. L., Shirreffs, K. A., Serban, A., Hao, C., . . . Yammarino, F. J. (2014). A 25-year perspective on levels of analysis in leadership

research. *Leadership Quarterly*, *25*(1), 6-35.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.002

Donnelly, N., & Proctor-Thomson, S. B. (2015). Disrupted work: home-based

teleworking (HbTW) in the aftermath of a natural disaster. *New Technology,*

Work & Employment, *30*(1), 47-61. https://doi.org/10.1111/ntwe.12040

Dunn, T. E., Lafferty, C. L., & Alford, K. L. (2012). Global leadership: A new

framework for a changing world. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, *77*(2), 4-

14. Retrieved from http://www.freepatentsonline.com/article/SAM-Advanced-

Management-Journal/296697572.html

Duxbury, L., & Halinski, M. (2014a). Dealing with the "grumpy boomers": Re-engaging

the disengaged and retaining talent. *Journal of Organizational Change*

Management, 27(4), 660-676. https://doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-05-2014-0106

Duxbury, L., & Halinski, M. (2014b). When more is less: An examination of the

relationship between hours in telework and role overload. *Work*, *48*(1), 91-103.

https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-141858

El Khouly, S., Ossman, M., Selim, M., & Zaghloul, M. (2014). Impact of E-leadership on

leadership styles within the Egyptian government sector. *Competition Forum,*

12(1), 131-140. Retrieved from

http://www.eberly.iup.edu/ASCWeb/journals_cf.html

El-Sofany, H., Alwadani, H., & Alwadani, A. (2014). Managing virtual team work in IT

projects: Survey. *International Journal Of Advanced Corporate Learning*, *7*(4),

28-33. https://doi.org/10.3991/ijac.v7i4.4018

Ellison, J. K. (2012). Ergonomics for telecommuters & other remote

workers. *Professional Safety*, *57*(6), 86-90. Retrieved from

http://www.asse.org/professional-safety/

Elsbach, K., & Cable, D. (2012). Why showing your face at work matters. *MIT Sloan*

Management Review, 53(4), 10-12. Retrieved from

http://sloanreview.mit.edu/article/why-showing-your-face-at-work-matters/

Eversole, B. A. W., Venneberg, D. L., & Crowder, C. L. (2012). Creating a flexible

organizational culture to attract and retain talented workers across generations.

Advances in Developing Human Resources, 14, 607–625.

https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422312455612

Fan, K. T., Chen, Y. H., Wang, C. W., & Chen, M. (2014). E-leadership effectiveness in

virtual teams: motivating language perspective. *Industrial Management & Data*

Systems, *114*(3), 421-437. https://doi.org/10.1108/IMDS-07-2013-0294

Fonner, K. L., & Roloff, M. E. (2012). Testing the connectivity paradox: Linking

teleworkers' communication media use to social presence, stress from

interruptions, and organizational identification. *Communication*

Monographs, *79*(2), 205-231. https://doi.org/10.1080/03637751.2012.673000

Fonner, K. L., & Stache, L. C. (2012). All in a day's work, at home: teleworkers'

management of micro role transitions and the work-home boundary. *New*

Technology, Work & Employment, *27*(3), 242-257. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-

005X.2012.00290.x

Friedman, S. D., & Westring, A. (2015). Empowering individuals to integrate work and

    life: insights for management development. *Journal Of Management*

    Development, *34*(3), 299-315. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-11-2012-0144

Gajendran, R. S., Harrison, D. A., & Delaney-Klinger, K. (2015). Are Telecommuters

    Remotely Good Citizens? Unpacking Telecommuting's Effects on Performance

    Via I-Deals and Job Resources. *Personnel Psychology*, *68*(2), 353-393.

    https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12082

Ghasabeh, M. S., Reaiche, C., & Soosay, C. (2015). The emerging role of

    transformational leadership. *Journal Of Developing Areas*, *49*(6), 459-467.

    https://doi.org/10.1353/jda.2015.0090

Giberson, T., & Miklos, S. (2013). Weighing in on telecommuting. *TIP: The Industrial-*

    Organizational Psychologist, *51*(2), 163-166. Retrieved from

    http://connection.ebscohost.com/c/articles/94148247/weighing-telecommuting

Gilman, K. (2014). Lessons from the trenches: How to make self-employment work for

    people with disabilities. *Work*, *48*(1), 137-140. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-

    131817

Gilson, L. L., Maynard, M. T., Young, N. J., Vartiainen, M., & Hakonen, M. (2015).

    Virtual teams research: 10 years, 10 themes, and 10 opportunities. *Journal Of*

    Management, *41*(5), 1313-1337. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314559946

Glass, A., Kenjegalieva, K., & Sickles, R. (2013). How efficiently do U.S. cities manage

    roadway congestion? *Journal Of Productivity Analysis*, *40*(3), 407-428.

    https://doi.org/10.1007/s11123-012-0288-9

Glikson, E., & Erez, M. (2013). Emotion display norms in virtual teams. *Journal Of Personnel Psychology*, *12*(1), 22-32. https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000078

Golden, T. D. (2012). Altering the effects of work and family conflict on exhaustion: Telework during traditional and nontraditional work hours. *Journal of Business & Psychology (27),* 255-269. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-011-9247-0

Golden, T. D., & Schoenleber, A. H. (2014). Toward a deeper understanding of the willingness to seek help: The case of teleworkers. *Work*, *48*(1), 83-90. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-131818

Golden, T.D., & Fromen, A. (2011). Does it matter where your manager works? Comparing managerial work mode (traditional, telework, virtual) across subordinate work experiences and outcomes. *Human Relations, (64)*11, 1451-1475. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726711418387

Graizbord, B. (2015). Teleworking as a Mobility Strategy for Mexico City. *International Planning Studies*, *20*(1/2), 112-130. https://doi.org/10.1080/13563475.2014.942506

Greer, T. W., & Payne, S. C. (2014). Overcoming telework challenges: Outcomes of successful telework strategies. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, *17*(2), 87-111. https://doi.org/10.1037/mgr0000014

Harmera, B. M., & Pauleen, D. J. (2012). Attitude, aptitude, ability and autonomy: the emergence of 'offroaders', a special class of nomadic worker. *Behaviour & Information Technology*, *31*(5), 439-451. https://doi.org/10.1080/0144929x.2010.489117

Heng, T.B., Hooi, P. C., Loh, Y. L., Ong, T. S., & Hong, Y. H. (2013). Enhancing the implementation of telecommuting (work from home) in Malaysia. *Asian Social Science, 9*(7), 1-11. https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v9n7p1

Higgins, C., Duxbury, L., & Julien, M. (2014). The relationship between work arrangements and work-family conflict. *Work*, *48*(1), 69-81. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-141859

Hilbrecht, M., Shaw, S. M., Johnson, L. C., & Andrey, J. (2013). Remixing work, family and leisure: teleworkers' experiences of everyday life. *New Technology, Work & Employment*, *28*(2), 130-144. https://doi.org/10.1111/ntwe.12010

Hoch, J. E., & Kozlowski, S. J. (2014). Leading virtual teams: Hierarchical leadership, structural supports, and shared team leadership. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, *99*(3), 390-403. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030264

Holt, D. B. (1991). Rashomon visits consumer behavior: An interpretative critique of naturalistic inquiry. *Advances In Consumer Research*, *18*(1), 57-62. Retrieved from http://www.acrwebsite.org/volumes/7136/volumes/v18/NA-18

Hosseini, M. R., Chileshe, N., Ghoddousi, P., Jahanshahloo, G. R., Katebi, A., & Saeedi, M. (2013). Performance evaluation for global virtual teams (GVTs): Application of data envelopment analysis (DEA). *International Journal of Business and Management, 8*(19), 122-136. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v8n19p122

Husserl, E. (2014). *Ideas I.* (D. O. Dahlstrom, Trans.) Indianapolis, IN: Hackett Publishing Company. (Original work published 1913)

Hynes, M. (2014). Telework isn't working: A policy review. *The Economic and Social Review, 45*(4), 579-602. Retrieved from http://www.esr.ie/article/view/231

Jamnani, R. A., Boromand, Z., & Salehi, K. H. (2013). Surveying the impact of

    teleworking on organizational behavior factors at SAPCO. *International Journal*

    of Management Research and Reviews, 3(9), 3501-3506. Retrieved from

    ijmrr.com.

Jang, C. (2013). Facilitating trust in virtual teams: The role of awareness. *Advances in*

    Competitiveness Research, 21(1), 61-77. Retrieved from

    https://www.questia.com/library/journal/1P3-3067129851/facilitating-trust-in-

    virtual-teams-the-role-of-awareness

Jawadi, N., Daassi, M., Favier, M., & Kalika, M. (2013). Relationship building in virtual

    teams: A leadership behavioral complexity perspective. *Human Systems*

    Management, *32*(3), 199-211. https://doi.org/10.3233/HSM-130791

Kaplan, K. (2014). Telecommuting: No place like home. *Nature*, *506*(7486), 121-123.

    https://doi.org/10.1038/nj7486-121a

Kelley, E., & Kelloway, E.K. (2012). Context matters: Testing a model of remote

    leadership. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, (19)*4, 437-449.

    https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051812454173

Koh, C., Allen, T. D., & Zafar, N. (2013). Dissecting reasons for not telecommuting: Are

    nonusers a homogenous group? *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, *16*(4), 243-

    260. https://doi.org/10.1037/mgr0000008

Kosnik, T. J., & Bonoma, T. V. (1986). Naturalistic Inquiry. *Journal Of Marketing*

    Research (JMR), *23*(2), 190-191. https://doi.org/10.2307/3151669

Kossek, E. E., Thompson, R. J., & Lautsch, B. A. (2015). Balanced Workplace

    Flexibility: Avoiding the traps. *California Management Review*, *57*(4), 5-25.

    https://doi.org/10.1525/cmr.2015.57.4.5

Landis, E. A., Hill, D., & Harvey, M. R. (2014). A Synthesis of Leadership Theories and

    Styles. *Journal Of Management Policy & Practice*, *15*(2), 97-100. Retrieved from

    http://na-businesspress.homestead.com/JMPP/LandisEA_Web15_2_.pdf

Leduc, S., Guilbert, L., & Vallery, G. (2015). Impact of ICTs on leadership practices:

    Representations and actions. *Leadership & Organization Development*

    Journal, *36*(4), 380-395. https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-07-2013-0090

Leduc, C., Houlfort, N., & Bourdeau, S. (2016). Work-life balance: The good and bad of

    boundary management. *International Journal of Psychological Studies 8*(1), 134-

    146. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijps.v8n1p133

Leech, N., & Onwuegbuzie, A. (2011). Beyond constant comparison qualitative data

    analysis: Using NVivo. *School Psychology Quarterly*, *26*(1), 70-84.

    https://doi.org/10.1037/a0022711

Lewis, M., & Staehler, T. (2014). *Phenomenology: An introduction.* New York:

    Bloomsbury.

Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE

    Publications.

Linden, M. (2014, May). Telework research and practice: Impacts on people with

    disabilities. *Work, 48*(1), 65-67. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-141857

Linden, M., & Milchus, K. (2012). Teleworkers with disabilities: Characteristics and

    accommodation use. *Work, 47*(4), 473-483. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-141834

Lord, R. G., & Dinh, J. E. (2014). What Have We Learned That Is Critical in
Understanding Leadership Perceptions and Leader-Performance
Relations?. *Industrial & Organizational Psychology*, *7*(2), 158-177.
https://doi.org/10.1111/iops.12127

Madlock, P. E. (2013). The influence of motivational language in the technologically
mediated realm of telecommuters. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *23*(2),
196-210. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-8583.2012.00191.x

Magni, M., Maruping, L. M., Hoegl, M., & Proserpio, L. (2013). Managing the
unexpected across space: Improvisation, dispersion, and performance in NPD
teams. *Journal Of Product Innovation Management*, *30*(5), 1009-1026.
https://doi.org/10.1111/jpim.12043

Magnusson, P., Schuster, A., & Taras, V. (2014). A process-based explanation of the
psychic distance paradox: Evidence from global virtual teams. *Management
International Review (MIR)*, *54*(3), 283-306. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11575-014-
0208-5

Mahoney, K.A. (2014). U. S. Department of Commerce telework program. Retrieved
from
http://hr.commerce.gov/s/groups/public/@doc/@cfoasa/@ohrm/documents/conte
nt/prod01_010437.pdf

Marett, K., & George, J. (2013). Barriers to deceiving other group members in virtual
settings. *Group Decision & Negotiation*, *22*(1), 89-115.
https://doi.org/10.1007/s10726-012-9297-3

Martin, B. H., & MacDonnell, R. (2012). Is telework effective for organizations? A meta-analysis of empirical research on perceptions of telework and organizational outcomes. Management Research Review, 35, 602–616. https://doi.org/10.1108/01409171211238820

Martin, R., Guillaume, Y., Thomas, G., Lee, A., & Epitropaki, O. (2016). Leader–member exchange (LMX) and performance: A meta-analytic review. *Personnel Psychology*, *69*(1), 67-121. https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12100

Martinez, P., & Gomez, C. B. (2013). Trading telecommuting flexibility for fewer training opportunities? *Management Research,11*(3), 235-259. https://doi.org/10.1108/mrjiam-04-2012-0478

Maruyama, T., & Tietze, S. (2012). From anxiety to assurance: Concerns and outcomes of telework. *Personnel Review, 41*(4), 450-469. https://doi.org/10.1108/00483481211229375

Maxwell, J.A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach.* Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

McCleskey, J. A. (2014). Situational, Transformational, and Transactional Leadership and Leadership Development. *Journal Of Business Studies Quarterly*, *5*(4), 117-130. Retrieved from http://jbsq.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/06/June_2014_9.pdf

Mendez, M. J., Al Arkoubi, K., & Cai-Hillon, Y. (2015). Business leadership education: A virtual storytellers exercise. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal, 19*(1), 31-42. Retrieved from http://www.abacademies.org/journals/academy-of-educational-leadership-journal-home.html

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook.* Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

Moon, N. W., Linden, M. A., Bricout, J. C., & Baker, P. M. (2014). Telework rationale and implementation for people with disabilities: Considerations for employer policymaking. *Work*, *48*(1), 105-115 11p. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-131819

Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Muganda, N., & Pillay, K. (2013). Forms of power, politics and leadership in asynchronous virtual project environment. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business, 6*(3), 457-484. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijmpb-11-2011-0075

Mustafa, M., & Gold, M. (2013). "Chained to my work"? Strategies to manage temporal and physical boundaries among self-employed teleworkers. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *23*(4), 413-429. https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.1200

Neirotti, P., Paolucci, E., & Raguseo, E. (2013). Mapping the antecedents of telework diffusion: firm-level evidence from Italy. *New Technology, Work & Employment*, *28*(1), 16-36. https://doi.org/10.1111/ntwe.12001

Nyström, C. A., & Asproth, V. (2013). Virtual teams–Support for technical communication?. *Journal Of Organisational Transformation & Social Change*, *10*(1), 64-80. https://doi.org/10.1179/1477963312Z.0000000006

O'Leary, M. B., Wilson, J. M., & Metiu, A. (2014). Beyond being there: The symbolic role of communication and identification in perceptions of proximity to geographically dispersed colleagues. *MIS Quarterly*, *38*(4), 1219-A7. https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2322710

Onchoke, S. I., & Akash, S. B. (2012). Human asset managing and traffic jam control. *SCMS Journal Of Indian Management*, *9*(1), 104-110. Retrieved from http://www.scmsgroup.org/scmsjim/about-us.html

Palinkas, L. A., Horwitz, S. M., Green, C. A., Wisdom, J. P., Duan, N., Hoagwood, K. (2013). Purposeful sampling for qualitative data collection and analysis in mixed method implementation research, *Administration and Policy in Mental Health and Mental Health Services Research 42*(5), 533-544. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10488-013-0528-y

Parris, D., & Peachey, J. (2013). A Systematic Literature Review of Servant Leadership Theory in Organizational Contexts. *Journal Of Business Ethics*, *113*(3), 377-393. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1322-6

Patterson, S., Harvey, D. M., & Bosco, S. M. (2014). Drawing the line when working from home: The benefits and challenges of telecommuters. *Proceedings For The Northeast Region Decision Sciences Institute (NEDSI)*, 887-896. Retrieved from http://nedsi.org

Patton, M. Q. (2016). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods.* Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

Pinar, T., Zehir, C., Kitapçi, H., & Tanriverdi, H. (2014). The relationships between leadership behaviors team learning and performance among the virtual teams. *International Business Research, 7*(5), 68-79. https://doi.org/10.5539/ibr.v7n5p68

Powell, A., & Craig, L. (2015). Gender differences in working at home and time use patterns: Evidence from Australia. *Work, Employment And Society*, *29*(4), 571-589. https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017014568140

Raghuram, S., & Fang, D. (2014). Telecommuting and the role of supervisory power in China. *Asia Pacific Journal Of Management*, *31*(2), 523-547. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-013-9360-x

Ravas, O. (2013). Homeworking contract and teleworking – Importance and role in the economy. *Annals Of The University Of Petrosani Economics*, *13*(2), 221-230. Retrieved from http://www.upet.ro/annals/economics/pdf/2013/part2/Ravas_O.-1.pdf

Ravitch, S.M., & Riggan, M. (2017). *Reason & rigor: How conceptual frameworks guide research.* Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

Ravitch, S.M., & Carl, N.M. (2016). *Qualitative research: Bridging the conceptual, theoretical, and methodological.* Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

Reiners, G. M. (2012). Understanding the differences between Husserl's (descriptive) and Heidegger's (interpretive) phenomenological research. *Journal of Nursing & Care*, *1*(119), 2167-1168. https://doi.org/10.4172/2167-1168.1000119

Robertson, M., & Vink, P. (2012). Examining new ways of office work between the Netherlands and the USA. *Work, 41,* 5086-5090. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-2012-1042-5086

Rodriguez, S. (2013). Use workforce technology for a mobile worker program that rocks. *Workforce Solutions Review*, *4*(5), 28-29. Retrieved from http://www.ihrimpublications.com/

Savolainen, T. (2014). Trust-building in e-leadership: A case study of leaders' challenges and skills in technology-mediated interaction. *Journal of Global Business Issues, 8*(2), 45-56. Retrieved from http://www.jgbi.org

Schmidt, C., Mansson, S., & Dolles, H. (2013). Managing talents for global leadership positions in MNCs: Responding to the challenges in China. *Asian Business & Management*, *12*(4), 477-496. https://doi.org/10.1057/abm.2013.11

Schmidt, G. B. (2014). Virtual leadership: An important leadership context. *Industrial And Organizational Psychology: Perspectives On Science And Practice*, *7*(2), 182-187. https://doi.org/10.1111/iops.12129

Siebdrat, F., Hoegl, M., & Ernst, H. (2014). Subjective Distance and Team Collaboration in Distributed Teams. *Journal Of Product Innovation Management*, *31*(4), 765-779. https://doi.org/10.1111/jpim.12122

Singh, P., Paleti, R., Jenkins, S., & Bhat, C. R. (2013). On modeling telecommuting behavior: Option, choice, and frequency. *Transportation, 40*(2), 373-396. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11116-012-9429-2

Stephens, N. (2013). Opening the door to tomorrow's top talent. *Human Resource Management International Digest, 21*(5), 40-42. https://doi.org/10.1108/HRMID-05-2013-0045

Stout, M. S., Awad, G., & Guzmán, M. (2013). Exploring managers' attitudes toward work/family programs in the private sector. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, *16*(3), 176-195. https://doi.org/10.1037/mgr0000005

Toaddy, S. (2014). A Broader Perspective on Telework. *TIP: The Industrial-Organizational Psychologist*, *52*(1), 28-33. Retrieved from http://my.siop.org/TIPdefault

Troup, C., & Rose, J. (2012). Working from home: Do formal or informal telework
    arrangements provide better work–family outcomes? *Community, Work &*
    Family, *15*(4), 471-486. https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2012.724220

V., R. T. (2013). Investment in employee retention as a means of achieving the strategic
    business objectives of the organization: An overview. *International Journal of*
    Organizational Behaviour & Management Perspectives, 2(3), 499-504. Retrieved
    from
    http://pezzottaitejournals.net/pezzottaite/2013_IJOBMP_PAGE_OF_CONTENTS
    _V2N3_JULY_SEPTEMBER.php#

Van Manen, M. (2014). *Phenomenology of practice: Meaning-giving methods in*
    phenomenological research and writing. Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press

Van Wart, M. (2013). Lessons from Leadership Theory and the Contemporary
    Challenges of Leaders. *Public Administration Review*, *73*(4), 553-565.
    https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12069

Vink, P., Blok, M., Formanoy, M., de Korte, E., & Groenesteijn, L. (2012). The effects of
    new ways of work in the Netherlands: national data and a case study. *Work*, *41,*
    5081-5085. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-2012-0801-5081

Vitola, A., & Baltina, I. (2013). An evaluation of the demand for telework and smart
    work centres in rural areas: A case study from Latvia. *European*
    Countryside, *5*(3), 251-264. https://doi.org/10.2478/euco-2013-0016

Wadsworth, M. B., & Blanchard, A. L. (2015). Influence tactics in virtual
    teams. *Computers In Human Behavior*, *44*386-393.
    https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2014.11.026

Walden University. (2014). *2014 social change impact report.* Retrieved from Walden

    University website: https://mediacdn.waldenu.edu/-

    /media/files/wal/about/scir/2014-social-change-impact-report.pdf?la=en&v1

Weyant, L. E., & Palmer, S. (2012). Telecommuting: Alternative work schedule for

    faculty in the digital age. *Journal Of Business, Society & Government*, *4*(1), 57-

    68. Retrieved from http://www.worldcat.org/title/journal-of-business-society-

    government/oclc/874326740/editions?referer=di&editionsView=true

Wheatley, D. (2012). Good to be home? Time-use and satisfaction levels among home-

    based teleworkers. *New Technology, Work & Employment*, *27*(3), 224-241.

    https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-005X.2012.00289.x

Zhang, J. (2016). The Dark Side of Virtual Office and Job Satisfaction. *International*

    Journal of Business and Management, *11*(2), 40.

    https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v11n2p40

Ziek, P., & Smulowitz, S. (2014). The impact of emergent virtual leadership

    competencies on team effectiveness. *Leadership & Organization Development*

    Journal, 35(2), 106-120. https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-03-2012-0043